

THE PICTORIAL HISTORY OF THE WORLD;

EMBRACING

FULL AND AUTHENTIC ACCOUNTS

OF

EVERY NATION OF ANCIENT AND MODERN TIMES.

SHOWING

THE CAUSES OF THEIR PROSPERITY
AND DECLINE,

AND INCLUDING

A FULL AND COMPREHENSIVE HISTORY OF THE RISE AND FALL OF THE GREEK
AND ROMAN EMPIRES, THE GROWTH OF THE NATIONS OF MODERN
EUROPE, THE MIDDLE AGES, THE CRUSADES, THE FEUDAL SYSTEM,
THE REFORMATION, THE DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT
OF THE NEW WORLD, ETC., ETC.

WITH SKETCHES

OF

THE LEADING CHARACTERS IN THE WORLD'S HISTORY.

BY

JAMES D. McCABE,

Author of "The Centennial History of the United States," "History of the War Between
Germany and France," "Pathways of the Holy Land," etc., etc.

EMBELLISHED WITH OVER 650 FINE ENGRAVINGS OF BATTLES AND OTHER HISTORICAL SCENES; PORTRAITS
OF THE GREAT MEN OF ANCIENT AND MODERN TIMES; VIEWS OF THE CITIES OF THE WORLD, ETC.

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PREFACE.

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THE need of a reliable History of the World has long been felt by all classes of our people. This want led the author several years ago to undertake the preparation of this volume, in which he has endeavored to give in a concise and compact form all the principal events in the world's history.

One of the most gratifying evidences of the intellectual progress of the American people is the increasing interest that is manifested by them in historical studies. Nor is this the case in our own land only. In the old world men are giving more attention to the events of the past, and trying to learn from them lessons of wisdom for the future. This has led to most important results. So many discoveries have been made in the domain of ancient history, so many of the old ideas and traditions have been exploded and shown to be mere myths and legends, that the subject may be said to be almost entirely new, and he who was well informed in history twenty years ago will find himself unable to discourse intelligibly upon it now, unless he has kept up with the advance of historical knowledge. The labors and researches of Champollion, Niebuhr, Mariette, Bunsen, Arnold, Rawlinson, Mommsen, Curtius, and others have thrown a flood of light upon the history of the ancient world, and the inscriptions discovered and deciphered by these diligent and gifted workers enable us to read the deeds of the great personages of ancient times in their own words, and have given to this department of history an authority which it never before possessed. Thus, for instance, in Egypt—a country the early records of which were once believed to be lost, or at the best to rest upon the doubtful testimony of a foreign writer—the kings and heroes speak to us from the walls of their palaces and tombs, in the inscriptions which have defied the defacing hand of time.

So also in Assyria, Babylonia, Greece, and Rome, modern discovery and criticism have swept away the ancient myths, and have placed the history of these countries upon a substantial and enduring basis. "At the present day," says Le Normant, "one cannot, without unpardonable ignorance, adhere to such a history as has been written by good old Rollin."

So too in the domain of mediæval and modern history. The great fact that the civilization of Europe did not perish with the Roman empire, but was taken up and carried out on a more perfect and glorious scale by the great Teutonic race, has received the attention it merits only from comparatively recent writers. In many things it may be said that the world's history after the disruption of the Roman empire has not been fully or properly understood until our own times. Nor have we had until recently any reliable knowledge of the history of China and Japan, which have heretofore been as sealed books to the rest of the world.

These discoveries have not been made known to the general public. They are only to be found in voluminous and very costly works which are inaccessible to the great mass of the people. There is therefore a real necessity for a work which shall embody in a single volume the very latest results of historical research, and shall be accurate and comprehensive in statement and popular in style.

In the arrangement of this volume the history of each country is given separately. This seemed best to the author, as it admitted of a continuous and detailed narrative. The work being contained in a single volume, it is of course easy for the reader to make the comparisons and references necessary to give him a clear idea of the general course of history. In order to avoid repetition, the events relating to several nations in common are narrated at length in the history of the country which they principally concern, and in other portions of the work where they occur the attention of the reader is directed, by references, to the main narrative. Thus the wars of Napoleon I. are related at length in the *History of France*. In the *History of England* this period is treated in less detail, reference being made to the French history. In this way the reader is kept fully informed of the events of the history of each country, and is not wearied with needless repetition. The history of those nations that have played the chief part in the world's career is given at greater length than that of those which have been less prominent, but at the same time the history of the most unimportant country is related with sufficient fulness to give the reader a clear and comprehensive idea of it. While great prominence is given to ancient history, the author has endeavored to direct the reader's attention especially to the events of the middle ages and of modern history.

It has been the earnest aim of the author to embody in these pages the latest conclusions of the most eminent authorities in the various departments of history. He has tried to make the narrative not a mere dry statement of facts, but to present a picture of the life and manners of every nation of which the work treats; to point out the real causes of the growth, prosperity, and decay of the empires of the ancient and modern world; and to bring before his readers the various great men—the sages, warriors, poets, and orators—of the past, as they appeared in life; to show the secret motives of their actions, and to point out the lessons which their lives teach us. It is only by knowing and pondering upon the lessons of the past that we can properly shape our conduct in the future. All down the long “avenues of time” the voices of the great departed are calling to us, warning us to avoid the errors which wrecked the mighty empires and kingdoms of the past. How shall we do this if we are ignorant of their history? The author trusts that this work may be fruitful in presenting these lessons.

PHILADELPHIA, PA.,

February 25th, 1878.



RETREAT OF THE FRENCH FROM MOSCOW.

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THE ILLUSTRATED HISTORY OF THE WORLD.

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 SACRED History begins with an account of the creation of the world and of man by Almighty God. The Bible assigns no date for these events; neither has science been able to fix them with certainty. The various chronologies which have been constructed for the earlier epochs of man's existence are purely arbitrary, and have no dogmatic authority. The Bible does not attempt to furnish us with any system of chronology. It teaches simply that the world and man were created by Almighty God, for a definite purpose, and that the human race is descended from one original pair—the first man and the first woman created by God—the Adam and the Eve.

The human race is believed to have be-

gun its existence in Asia; most probably in some portion of the vast region lying between the mountains in which the Amoo and the Indus take their rise, on the east, and the mountains in which rise the Euphrates and the Tigris, on the west. It was in this delightful and fertile land that the great trial of man's obedience, and his fatal surrender to evil, occurred. Driven from Eden, Adam and Eve were condemned to painful and arduous labor, as the condition of their existence. Hitherto their labor had been pleasant.

Adam and Eve had two sons, Cain and Abel. The first led an agricultural, and the latter a pastoral life—two modes of existence which are thus shown to be as old as humanity. Becoming jealous of the greater purity of Abel's life, Cain slew him, and thus became the first murderer. Upon hearing his sentence of punishment from the lips of his Maker, he became an exile with his family, and wandered into the country to the east of Eden, where he built the first city, which he called "Enoch," after his first-born. Cain had a numerous posterity, to whom the Bible attributes the invention of the industrial arts and music.

A third son was born to Adam and Eve after the death of Abel. They named him Seth, and he was the patriarch from whom the Hebrews traced their descent. Seth had a numerous family, and lived to the age of 912 years. It was through this family that the religious traditions of the

primitive revelation were preserved faithfully down to the time of the Deluge.

The eighth in descent from Seth was



THE EARTH AT THE CREATION.

Noah, whose family retained the worship of the true God. The world had grown desperately wicked, and men had given

themselves over to vice of all kinds. So terrible had the condition of the world become, that we are told that "it repented the Lord that he had made man on the earth, and it grieved him at his heart." To purge the world of its wickedness, the Almighty resolved to destroy every living thing upon it with the exception of a certain number of each kind which he designed for the reproduction of their various species. "Noah," we are told, "was a just man, and perfect in his generations, and Noah walked with God." In consequence of this, he was exempted from the general destruction, together with his family, and was ordered to prepare an ark, or floating house, of gopher wood, according to a plan revealed to him by God, who informed him of his purpose to bring a flood upon the world. When the ark was finished, Noah was ordered to enter it with his family, and to take with him seven couples of every clean and unclean animal, "two of every sort" "of every living thing of all flesh." He obeyed the Divine command, and they "went in male and female of all flesh, as God had commanded him; and the Lord shut him in." Then the Deluge commenced. "The fountains of the great deep were broken up, and the windows of heaven were opened. And the rain was upon the earth forty days and forty nights. . . And the waters increased, and bare up the ark, and it was lifted up above the earth. And the waters prevailed, and were increased greatly upon the earth, and the ark went upon the face of the waters. . . And all the high hills, that were under the whole heaven, were covered. Fifteen cubits upward did the waters prevail; and the mountains were covered. And all flesh died that moved upon the earth, both of fowl and of cattle, and of beast, and of every creeping thing that creepeth upon the earth, and every man; all in whose nostrils was the breath of life, of all that was in the dry land, died. And every living substance was destroyed which was upon the face of the ground, both man and cattle, and the creeping things, and the fowl of the heaven; and they were destroyed from the earth: and Noah only remained alive, and they that were with him in the ark. And the waters prevailed upon the earth a hundred and fifty days."

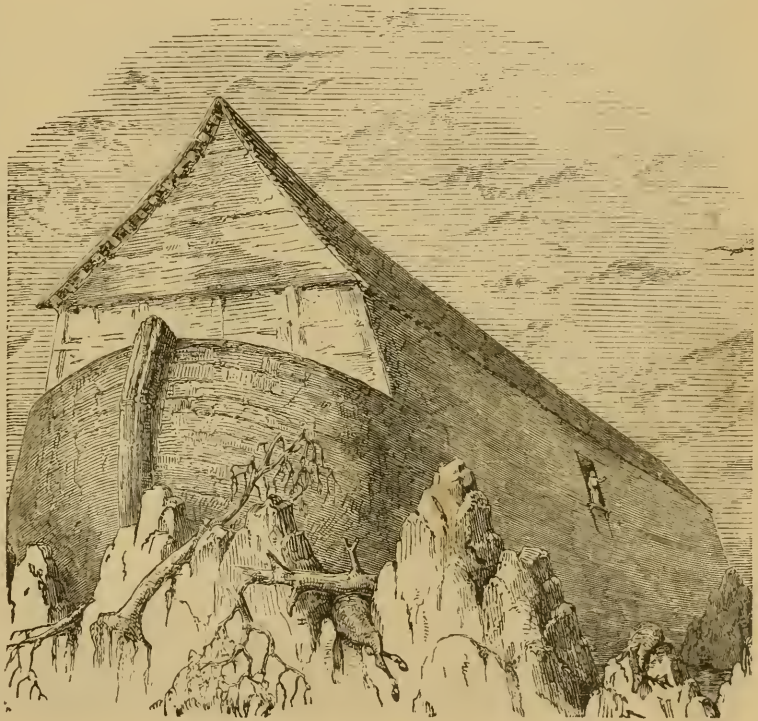
At the end of five months the waters went down, and the ark rested "upon the mountains of Ararat." "And the waters

decreased continually until the tenth month; in the tenth month, on the first day of the month, were the tops of the mountains seen. And it came to pass at the end of forty days, that Noah opened the window of the ark which he had made; and he sent forth a raven, which went to and fro, until the waters were dried up from off the earth. And he sent forth a dove from him, to see if the waters were abated off the face of the ground. But the dove found no rest for the sole of her foot, and she returned unto him into the ark; for the waters were on the face of the whole earth. Then he put forth his hand, and took her, and pulled her in unto him, into the ark. And he stayed yet other seven days, and again he sent forth the dove out of the ark. And the dove came into him in the evening, and lo, in her mouth was an olive leaf plucked off; so Noah knew that the waters were abated from off the earth. And he stayed yet other seven days, and sent forth the dove, which returned not again unto him any more."

The earth being dry, Noah, his family, and the creatures that were with him, left the ark. Noah's first act was to build an altar and offer a sacrifice to the Lord, who made a covenant with him and his race. Noah, his wife, and his three sons, Shem, Ham, and Japheth, then resumed the cultivation of the earth. Noah lived three hundred and fifty years after the flood, and died at the age of nine hundred and fifty years.

From the three sons of Noah were descended the races which repopled the earth after the deluge. The region in which the sons of Noah settled after leaving the ark

appears to be the mountain mass of Little Bokhara and Western Thibet, where the great rivers of Asia, the Indus, the Oxus, and the Jaxartes, take their rise. Some generations later the descendants of Noah, who had increased with great rapidity, wandered westward, and fixed their dwellings on the great plains watered by the Tigris and the Euphrates, in the country originally called Shinar. Here their pride in their numbers and strength led them to believe that they could baffle even God, and they began the erection of a city, and of a tower the top of which was to reach to heaven, and



THE ARK.

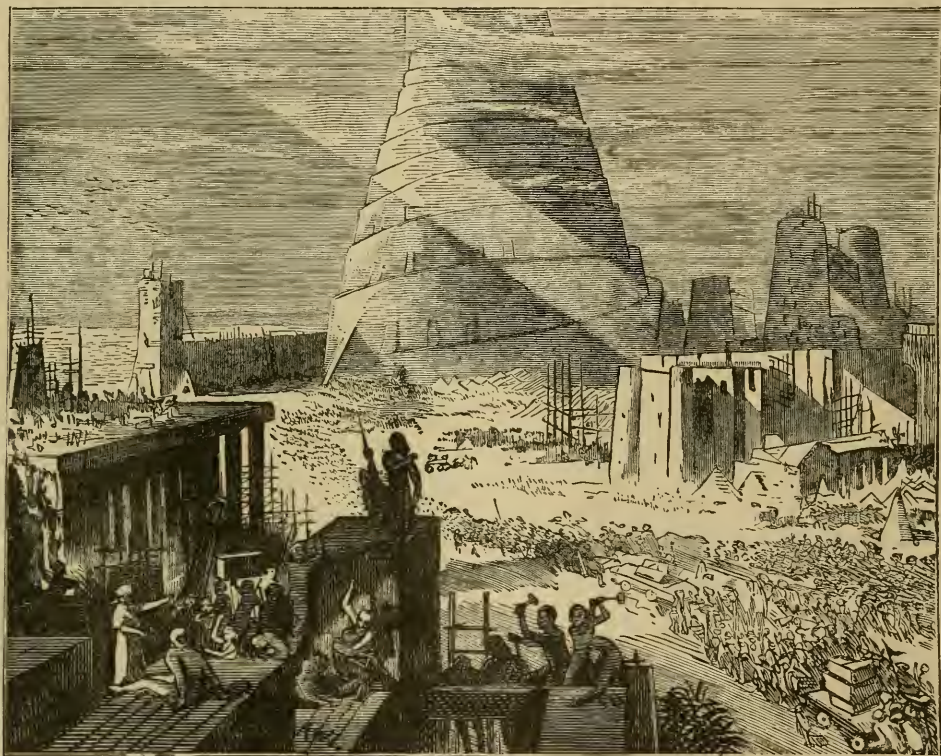
so enable them to escape any subsequent deluge that might be sent upon the earth. Up to this time all men spoke a common tongue. God punished their insolence by confusing their language. Unable to understand each other, they were compelled to discontinue their work, and to disperse, "each family, or group of families, carrying with it the new language, from that time to become its own, and whence the idioms, science now attempts to classify according to their analogies, are descended." The unfinished tower was called Babel, or,

"confusion," on account of the confusion of languages which took place there. By this dispersion the descendants of Noah were scattered over the world.

The descendants of *Shem* were: the Persians, whose progenitor was Elam; the Assyrians, who were descended from Ashur; the Hebrews and the Arabs, who sprang from Arphaxad; the Lydians, who were the descendants of Lud; and the Assyrians, who were descended from Aram. The descendants of *Ham* were: the Ethiopians, who sprang from Cush; the Egyptians,

Minor; Tiras, the ancestor of the Thracians; and Javan, the progenitor of the Ionian Greeks. This enumeration, which is made in accordance with the statements of Moses, refers exclusively to the white race. For some reason, Moses gives us no account of the origin of the yellow, the red, and the black races. The object of the sacred writer was evidently to give the pedigree of the Hebrews, and the mention of other nations is purely incidental.

The tenth patriarch from Noah, in the line of *Shem*, was Abram, the great ances-



THE TOWER OF BABEL.

who sprang from Misraim; the Libyans, who sprang from Phut; and the Phoenicians, who sprang from Canaan. The children of *Japheth* were: Gomer, from whom were descended the Germans, Scandinavians and Gauls, in Europe, and the Armenians in Asia; Magog, from whom sprang the great Turanian race, usually divided into the Ugro-Finnish and the Dravidian branches; Madai, from whom were descended the Medes; Tubal, from whom sprang the inhabitants of the valleys of the Caucasus; Meshech, the ancestor of the nations of Asia

tor of the Hebrews. His father was Terah, who dwelt in "Ur of the Chaldees" with his family and kindred. Some writers have identified the ancient city of Ur with Orfah, in the highlands of Mesopotamia (Aram), which unite the tableland of Armenia to the valley of the Euphrates. In later ages the city was called Edessa by the Greeks. While living there, Abram was called by God to leave his home and go into a land which God would show him. In consequence of this call the family of Terah quitted Ur and removed to Haran,

or, as it is more properly called in the New Testament, Charran, east of the Euphrates. Here Terah died, after a residence of some years, and here Nahor, his son, pleased with the beauty and fertility of the country, took up his permanent abode.

Meanwhile Abram, as soon as his father was buried, and, it would seem, in obedience to a second call from God, took leave of his brother Nahor, and continued his journey with Sarai, his wife, and his nephew Lot. He went out in implicit reliance upon the divine promise, his future home being merely described to him by the

Promised Land, making his first halt in the Valley of Sichern, or Shechem. Here God appeared to him again and renewed his promise that this land should be the home of the patriarch's descendants; and here Abram erected the first altar that was set up to Jehovah in Palestine.

The country at this time was occupied by the Canaanites, who were the descendants of Canaan, the fourth son of Ham. Abram took up his abode in the mountain region, which though it protected him from the Canaanites, who occupied the more fertile plains below, gave him but scanty pas-



A SHEPHERD IN THE TIME OF ABRAHAM.

Almighty as "a land that I will show thee." Crossing the Euphrates, he separated himself entirely from the land of his birth. Hence the Canaanites called him the "Hebrew," "the man who had crossed the river," "the emigrant from Mesopotamia." Passing through the Syrian desert, he seems to have tarried a while at Damascus, which was even then a city. Here he appears to have met with his faithful servant Eliezer, whom he made "steward of his house." From Damascus he journeyed farther south, crossed the Jordan and entered the

ture for his cattle. He continued to move southward until the scarcity of food forced him to enter Egypt. Fearing that the Egyptian king would be tempted by Sarai's beauty to kill him in order to get possession of her, Abram passed her off as his sister. Supposing her to be an unmarried woman, the Egyptian monarch took her to his harem, and heaped wealth and honors upon Abram. The king was warned of his mistake by plagues sent upon him and his household, and he at once restored Sarai to her husband, rebuked him for his deceit,

and sent him out of Egypt with the wealth he had acquired. Abram moved back through Palestine to his old encampment at Bethel, where he again established the worship of Jehovah. Here he and Lot became involved in quarrels about their cattle, and separated, Abram remaining in the mountains, and Lot descending to the fertile plain near Sodom. Abram then removed southward to the "oaks of Mamre," near Hebron. This place became from this time his usual abode.

Shortly afterwards Chedorlaomer, the

feated them, rescued Lot, and recovered all the spoil that had been taken from the five cities.

Some time after this, it pleased God to make a solemn covenant with the patriarch, and on this occasion the Almighty revealed himself to his servant by his name JEHOVAH, and renewed his promise to make "Abram the father of a great nation." "Lord God, what wilt thou give me, seeing I go childless and one born in my house is mine heir," said the patriarch. The divine answer was prompt:



THE VALLEY OF THE JORDAN.

king of Elam, and chief of a great empire in Western Asia, invaded Southern Palestine, and conquered the five cities of Sodom, Gomorrah, Admah, Zeboiim, and Bela (afterwards called Zoar), which had revolted against him. In this war Lot and all his cattle were captured and carried off by the victors. As soon as he heard of this, Abram collected a band of 318 of his own people and a force of his Amorite allies and pursued the forces of Chedorlaomer. He overtook them near Damascus, and de-

"Look now toward heaven and tell the stars if thou be able to number them; and he said unto him, So shall thy seed be." The childless man believed the promise of God, "and he counted it to him for righteousness."

"The promise was as specific as it was solemn. It included: I. The bondage of the Hebrews in a strange land for 400 years. II. Their delivery, with great wealth, and amid judgments on their oppressors. III. Their return to the Promised Land in the fourth

generation, when the iniquity of its inhabitants should be full." Somewhat later, God renewed his covenant with Abraham, and added the sign of *circumcision* to it.

After a sojourn of ten years in the land of Canaan, Sarai began to despair of becoming the mother of the patriarch's heir, and advised Abram to take to wife her servant Hagar, an Egyptian woman, by whom

should be born, *Ishmael* (which means, *God shall hear*). He also foretold the character of the child and his destiny, in the following words, which accurately describe the Bedawin Arabs of the present day, whose great progenitor the child became: "He will be a wild man; his hand will be against every man, and every man's hand against him; and he shall dwell in the face of all



CAPTURE OF LOT AND HIS FAMILY.

he had a son. Before the child was born, Hagar, puffed up by pride, became so insolent to her mistress that Sarai punished her. Hagar fled into the wilderness of Kadesh, southeast of Abram's abode. Here the angel of God appeared to her, and commanded her to return to her mistress; he encouraged her by promising that she should be the mother of a great nation, and commanded her to name her child, when it

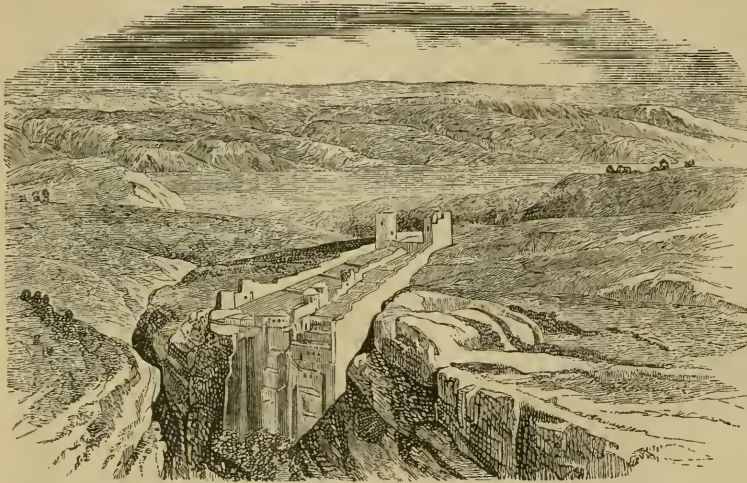
his brethren." The latter prediction means that the territory of Ishmael's descendants should be to the east of the country occupied by the tribes descended from Abraham's true heir. Hagar returned to her mistress, and in due time Ishmael was born. Abram was eighty-six years old when his son was born. The patriarch regarded the child as the heir God had promised him, and lavished upon him all a father's love.

Thirteen years after the birth of Ishmael, when Abram was ninety-nine years old, God appeared to the patriarch by the name of EL-SHADDAI (God Almighty), and renewed his covenant with him. The Almighty now promised the patriarch that he should be the father of many nations, and, in consequence of this, changed his name from Abram (exalted father) to Abraham (father of a multitude). The Almighty declared to the patriarch that he would be his God, and the God of his descendants, and as a sign of this renewed covenant instituted the rite of circumcision, which was thenceforth to be performed upon all the males of Abraham's race. The uncircumcised was cut off from all the benefits of the

for Ishmael, God assured him that he would shower temporal blessings upon Ishmael, and would make him the father of a great nation. The higher, spiritual blessings, however, were reserved to Isaac and his posterity. Abraham immediately caused himself to be circumcised, and performed the rite upon Ishmael, who was now thirteen years old, and upon all the males of his household.

Some time after this Abraham was sitting one evening at the door of his tent, when he saw three men approaching. With true Eastern hospitality, he arose and welcomed them, and urged them to lodge with him that night. They accepted his invitation, and when they had partaken of the

meal he set before them, revealed themselves to him. One was the angel Jehovah, the others two attendant angels. They renewed to him the promise of God that Sarah should bear him a son within a year. Sarah, who was within the tent, heard them, and, being ninety years old, laughed at the prediction. The angel heard her, rebuked her unbelief, and assured Abraham that God would



THE DEAD SEA, FROM THE CONVENT OF MAR SABA.

covenant, while even the stranger who received circumcision was admitted to them. It was made the duty of the head of every family to extend this rite to his servants as well as his children. It was to be performed upon children on the eighth day after their birth, and upon slaves immediately after their purchase. The name of Sarai was changed to Sarah (princess), in token of her exalted dignity as the ancestress of a great race. God also informed the patriarch that at a certain time in the next year his wife, Sarah, should bear him a son, who should be his true heir. He was commanded to name the child Isaac, and was informed that the promises of the covenant should descend to Isaac and his seed forever. In response to the patriarch's prayer

certainly keep his promise. They then departed in the direction of Sodom, and Abraham accompanied them a part of the way. In consideration of the favor with which the Almighty regarded him as the progenitor of the chosen race, the angels informed Abraham of the purpose of God to destroy Sodom and Gomorrah and the cities of the plain as a punishment for their desperate wickedness, and told him that they were on their way to warn Lot and his family to flee from the doomed cities. When the angels departed, Abraham in vain interceded for the cities. God promised, in response to the patriarch's prayer, that if ten righteous men could be found in the cities, he would spare them: The requisite number could not be found,

however. Lot and his family obeyed the divine warning, and fled from Sodom. His wife disregarded the warning of the angels not to look behind her, and was destroyed for her disobedience. Lot and his daughters took refuge in Zoar, which was spared in answer to his prayer. Then Sodom, Gomorrah, Admah and Zeboiim were destroyed by a terrific convulsion of nature, not a soul of all their inhabitants escaping the dreadful doom. Lot, fearing to remain in Zoar, fled to the hill country, and took

in memory of the occurrence, Beersheba (the Well of the Oath). While living at Beersheba, his wife, Sarah, gave birth to the long promised heir, who was circumcised and named Isaae, in accordance with the divine command. The patriarch was one hundred years old when his heir was born.

When Isaae was weaned Abraham celebrated the occasion by a feast. During the festival Sarah saw Ishmael mocking or taunting her son, and her anger was



MEETING OF ISAAC AND REBEKAH.

refuge in a cave east of the Dead sea. In this place occurred the incestuous birth of Moab and Ammon, from whom were descended the Moabites and Ammonites, whom Moses and Joshua found established in the country east of the Jordan and the Dead sea.

Shortly after the destruction of the cities of the plain, Abraham journeyed southward and fixed his residence in the region between Egypt and Palestine. He made a treaty with the king of that country, named Abimelech, beside a well, which he named,

aroused. She demanded of her husband that Hagar and Ishmael should be sent away, in order that Isaac might have no one to dispute his position in his father's house. The patriarch was tenderly attached to Ishmael, and hesitated; but God appeared to him and commanded him to do as Sarah had said, promising that he would bless Ishmael and make him the father of a great nation. The next morning Hagar and her son were supplied by the patriarch with provisions and were sent away. Wandering in the wilderness of Beersheba, they

were on the point of dying with thirst, when they were rescued by an angel. Ishmael grew up in the wilderness and became a skilful archer. His mother took him a wife from among the Egyptians, her own people, and he became the ancestor of the Bedawin Arabs. The Koreish tribe, which inhabited Mecca, traced their descent directly from Ishmael. The principal sanctuary of this tribe was the Caabah, which they believed was built by Ishmael and Abraham. From this tribe was descended Mohammed, the great prophet of Islam.



ABRAHAM'S ENCAMPMENT.

Abraham appears to have dwelt many years at Beersheba. While residing there, occurred the great trial of his faith. He was commanded by God to take his son, Isaac, and offer him up as a burnt sacrifice to God. Though his heart was nearly broken, he unhesitatingly obeyed, and taking Isaac, went with him to "the land of Moriah," which is believed to be the hill on which the temple at Jerusalem afterwards stood. There he built an altar and prepared to offer up Isaac, when his hand was stayed by God, who informed him that he had meant only to try his faith, and was satisfied with this proof of his obedience. A

ram, caught by its horns in the bushes, was taken by the patriarch and offered as a sacrifice in the place of his son. As a reward of this obedience, God renewed his covenant with the patriarch and confirmed it with an oath.

Some time after this Abraham returned to his old home at Mamre, near Hebron, and here Sarah died at the age of one hundred and twenty-seven years. Abraham purchased the cave of Machpelah from the Hittites, of Hebron, then called Kirjath-Arba, and there buried Sarah.

The cave became the place of sepulchre of his family.

After the burial of Sarah, Abraham appears to have returned to Beersheba. He was now old and felt his end approaching. He therefore resolved to secure a wife for his son, Isaac, and in order that the descendants of Isaac might be children of a pure race, decided to secure, as his son's bride, one of his own kindred. He therefore sent his steward, Eliezer, to Mesopotamia, and bound him by a solemn oath to choose for Isaac a wife from among his own family. Eliezer reached Haran, and there encountered the family of Bethuel, the son of Abraham's brother, Nahor. His choice was divinely directed to Rebekah, the youngest and most beautiful daughter of the house, who, upon learning his mission, consented to leave her own family and become the wife of her cousin Isaac. She accompanied Eliezer back to Canaan, and was joyfully received by Isaac and his

father. Isaac was forty years old at the time of his marriage.

After a union of twenty years, Rebekah gave birth to twin sons. The firstborn was named Esau, and also Edom (the Red), because of his ruddy color, and the second received the name of Jacob (the Supplanter).

Abraham, after the marriage of Isaac, took another wife, although he was one hundred and forty years old. Her name was Keturah, and by her Abraham had six sons, one of whom was Midian, the father of the Midianites, who occupied the country between the Dead sea and the

Elamitic gulf of the Red sea, to the east of the Nabtheans. Abraham gave liberal presents to these sons, but sent them out of Palestine that they might not interfere with the inheritance of Isaac. To Isaac the patriarch bequeathed all of his immense wealth, and died, it would seem, at Beer-sheba, "in a good old age, and full of years," being one hundred and seventy-five years old. This event took place fifteen years after the birth of Esau and Jacob.

chosen family. Jacob, on the other hand, was a peaceful, politic man, ready to gain by craft and diplomacy what Esau sought to accomplish by violence. He was smooth-skinned, and loved the peaceful pursuits of the shepherd and the quiet and repose of the tent. He was his mother's favorite.

Coming in one day, tired and hungry, from the chase, Esau beheld Jacob preparing a savory mess of red lentils, and at once asked for "some of that red." Jacob de-



HAGAR SUSTAINED IN THE DESERT BY GOD.

His sons, Isaac and Ishmael, buried him in the cave of Machpelah.

After the death of Abraham, Isaac continued to dwell by the well of Lahai-roi, in the extreme south of Palestine, and there his sons grew to manhood. Esau was a wild, reckless man, a skilful hunter, and his father's favorite. He was rough and hairy in appearance, and was a source of great trouble to his parents. At the age of forty he married two Hittite wives, in opposition to the will of his father, and thus introduced heathen alliances into the

manded the birthright of Esau as the price of the mess, and the hunter, intent only upon satisfying the hunger of the moment, consented to the bargain with a levity that showed how little value he set upon his birthright. For this, St. Paul "calls him 'a profane person, who for one morsel of food sold his birthright,' and marks him as the pattern of those who sacrifice eternity for a moment's sensual enjoyment. The justice of this judgment appears from considering what the birthright was, which he sold at such a price. Esau was, by right of birth,

the head of the family, its prophet, priest and king, and no man can renounce such privileges except as a sacrifice required by God, without despising God who gave them. But more than this, he was the head of the *chosen* family; on him devolved the blessing of Abraham, that 'in his seed all the families of the earth should be blessed;' and, in despising his birthright, he put himself out of the sacred family, and so became a 'profane person.'" The cunning of Jacob did not bring him gain alone; it brought with it a retribution, as we shall see in considering his history.

At length the one hundredth year of Isaac's life approached. The great age and failing sight of the patriarch warned him



BURIAL OF ABRAHAM.

that the time had come when he must solemnly transmit to his heir the blessing of Abraham, the irrevocable gift of the patriarchal power and authority. This blessing he designed for Esau, who very evidently had not confessed to his father the sale of his birthright. As Jacob would not dare to take advantage of his trick, the father was most likely in ignorance of the transaction. Isaac informed Esau of his intention, and bade him prepare a feast for the occasion. Esau set out for the chase to obtain venison, of which his father was very fond, and during his absence Rebekah revealed to Jacob the design of her husband. With her aid the crafty Jacob succeeded in passing himself off upon his father as Esau, and obtained the patriarchal blessing, which made him the head of his family, and which, once given, could not be revoked. Esau now returned home and

discovered the fraud of which his brother had been guilty. His indignation and grief were very great. "He cried with a great and exceeding bitter cry, and said unto his father, Bless me, even me also, O my father." The spiritual blessing had passed to Jacob and could not be recalled, but Isaac blessed his first-born in a manner more in keeping with his son's character. He promised him abundant worldly prosperity, qualified by submission to his brother, whose yoke he should at length break.*

Esau, from this time, resolved to kill Jacob; but, not wishing to grieve his father, postponed his vengeance until after the death of Isaac. Rebekah, becoming aware of this, induced her husband to send Jacob to her kindred for safety. Isaac was all the more willing for this, as it would enable Jacob to obtain a wife of pure blood. With his staff in his hand, the heir of the promises set out for Mesopotamia, retracing the path by which Abraham had entered Canaan. Reaching Abraham's old encampment at Bethel, he passed the night there, taking for his pillow a stone—most probably one of those which had formed the altar of the patriarch. In the visions of the night he was visited by God, who showed him a radiant stairway reaching from the earth to the portals of heaven, along which the angels were ascending and descending upon their errands as ministering spirits upon earth, a beautiful symbol of God's provident care for his children. To crown the vision God appeared to him in his dream, renewed with him the covenant he had made with Abraham, and gave him a special promise of protection. Jacob awoke, and, in acknowledgment of the presence of Jehovah, erected an altar on the spot, which he named Bethel (the House of God), and solemnly dedicated himself and all that God should give him to the service of his Maker. This important event, the turning point in Jacob's religious life, occurred when he was in his seventy-seventh year.

* "The prophecy was fulfilled in the prosperity of the Idumeans, their martial prowess, and their constant conflicts with the Israelites, by whom they were subdued under David, over whom they triumphed at the Babylonian captivity, and to whom they at last gave a king in the person of Herod the Great."—*Dr. William Smith.*

Continuing his journey, Jacob reached the home of his uncle Laban, his mother's brother, at Padan-Aram. He was warmly welcomed, and at once fell in love with his beautiful cousin Rachel, the youngest daughter of the house. He engaged to serve his uncle as a shepherd for wages, and demanded of Laban the hand of Rachel, offering to serve him seven years for her. Laban, who was more than Jacob's equal in cunning, accepted the offer,

and bore one son, named Joseph. Leah bore a daughter, named Dinah. Besides these Jacob had four other sons by two concubines. Billah, Rachel's handmaid, bore him Dan and Naphtali; and Zilpah, Leah's handmaid, bore him Gad and Asher.

After the birth of Joseph, who was the youngest of these children, Jacob was anxious to return to his own country, but Laban persuaded him to serve him still



ESAU GOING FOR VENISON.

but took advantage of the marriage customs of the country to give his elder daughter, Leah, who was afflicted with sore eyes, and therefore hard to dispose of in marriage, to his nephew. Jacob was indignant at the fraud, but was obliged to submit; and agreed to serve Laban seven years more for his beloved Rachel. During these seven years eleven sons and a daughter were born to Jacob. The sons of Leah were Reuben, Simeon, Levi, Judah, Issachar, and Zebu-

longer for a portion of his flocks, Jacob's share to be distinguished by certain marks. Laban undertook to defeat this arrangement by unfair means, but Jacob, who was more expert at cattle-breeding, baffled him and secured the greater part of the produce of the flocks. At length he became very rich in "cattle, and maidservants and manservants, and camels, and asses."

After a sojourn of twenty years with Laban, Jacob was commanded by God to

return to Canaan. Afraid that Laban would seek to detain him, he set out by stealth, and having crossed the Euphrates, passed through the desert by the great fountain of Palmyra, journeyed across the eastern part of the plain of Damascus and the plateau of Bashan, and entered the mountain region of Gilead, east of the Jordan, which forms the frontier between Palestine and the Assyrian desert. Here he was overtaken by Laban, with a considerable force. Rachel had carried off her father's household gods, and now, by an ingenious device, succeeded in hiding them. Laban, who had been warned of God not to harm Jacob, failing to find



ARABIAN CAMELS.



DAUGHTERS OF LABAN AT THE WELL.

his idols, made a treaty with Jacob and set up a heap of stones as a witness of it. Jacob's eyes were now opened to see a company of angels, "the host of God," sent to protect him, forming a camp near his own.

He now approached Mount Seir, of which his brother Esau had become the powerful chieftain. He was seriously alarmed, for he feared that Esau might now seek to avenge the loss of his birthright by killing him and seizing his family and flocks. He sent him a conciliatory message, and Esau came to meet him at the head of four hundred warriors. Jacob, now thoroughly alarmed, prepared to meet the danger which seemed to threaten him. He divided his people and his flocks into two parties, in order that the second might escape if the first was attacked. Then he turned to God in prayer, after which he sent forward presents to his brother, and then rested for the night. Rising before day



RACHEL'S TOMB, NEAR BETHLEHEM.

the next morning, he sent his wives and children over the Jabbok, and remained behind to prepare himself by solitary

meditation for the trial of the day. While he tarried there "a man" appeared and wrestled with him until the day broke. And when "the man" saw "that he prevailed not against him, he touched the hollow of his thigh; and the hollow of Jacob's thigh was out of joint as he wrestled with him. And he said, Let me go, for the day breaketh. And he said, I will not let thee go, except thou bless me. And he said unto him, What is thy name? And he said, Jacob. And he said, Thy name shall be called no

more Jacob, but Israel; for as a prince hast thou power with God and with men, and hast prevailed. And Jacob asked

him and said, Tell me, I pray thee, thy name. And he said, Wherefore is it that thou dost ask after my name? And he blessed him there. And Jacob called the name of the place Peniel; for I have seen God face to face, and my life is preserved."

Jacob never recovered from the lameness produced by the touch of the angel, and in memory of this the Israelites, in after years, would not eat of the sinew in the hollow of the thigh.

Descending into the valley of the Jabbok, Jacob encountered Esau, who greeted him most affectionately. The rough soldier had long ago forgiven his brother for defrauding him of the spiritual blessing which he did not value, and was contented with the worldly prosperity that had fallen to his lot. After a pleasant interview, Esau returned to Mount Seir, and Jacob continued his journey to the Jordan, which he crossed at Succoth. Entering Canaan he went to Shechem, now a considerable town of the Amorites. From them he bought a piece



JACOB'S WELL, AT SHECHEM.

of ground, the first possession of the chosen family in the promised land. There he built an altar to the "God of Israel," and



VIEW OF SHECHEM AND MOUNT GERIZIM FROM THE NORTHWEST.

renewed his promise to serve him. He also dug a well, which is still shown there.

Jacob now began to experience the severest troubles of his life. Shechem, son of Hamor, prince of the Shechemites, carried off and outraged his daughter, Dinah, and though he afterwards demanded her in marriage, the sons of Jacob determined to avenge the wrong done to their sister. They consented to the marriage, and when the Shechemites were thrown off their guard, treacherously fell upon them, slew all the males, pillaged the city, and carried off the women and children, and the flocks and herds. Jacob was very indignant at this treacherous conduct, and, fearing that the Canaanites would seek to avenge the slaughter of their brethren, removed with his family and possessions to Bethel, from which he passed southward towards Mamre, where his father, Isaac, was still living. In the vicinity of Bethlehem, his beloved wife, Rachel, died in giving birth to Benjamin, and was buried there. Her tomb is still preserved. Jacob then went on to Mamre and rejoined his father. Isaac lived a number of years after this, and died at the age of one hundred and eighty. His sons, Esau and Jacob, buried him in the cave of Machpelah. His death occurred about thirteen years after the sale of Joseph by his brethren.

Joseph, the eldest son of Rachel, was his father's favorite. Upon him Jacob lavished such constant and conspicuous marks of his affection, that the jealousy of the

remainder of his sons was aroused. Joseph increased this feeling to a positive hatred by playing the spy upon his brothers and reporting their misdeeds to their father. When but a mere lad he dreamed several very remarkable dreams, which seemed to him to foreshadow future greatness for him at the expense of his brethren, and very unwisely told them of these dreams. This

filled the measure of his offences in their eyes, and they determined to remove him out of their way. One day Jacob sent



JOSEPH INTERPRETS PHARAOH'S DREAM.

Joseph to visit his brethren, who were feeding their flocks near Shechem. As they saw him approaching alone, they resolved

to kill him. Reuben, the eldest son, persuaded the others not to kill their brother outright, but to throw him into a dry well, where he would die with hunger, meaning to rescue him afterwards. His suggestion was adopted, but during his temporary absence the other brothers sold Joseph to a caravan of Midianitish merchants, who were on their way to Egypt. They then returned to their father and induced him to believe that Joseph had been slain by a wild beast.

Joseph was taken by his purchasers to Egypt, and was sold by them as a slave to

Among the prisoners were the chief of the cupbearers and the chief of the cooks of the king of Egypt, who had been put in confinement in consequence of their complicity in some conspiracy at the court of the Pharaoh. These prisoners dreamed each a dream, prophetic of their fate. They related their dreams to Joseph, who interpreted them. His interpretation was verified in the pardon of the chief of the cupbearers and his restoration to office, and the execution of the chief of the cooks. The fortunate man promised to intercede



JOSEPH MADE RULER OVER EGYPT.

Potiphar, or Petephra, an officer of the army of the king of Egypt, who is designated in the Scriptures only by his title of Pharaoh. Joseph quickly gained favor with his master, who made him the superintendent of his house. The wife of Potiphar conceived an unlawful passion for Joseph, but was repulsed by him. Thereupon she brought an infamous charge against him, and he was thrown into prison by his master. His exemplary conduct soon gained him the favor of the authorities of the prison, by whom he was intrusted with important duties.

for Joseph, but forgot him until two years later, when, the king having had two dreams which troubled him greatly, and which the wise men of Egypt were unable to explain, the chief cupbearer remembered Joseph and told the king of the Hebrew's interpretation of his own dream and its fulfilment. Pharaoh at once sent for Joseph and related his dreams to him. Joseph informed him that his dreams were prophetic, and were sent by God to warn him that Egypt was about to be visited by seven years of abundant harvests, which

were to be succeeded by seven years of terrible famine. He urged the king to prepare for the famine by forming stores of grain at certain points in Egypt during the years of plenty.

Egypt at this time was divided into two kingdoms. The upper kingdom, known as the Thebaid, was ruled by native Egyptian princes. Lower Egypt had been held for many centuries by conquerors of Canaanitish blood, known as the Hyksos, or shepherds. These had adopted the Egyptian manners and language. The king who sent for Joseph was one of this dynasty, and was

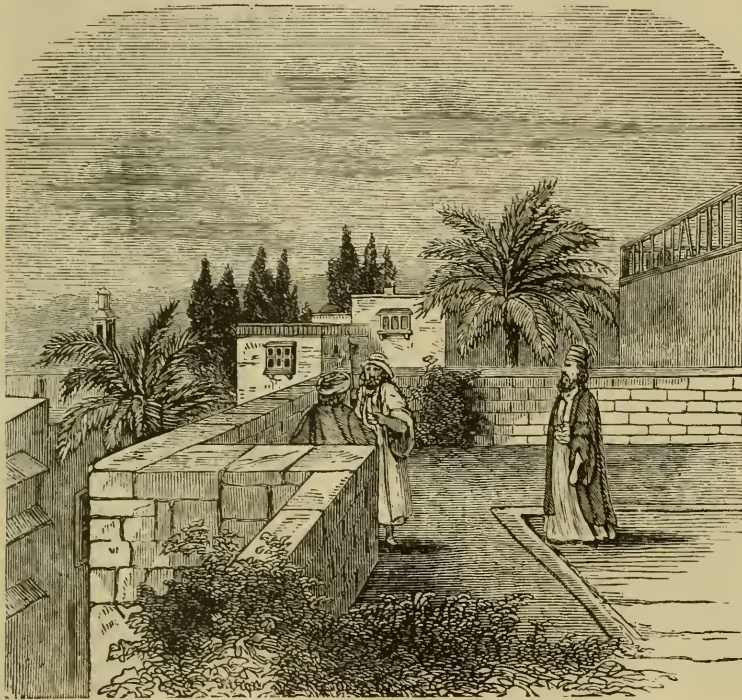
ple were ordered to obey him implicitly. He was also given a wife in the person of Asenath, daughter of Petephra, the high priest of Heliopolis, by whom he had two sons, Manassch and Ephraim.

Joseph collected in public granaries, which he constructed for the purpose, immense stores of grain from the superabundant harvest. He accomplished this by doubling the ordinary royal impost of one-tenth of the grain. When the years of famine set in he had stores enough to supply the people of Egypt, and to sell to the surrounding countries which were af-

ected by the famine. He sold to the Egyptians on very hard terms, requiring them to surrender, in return for the food which kept them alive, the fee simple of their lands, and to pay a quit rent of one-fifth of the produce for the right of tenancy. This arrangement did not extend to the priests, who possessed the right of drawing supplies from the public stores.

The famine having extended to that part of Palestine in which Jacob was living, he sent his sons to Egypt to buy grain. They failed to recognize Joseph

in the powerful Egyptian viceroy, but he knew them at a glance. He subjected them to a series of trials, partly to punish them for their treatment of him, and partly to test their affection for their father and their brother Benjamin; and then revealed himself to them, forgave them the wrongs they had done him, and brought them and their father down to Egypt, where he could provide for them. The king readily granted them lands in the province of Goshen, which lay between the Delta and the desert, northeast of Memphis. In so doing the king was simply carrying out a leading



EASTERN HOUSE, WITH A PARAPET.

known as Apophis, or Apepi. Being himself of foreign origin, he had not the native Egyptian dislike of strangers. He was impressed with Joseph's interpretation of his dreams and with the wisdom shown by the captive, and at once declared that Joseph was the best man in the kingdom to make the provision against the famine he had suggested. He made him his viceroy over Egypt, and gave him his signet-ring, the indisputable mark of royal power. He was magnificently clothed, was given the Egyptian name of Zaph-n-to, or "Nourisher of the Country," and all peo-

policy of the shepherd dynasty, which was to cultivate in their dominions the growth of a non-Egyptian element, which might sustain them against a revolt of the native population. In the descent of the chosen family into Egypt, a portion of God's promise to Abraham was fulfilled.

Seventeen years later, Jacob died in Egypt, at the age of one hundred and forty-seven years. On his death-bed he blessed his sons, and declared that the children of Judah should inherit the divine promises to Abraham and should constitute the head of the chosen family—Reuben, Simeon, and Levi, the three elder sons of Jacob, having cut themselves off from the succession by their crimes. Jacob's body was embalmed in the Egyptian manner, and was carried in great state by Joseph and his brethren, with a powerful escort of Egyptian troops, back to Palestine, and was buried in the tomb of Abraham at Hebron. Joseph lived for fifty years longer, enjoying his high honors, and remaining the protector of his family. He died at the age of one hundred and ten years, and on his death-bed exacted a solemn oath of his brethren that his embalmed body should be carried up into the land of Canaan when the Israelites should leave Egypt.

CHAPTER II.

THE EXODUS AND THE WANDERINGS.

Growth of the Israelitish Nation in Egypt—Their Condition in Goshen—Expulsion of the Hyksos—Rise of the Nineteenth Dynasty—Severe Oppression of the Hebrews—Birth of Moses—He is Educated as an Egyptian Prince—His Flight from Egypt—His Life at Mount Sinai—The Burning Bush—Moses Called to the Leadership of his People—He Seeks the Court of Pharaoh—His Demand Refused—The Plagues of Egypt—Institution of the Passover—The Exodus—The Passage of the Red Sea—The March to Sinai—The Giving of the Law—The Nation Organized—The March Resumed—Return of the Spies—Rebellion of the Israelites—Their Defeat by the Canaanites—The Wanderings in the Wilderness—Death of Aaron—The Advance to the Promised Land—Conquest of the Country East of the Jordan—Defeat of the Moabites—Death of Moses.

THE real history of the Israelites as a nation does not begin until their departure from Egypt. Abraham and his descendants were merely nomads, wandering over the Promised Land, but owning no part of it.

The Israelites remained in the fertile land of Goshen for a period of 215 years,

and there prospered in such a marked degree that the family of seventy persons which entered Egypt with Jacob grew to a nation numbering nearly three millions of people. They formed a nation quite apart from the Egyptians, with their own language, manners, religious worship, and patriarchal government. It is true that they did not preserve the worship of God in its original purity, and had but a very vague idea of the God of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, whom they worshipped, but they never adopted the idolatrous rites or religion of the Egyptians. They were ruled by their own proper chiefs, who were, in their turn, directly responsible to the Egyptian government for the collection of the taxes imposed upon the Hebrew colony.

During this period, the kings of the Thebaid had succeeded in driving out the shepherd dynasty and in extending their rule over Lower Egypt, which now became one kingdom. This native dynasty was one of the most glorious that ever reigned in Egypt, and its kings appear to have favored the Hebrew colony.

This policy was changed when the nineteenth Egyptian dynasty came into power. These kings regarded the Hebrews as dangerous because of their numbers and location, and inflicted upon them a series of cruel persecutions, the object of which was to reduce their power and destroy them as a nation. The king who inaugurated this policy was called Ramses, and was a great warrior and a cruel despot. He overburdened the Israelites with work, and compelled them to engage, under cruel taskmasters, in the labor of building cities. His efforts were unsuccessful. In spite of their heavy burdens, the Hebrews continued to increase in numbers. Enraged at this, the king gave orders that all the male children of the Hebrews should be put to death at their birth. The females were spared, as they would furnish wives for the Egyptians. In this way the king hoped to entirely destroy the race.

Amram, a man of the tribe of Levi, had married Jochebed, a woman of the same tribe. They had two children, a son named Aaron, and a daughter named Miriam. Soon after the cruel edict of the Pharaoh was issued, Jochebed gave birth to a second son, whom she hid for three months from the officers of the king. Unable to conceal him any longer, she laid him in a basket,

or ark, covered with pitch, and placed him among the flags on the brink of the Nile. Here he was discovered by the daughter of



THE FINDING OF MOSES BY PHARAOH'S DAUGHTER.

the king, who had gone down to the river to bathe. The princess was touched with

pity, and had the child brought to her. She gave it to Jochebed, who offered herself as nurse, and commanded her to rear the boy as "the son of Pharaoh's daughter." She named the child Moses, which means "drawn out of the water." When the boy was grown his mother took him to the princess, who caused him to be educated as one of the royal family, in consequence of which he became learned "in all the wisdom of the Egyptians," and was taught military science.

There is a tradition that upon arriving at manhood he held a high command in the Egyptian army in an expedition against Ethiopia.

In spite of his own fortunate lot, and of the favor he enjoyed at court, Moses was too truly a Hebrew not to feel keenly the wrongs of his countrymen. He brooded over their sufferings, and often went among them to cheer them. One day he saw an Egyptian cruelly beating a Hebrew; his indignation was aroused, and he killed the Egyptian. This coming to the ears of the king, Moses was obliged to fly for his life. He took refuge in the Peninsula of Sinai. One day he found himself in the territory of a Midianitish tribe, whose chief and priest was named Jethro. He was enabled to render a service to the daughters of Jethro by defending them from the violence of some shepherds who sought to drive them away from a well where they were watering their flocks. Jethro, hearing of this, invited Moses to his home, and urged him to remain with him. Moses consented to do so, and Jethro gave him his daughter Zipporah as a wife. Moses remained forty years with Jethro, and during this time a new king mounted the throne of Egypt. He pursued towards the Hebrews the iniquitous system of his predecessor. In their sore affliction the Hebrews besought the assistance of the God of their fathers, and he heard their prayers.

One day, when Moses had led his flock to a remote part of Mount Horeb, he was startled by seeing a bush burning with a bright blaze, but without being consumed. He approached it to ascertain the cause of this strange sight, but was checked by a voice from the midst of the bush, which told him that he was standing in the presence of God himself. The Almighty made himself known to Moses as the God of his fathers, and informed him of his purpose to bring the bondage of the Hebrews to an

end, and to lead them into the land which he had promised Abraham should be the home of his descendants. He revealed to Moses his purpose to make him the leader and the divine mouthpiece in this great movement. The timid nature of Moses shrank from the position, but God reassured him, and associated with him his brother Aaron, who was to be his spokesman to the Egyptian king and to the Hebrews. The entire plan of the Almighty was made known to Moses, who was commanded to

Egypt. On the way he met his brother Aaron, who had been directed by God to seek him. The two brothers returned to Egypt, and summoning the elders of the Israelites laid before them the message of God. The people agreed to submit themselves to the divine will, and promised to execute faithfully all the commands of the God of their fathers.

Having secured the adhesion of their people, Moses and Aaron next sought the presence of the Pharaoh, "to demand leave



MOSES AND THE BURNING BUSH.

reveal it to the elders or chiefs of the Israelites. God directed him to return to Egypt, assemble the Hebrew elders, make known his mission to them, and then, having secured their obedience, to go before Pharaoh and demand permission for the Israelites to leave Egypt. God told him that Pharaoh would not grant this demand, but that he would show his power over Egypt and avenge the wrongs of his people by a series of punishments such as Egypt had never known before.

Moses at once set out on his return to

in the name of Jehovah, the God of Israel, for his people to hold a feast to him in the wilderness. This was the extent of the first demand, as it had been the extent of what God had enjoined on Moses: 'Ye shall serve God in this mountain.' It was to be a solemn festival, shared in by all the people, who, as a nomad race, would of course travel with their flocks and herds. When they reached the sacred mount they would be at the disposal of their God and Father, to lead them back or forward as he pleased; and he claimed of Pharaoh that

they should be placed at his disposal, without telling him of their further destination, which had been long since revealed to Abraham, and lately made known to Moses."

The demand of Moses and Aaron was contemptuously refused by the Egyptian king, and the burdens of the Hebrews were redoubled. In their sore distress the people reproached Moses and Aaron for adding to their hardships. Moses, greatly disheart-

but as a proof to the latter that Jehovah was able to fulfil his promises to them, and that their God was more powerful and glorious than all the false deities of Egypt. The Hebrews had been so long exposed to contact with the religious system of the Egyptians that such a display of the power of God was necessary to convince them that there was "no virtue in the idols of the Nile."

Moses and Aaron renewed their demand



MOSES AND AARON BEFORE PHARAOH.

ened, complained to God that his effort had only brought sorrow upon his countrymen, but was encouraged by the prediction that though Pharaoh would steadily refuse for a time, and steadily increase the hard tasks of the Hebrews, yet God would break the stubborn pride of the king, and compel him to consent to the departure of the Israelites. This contest between Pharaoh and the Almighty was necessary, not only to punish the king for his treatment of the Hebrews,

upon the king repeatedly, and were as often refused. God punished the refusals of the king by sending upon the land of Egypt a series of terrible plagues, or afflictions. What made these plagues miraculous was their extraordinary violence, and the promptness with which they made their appearance at the call of Moses. They were ten in number, and are thus related in the Bible: 1st. The waters of the Nile, the sacred river of the Egyptians, and the chief

source of their water supply, became red like blood, and so putrid that they became offensive. Unable to use them, the Egyptians were compelled to sink wells along the shores of the river for water to drink. 2d. Frogs, which are always numerous and troublesome in Egypt, multiplied to such an extent as to become a terrible pest to the Egyptians. 3d. Swarms of lice covered the land, causing severe suffering to both man and beast. These insects were a terrible annoyance to the scrupulously cleanly

“This plague,” says Dr. Smith, “seems to have been the black leprosy, a fearful kind of elephantiasis, which was long remembered as the ‘blotch of Egypt.’ It also rendered the Egyptians religiously unclean.” 7th. A terrible hail storm, accompanied with thunder and lightning, swept over the country, destroying the crops and killing men and beasts. 8th. Swarms of locusts spread over the land, and devoured all that the hail had left. 9th. An extraordinary darkness enveloped the land of Egypt, and



PASSAGE OF THE RED SEA BY THE ISRAELITES.

Egyptians, and were also a religious defilement. 4th. Clouds of flies, or beetles, most probably of the great Egyptian beetle (*scarabæus sacer*), covered the country, swarmed in the houses, and ate up the harvest and shrubbery. The beetle was an object of worship to the Egyptians, who were thus scourged through their own gods. 5th. An epizootic disease made its appearance among the cattle, and carried off vast numbers of them. 6th. A grievous affliction of boils and blains broke out on the bodies of the Egyptians and their beasts.

for three days the gloom was so dense that the people were unable to see each other, or to pursue any of their avocations. None of these visitations extended to the land of Goshen, in which the Hebrews dwelt. Exempted from all these evils, they beheld with awe the fulfilment of the divine promises in the sufferings of the Egyptians. More than once Pharaoh, terrified and humbled, sent for Moses and Aaron, and besought them to obtain from God a cessation of the afflictions of his people; but no sooner did the plague cease, than the stub-

born pride of the king returned, and he refused to let the Hebrews depart from Egypt.

It now remained for God to bring the extraordinary contest to an end by striking the last terrible blow which should humble Egypt in the dust. Moses was commanded to institute the Feast of the Passover, which, as it marked the beginning of the national history of the Hebrews, was made the commencement of their year. Minute directions were given as to the manner of celebrating the feast, from which no deviation

command to march was given. All these preparations were carried out in the clear light of the land of Goshen, where there was no darkness.

At sunset on the third day of the darkness in Egypt the Hebrews began to prepare the paschal supper, and having finished it, awaited in awful suspense the commands of God. At midnight God slew the first-born in every house in Egypt, from the palace of the king to the humblest hut, and the first-born of all the animals of the country. "There was not a house where

there was not one dead." Pharaoh was completely conquered by this terrible blow. He sent in haste for Moses and Aaron and urged them to take their people out of Egypt without delay. By the command of Moses, the Hebrews asked the Egyptians for jewels of silver and gold and raiment, and their demands were instantly complied with. The Egyptians were eager to get the Hebrews out of the country, as they were fearful that any delay would result in further suffering to them.

At the command of Moses the Hebrews set



DESTRUCTION OF PHARAOH'S ARMY.

was permitted, and the feast was ordered to be made an annual celebration, a perpetual memorial of the deliverance of the nation from Egyptian bondage. God made known to Moses and Aaron his purpose to destroy the first-born of the Egyptians, and commanded the Hebrews to mark their houses by sprinkling the doorposts with the blood of the animals slain for the paschal supper. All houses so marked would be passed over by the destroying angels. The Hebrews were ordered to make ready for a hasty departure, and to set out the moment the

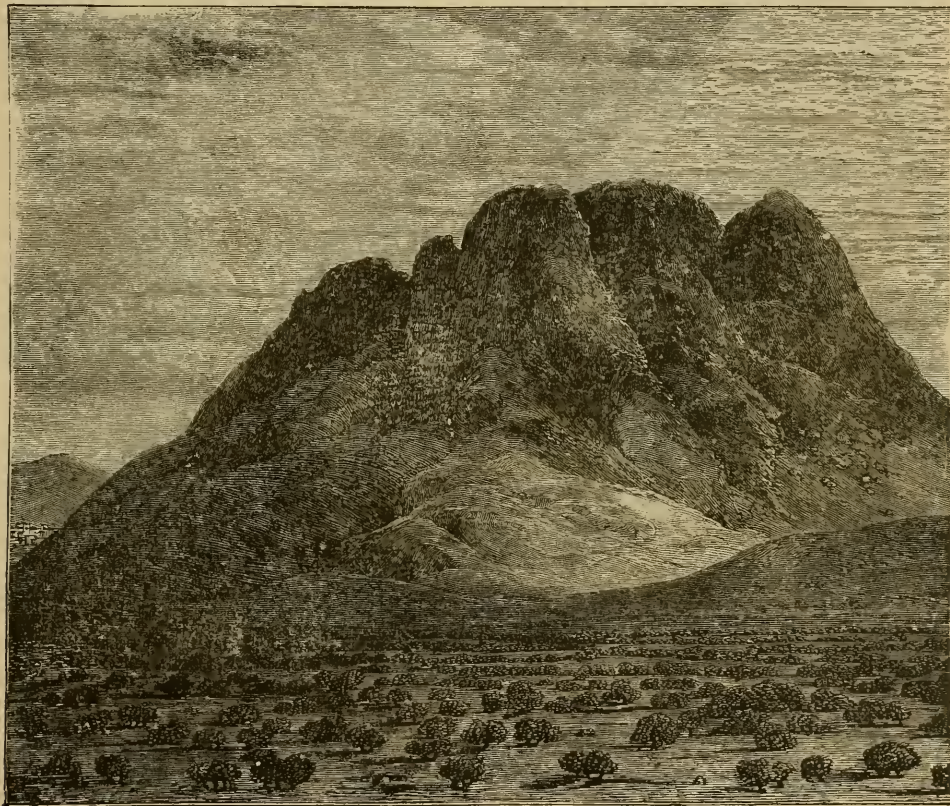
out upon their march, taking with them the embalmed body of Joseph. They numbered 600,000 men on foot, besides the women and children. These, with the mixed multitude which followed them, and which consisted doubtless of people of Asiatic descent, nomadic in habit, who were glad to take this opportunity of escaping from Egypt, swelled the number of the Hebrew host to nearly three millions of people. They set out under the leadership of Moses, but their route was chosen for them by God, who guided them by a bright

cloud, which moved before the host by day, and a "pillar," or cloud, of fire, which performed the same office by night.

The march of such a large body was necessarily slow, and the Israelites were three days in reaching the head of the Red Sea, or Gulf of Suez, which then extended much farther northward than at present.

In the meantime Pharaoh had recovered his courage, and, regretting the permission he had given the Israelites to depart, determined to pursue them and compel them to

the Arabian shore by causing the waters to recede in a miraculous manner. The Israelites crossed over by the path thus opened. The Egyptian army, detecting the movement, at once gave pursuit. The sea instantly flowed back at the command of God and destroyed the Egyptian host. The Bible does not tell us that the king was drowned with his troops, nor do its assertions justify such an inference. That part of the army which made the pursuit, and not the king, was drowned, and Egyptian



MOUNT SINAI FROM THE PLAIN ER-RAHAH.

return to Egypt. He set out at the head of a large army, and by a forced march came up with them as they were encamped near the Red Sea. In a military sense the Israelitish position was a false one. In front of them was the sea: on their right a difficult mountain range; and on their left and in their rear the king of Egypt disposed his army so as to cut off their escape. Without divine aid they were lost. In this emergency God came to their assistance and opened a passage for them across the sea to

history makes it certain that Merenphtah, who was the Pharaoh of the Exodus, lived many years after this event, and died from disease.*

The received chronology gives B. C. 1491 as the date of the Exodus.

* The language of the Bible is as follows: "And the Egyptians pursued, and went in after them to the midst of the sea, even all Pharaoh's horses, his chariots, and his horsemen. . . . And the waters returned, and covered the chariots, and the horsemen, and all the hosts of Pharaoh that came into the sea after them; there remained not so much as one of

Having reached the opposite shore of the Red Sea, the Israelites moved down the Peninsula of Sinai towards the mountain of that name. Had it been the design of the Almighty to conduct them at once to the Promised Land, he would have led them by the direct route which lay along

have exposed them to the risk of destruction by the Egyptian army, which was accustomed to use this route in its expeditions into Asia; and even had they escaped this danger, they would have been obliged to encounter the warlike tribes of the seashore of Canaan. To protect them from these



THE MOLTEN CALF.

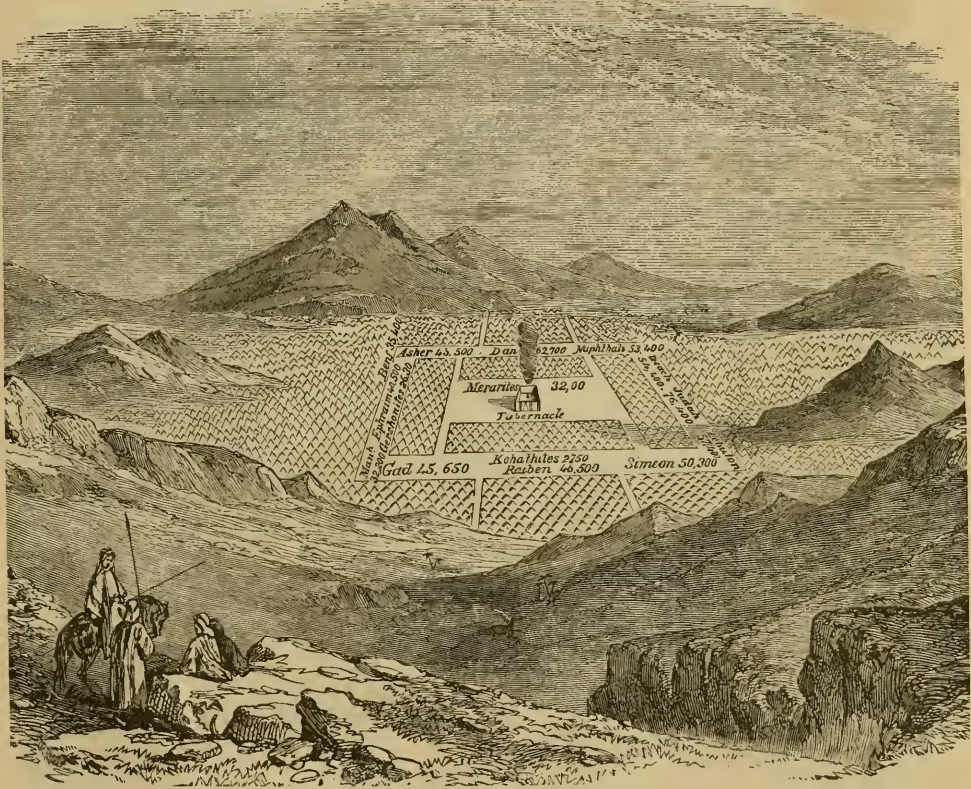
the shore of the Mediterranean, past the modern El-Arish and Gaza. This would

them." Many writers claim that this last clause disposes, in the language of the learned Dr. Wm. Smith, "of every theory which makes the Pharaoh of the Exodus survive this catastrophe;" but it seems clear that the portions which I have italicised make the true meaning of the Bible narrative plain beyond all chance of misconception. A few words will make this evident. Pharaoh had pursued the Israelites with a powerful army, the strength of which may be understood by the fact that it had 600 chariots attached to it. The chariot in ancient armies corresponded to the artillery of modern times, and required a certain proportion of infantry and cavalry to each chariot. An army with 600 chariots would therefore be very strong in infantry

and cavalry. That such was the case in this instance is also shown by the fact that the Egyptian king was pursuing a body of 3,000,000 people. The Egyptians found the Israelites encamped on the shores of the Red Sea. On the Hebrew right the range of Jebel Atakah cut off their escape, and in their front was the sea, too deep to be forded. The Egyptian king at once seized every available line of retreat, and supposed he had the Israelites in a trap from which escape was impossible. By the power of God the Egyptian camp was plunged in total darkness. (Gen. xiv. 19, 20.) When the Egyptian advanced forces discovered the withdrawal of the Israelites during the night, the king must have supposed that the Israelites had discovered some line

and a higher reason for this choice. The Israelites were not fit to enter upon their inheritance. They were to be carried through a course of instruction and discipline, which should make them truly a nation, and were to be taught a system of

which was to be found their national and individual salvation. They were to be purged of the taints which had clung to them from their long contact with the people and customs of Egypt, and to be made a "peculiar people," separate and distinct



THE CAMP OF ISRAEL IN THE WILDERNESS.

religious and civil legislation which was to constitute their national strength, and in

of retreat around the mountain range of Jebel Atakah. He knew the sea was too deep to be forded, and that his army closed every other line of escape. No conflict on any part of his line was reported to him, and the gloom which enshrouded his position rendered it impossible to obtain a clear idea of the nature of the Hebrew movement. He seems to have done what any skilful commander would have done under the circumstances. He threw forward his chariots and cavalry, "all Pharaoh's horses, his chariots, and his horsemen," to ascertain the exact nature of this movement. These comprised a strong force, and we may be sure the king held his infantry ready to hasten to their support as soon as he should be reliably informed of the movements of the Hebrews. He would not have withdrawn his troops from the positions which commanded the Hebrew line of retreat to the desert north of the Red Sea, for that would have been a blunder with which we have no right to charge him. The darkness rendered the task assigned the

from any of the nations by whom they were to be surrounded, and to be endowed with

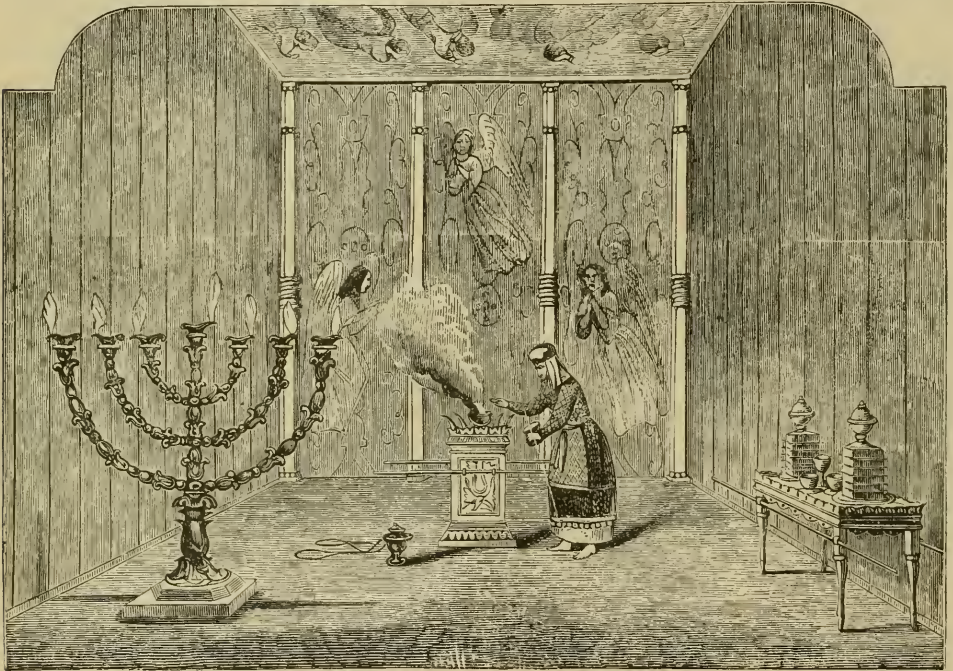
Egyptian cavalry and chariots a difficult one, and they did not discover their dangerous position in the midst of the sea until the break of day. Then the first glance filled them with terror, and the entire column became demoralized. In the vain attempt to escape the chariots broke down, and the troops became so confused as to be incapable of flight. The next moment they were engulfed by the returning waves, and not one of them escaped. I think a fair interpretation of the twenty-eighth verse of the fourteenth chapter of Genesis will show that it was only the pursuing column, or the light troops of the Egyptian army, evidently a numerous body, which perished. To suppose that the king risked his whole army in this uncertain pursuit is to believe him guilty of a gross violation of the simplest rules of military prudence and common sense. Having witnessed the destruction of his advanced column, Pharaoh evidently abandoned the undertaking and returned to Egypt.

those traits which should enable them to preserve forever their peculiarity upon which their whole future depended. No better place could be chosen for this work than the sublime solitudes of the Sinaitic desert, to which they were now conducted.

From the first God provided for the temporal wants of his people. He sweetened the bitter waters of the region through which they were marching, made water to come out of a rock for their nourishment, and sent them food, first in the form of quails, and finally in the shape of manna. This manna fell with the dew every morn-

From Rephidim the Israelites moved to Mount Sinai, and encamped in the plain and in the ravines in the vicinity of the sacred mountain.

A short season of preparation was given the Israelites, and then God descended upon Mount Sinai with a sublime display of his glory, and in the hearing of the whole people spoke the leading precepts of his law, which we call the Ten Commandments. The people, on their part, made a solemn covenant with God, in which they pledged themselves and their posterity to worship and serve him. Moses was then called up



THE HOLY PLACE OF THE TABERNACLE.

ing in the camp. Only a day's supply was permitted to be gathered, except on the sixth day, when enough was gathered to last for two days, in order that the people might scrupulously observe the Sabbath day. This supply from heaven continued every day for forty years, or during the entire sojourn of the Israelites in the desert.

Upon reaching Rephidim, which is believed to be identical with the Wady Feiran of to-day, the Israelites were attacked by the Amalekites, who sought to check their advance into the Peninsula. The Hebrew army was led by Joshua, the future conqueror of Palestine, and was victorious.

into the mountain and remained there for forty days, during which time God revealed to him the minute directions which he afterwards embodied in the code which we term "the law of Moses," and which constituted the religious and civil systems of the Hebrew nation. The Ten Commandments were engraven on tablets of stone by the hand of God.

Unable to account for the long absence of Moses on the mountain, the Israelites fell off from their covenant with God, and compelled Aaron to make a golden image of a calf, in imitation of the Egyptian god Apis. They gave themselves up to the



PRIEST



HIGH PRIEST.



LEVITE.

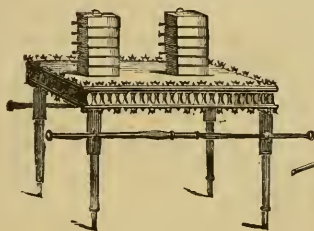
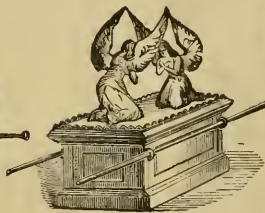


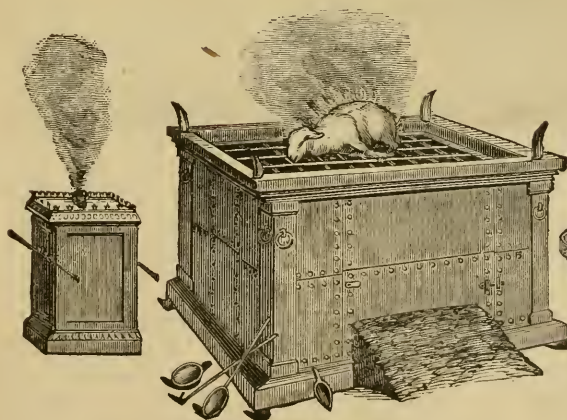
TABLE OF SHEW-BREAD.



ARK.



GOLDEN CANDLESTICK.



ALTAR OF INCENSE.

ALTAR OF BURNT OFFERING.



LAVER.

worship of this idol, and Moses, upon coming down from the mountain, found them so engaged. His anger was overwhelming. Rallying the tribe of Levi, he fell upon the idolaters with the sword, slew a great number of them, and destroyed the idol. The people acknowledged the justice of their punishment, and promised to do better. For their zeal in the cause of the true faith upon this occasion, the Levites were made the sacerdotal class of the nation.

The Israelites remained at Sinai eleven months and twenty days, and during this



AARON IN THE DRESS OF THE HIGH PRIEST.

time the second celebration of the Passover was held. The long halt constituted one of the busiest portions of the life of the nation. The people had arrived at Sinai an unorganized mob, without institutions, without laws, almost ignorant of their God, and with no prescribed mode of religious worship. During the sojourn at Sinai the mob was fashioned into a compact and firmly-established nation, with a code of laws which has excited the admiration of all succeeding generations of mankind, and which remained substantially intact to the close of the career of the Hebrew nation.

The Tabernacle, or sacred tent, was constructed according to the pattern prescribed by God, and all the details of the religious ceremonial were carefully arranged. The priesthood was organized, and the succession to the sacred offices definitely arranged. The fundamental principle of the whole system, civil as well as religious, was the supreme authority of God over the Israelitish nation. "He was, in the literal sense of the word, their sovereign; and all other authority, both in political and civil affairs, was subordinate to the continual acknowledgment of his own. The other powers were instituted by God to administer affairs in accordance with his laws, but were not ordinarily chosen among the priests, descendants of Aaron, nor from the tribe of Levi, consecrated to the various functions of public worship. Each tribe had its civil authorities, although certain causes were reserved for the supreme central tribunal; but the unity of the nation was, above all, founded on unity in faith and worship, on the mighty recollections recalled each year by the solemn feasts: the Passover, or Feast of Unleavened Bread (commemorating the Exodus from Egypt); Pentecost (the promulgation of the law), and the Feast of Tabernacles, or tents (the sojourn in the desert). The one tabernacle, where the solemn sacrifices were offered, and where was deposited the ark, the symbol of the covenant made between God and his people, was equally the political and religious centre of the nation. The Mosaic law presents the spectacle, unique in the history of the world, of a legislation which was complete from the origin of a nation, and subsisted for long ages. In spite of frequent infractions, it was always restored, even although in its very sublimity it was in direct opposition to the coarse inclinations of the people whom it governed. He alone could impose it on the Israelites, who could say, 'I am the Lord thy God,' and confirm the words by forty years of miracles."

All things being arranged, Moses, at the command of God, took the census of the males of the nation, from twenty years and upwards, capable of bearing arms. The census was taken on the first day of the second month from the epoch of the Exodus (Jyar—May, 1490 B. C.), and placed the number of fighting men at 603,550. The host was divided into four camps, one of which was placed on each of the four sides

of the tabernacle, which stood in the centre of the whole camp.

Thus organized, a nation and an army, the Israelites broke up their camp at Sinai on the twentieth day of their second year, or about May 20th, 1490 B. C., and resumed their march, led by the pillar of cloud, which had guided them since the memorable night of the Exodus, and which was to conduct them to the borders of the promised land. Thus, divinely guided, the Israelites went into the Wilderness of Paran.

After several halts the Israelites reached Kadesh Barnea, near the borders of Palestine. From this place Moses sent twelve men, one from each tribe, into Palestine to examine the country and report the character of the people, their means of defence, the strength of their cities, and their numbers. The "spies," as they are termed, were absent forty days, during which time they explored the country from the Dead Sea to the slopes of Mount Hermon. Returning to Kadesh Barnea, they reported to Moses and the Israelitish leaders that the land was exceedingly fertile, but that its conquest by the Israelites would be impossible since its inhabitants were men of gigantic size, who dwelt in strongly fortified cities. This unfavorable report greatly excited the people. In vain did Joshua and Caleb, who were of the "spies," declare to them that their colleagues had exaggerated the difficulties of the conquest, and endeavor to encourage them with a more favorable report. The people were panic-stricken, and the next morning broke into open mutiny and declared their intention to choose a chief who should conduct them back to Egypt. In vain did Moses and Aaron fall on their faces before the people; in

vain did Joshua and Caleb repeat their assurances of victory and conquest, and urge them not to rebel against God. The people took up stones and were about to kill the faithful four, when the glory of God suddenly blazed forth from the tabernacle, and brought the rebels to their senses. God spake to Moses, declaring that he would disinherit the rebellious nation and choose as his people the descendants of Moses. The great lawgiver earnestly interceded for his countrymen, and at length obtained their pardon. But, in pardoning them, Jehovah declared that he would punish the



THE ISRAELITES DEFEATED BY THE CANAANITES.

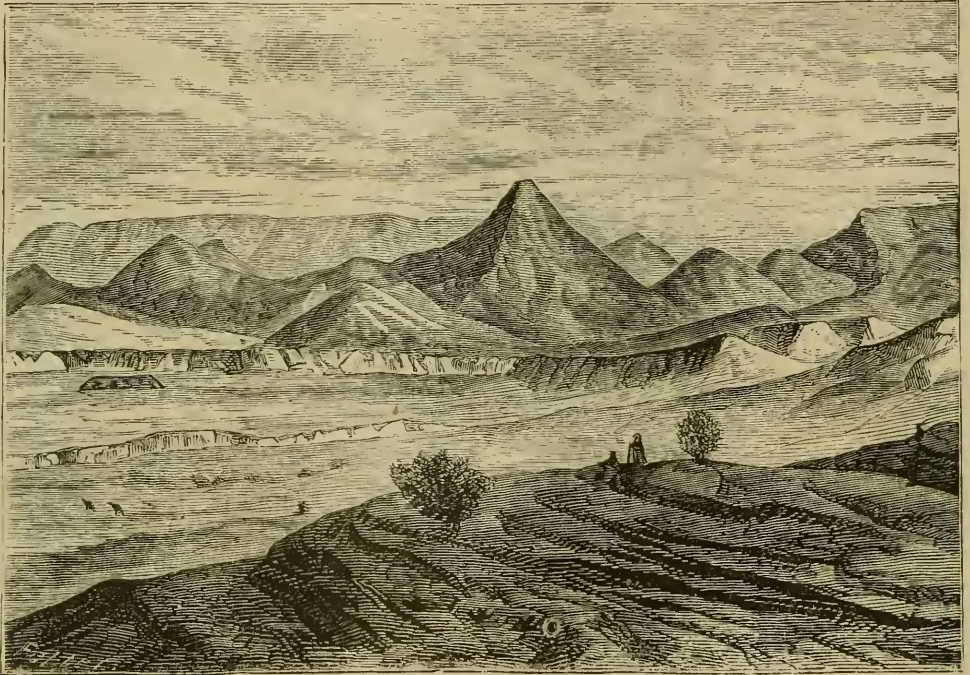
rebels. He informed Moses that, with the exception of Joshua and Caleb, not one of the men of the nation, from twenty years old and upward, should enter the promised land. They should all die in the wilderness, in which the tribes were condemned to wander for thirty-eight years longer. Their children should enter upon the promised inheritance.

Upon hearing this doom the Israelites were seized with remorse, and were eager to be led into Canaan; but the divine decree was irrevocable. The people persisted in

their determination, and, in spite of the warnings of Moses, who refused to accompany them, endeavored to force their way through a mountain pass which was held by the combined armies of the Canaanites and Amalekites. The Israelites suffered a bloody repulse, and were driven back into the desert.

For thirty-eight years the Israelites led a nomadic life, roaming through the desert which lies north of the peninsula of Sinai, to which the Arabs have given the name of *Et Tih*, or *Tih Beni Israel* (the Wander-

after the Exodus, Aaron, the brother of Moses and the high priest of the nation, died at Masera, in Mount Hor, at the age of one hundred and twenty-three years, and was buried there. Mount Hor was on the border of the territory of the Edomites, the descendants of Esau. Moses requested of the Edomites a free passage through their country for the hosts of Israel, offering to respect the property of the inhabitants, and to pay for even the water which his people used. This request was refused, and the Hebrews, who were forbidden by



WILDERNESS OF THE WANDERINGS.

ings of the Children of Israel). Their range extended from Kadesh Barnea on the north to the head of the Elanitic gulf (Gulf of Akabah) on the south. They do not appear to have been troubled by any of the neighboring tribes. During this period the males of the nation, from twenty years upward, died. The generation which succeeded them consisted of men trained to fatigue and war, hardy and courageous, and accustomed to freedom; a generation superior to that which had been reared in bondage in Egypt, and had suffered from the taint of that slavery.

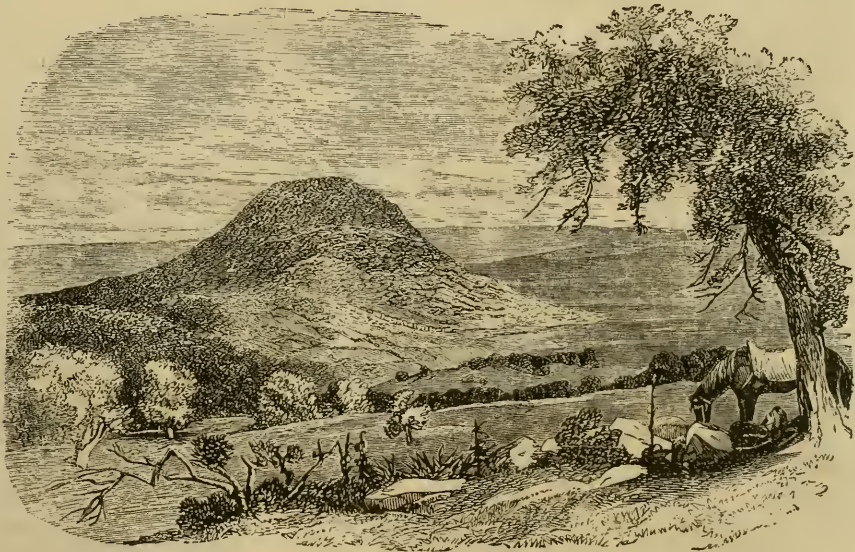
At the beginning of the fortieth year

God to attack their kindred, turned southward, marched to the head of the Elanitic gulf, and turning the range of mountains, moved northward again, east of the territory of Edom. The Canaanites of Arad undertook to bar the way of the Israelites, but were defeated. The Edomites allowed the Israelites to march past their territory without molesting them. Moses was forbidden by God to attack the Moabites and Ammonites, who were descended from Lot.

The Hebrews had now reached the Arnon, a small stream which falls into the Dead Sea on its eastern side. This stream formed the southern boundary of a new kingdom,

which Sihon, an Amorite adventurer, had conquered from the Ammonites and Moabites. The Jabbok formed the northern boundary of this kingdom, and Sihon had established his capital at Heshbon. Moses sent a peaceful embassy to Sihon, asking for a free passage through his territory, promising to keep his people to the highway on their march, and to pay for everything they used. Sihon insolently refused this request, and marched with his army to attack the Israelites. He was completely routed, his capital was taken by storm, and his kingdom became the prize of the Hebrews. Og, the gigantic king of Bashan, whose territory extended from the Jabbok

curse upon the Israelites and devote them to destruction. Instead of cursing the chosen people, Balaam was compelled by the Almighty to bless them, and to predict to Balak their future triumphs. This scheme having failed, the allies undertook to seduce the Hebrews from their faith by inducing them to take part in their immoral and voluptuous worship of their god Baal-Peor. This design succeeded so well that Moses was obliged to resort to severe measures to check the evil. All the Hebrews guilty of the sin were put to death. A plague broke out in the camp and carried off 24,000 men. A war of extermination was begun against the Midianites, their



MOUNT NEBO.

to Mount Hermon, and who was also a successful Amorite adventurer, now took the field to avenge Sihon. He was defeated and killed, and his kingdom was conquered by the Israelites, who by these victories became masters of all the country east of the Jordan, from Mount Hermon to the Dead Sea.

The Israelitish host now encamped on the fertile plains opposite Jericho. Balak, the king of Moab, alarmed at the presence of so powerful a nation on his borders, made an alliance against them with the Midianites. Not deeming himself strong enough to attack the new comers, Balak endeavored to induce Balaam, a famous diviner from the country of the Ammonites, to lay a

armies were defeated, their country ravaged and an immense booty carried off.

A new census of the nation was now taken, and showed that there were 601,730 fighting men in the host.

The country that had been conquered east of the Jordan was very fertile and was admirably adapted to grazing purposes. Pleased with the region, the tribes of Reuben and Gad and the half-tribe of Manasseh asked permission of Moses to take this country as their inheritance, as they had numerous cattle. Moses sharply reproached them for sowing the seeds of division in the nation; but consented to the arrangement upon receiving the promise of these tribes that they would only leave their families

and their cattle in their new homes, while their fighting men would cross the Jordan with the other tribes and assist in the conquest of the promised land. The tribe of Reuben was given the southern part of the country east of the Jordan, from the Arnon to Mount Gilead; the tribe of Gad was assigned the country north of this, including Mount Gilead, to the southern end of the Sea of Chinneroth (the Sea of Galilee); and the half-tribe of Manasseh received the country north of Gad as far as

Kadesh to give water to his people. Moses assembled the entire nation, recited the law in their hearing, bestowed upon them a prophetic blessing, foretelling their future glories, named Joshua as his successor, and exhorted the people to remain faithful to Jehovah as the indispensable condition of individual and national happiness. He then took an affecting farewell of the nation, and at the command of God went up into Mount Nebo, from which God showed him the whole of the land



MOSES VIEWING THE PROMISED LAND FROM MOUNT NEBO.

Mount Hermon. The two tribes and a half faithfully kept their pledges to their brethren and rendered good service in the conquest of the country west of the Jordan.

The work of Moses was now completed. He had brought the children of Israel to the border of the promised land at a point where they could easily enter it, and he was warned by God that his death was at hand. Both he and Aaron had been refused permission to enter the land, because of the failure of their faith when God had commanded them to speak to the rock in

which was to be the home of the Hebrews. "So Moses, the servant of the Lord, died there in the land of Moab, according to the word of the Lord. And he buried him in a valley in the land of Moab, over against Beth-peor; but no man knoweth of his sepulchre unto this day. And Moses was an hundred and twenty years old when he died; his eye was not dim, nor his natural force abated."

The Israelites spent thirty days in mourning the death of their great leader.

CHAPTER III.

THE CONQUEST OF CANAAN—THE JUDGES.

Joshua Succeeds Moses—Passage of the Jordan—Occupants of the Promised Land at the Time of the Conquest—Description of Palestine—Capture of Jericho, Ai, and Shechem—Defeat of the Five Canaanitish Kings—Division of Canaan Among the Tribes—Death of Joshua—Evils Which Followed His Death—A Period of Anarchy—The Judges—Character of the Office of Judge—Exploits of Ehud—Barak Defeats Sisera—Gideon's Victory—Eli, High Priest—Wickedness of his Sons—Birth of Samson—His Exploits and Death—Birth of Samuel—His Call to the Prophetic Office—Defeat of Israel by the Philistines—Capture of the Ark—Death of Eli—Samuel Judge of Israel—His Authority—The Israelites Demand a King—Samuel's Warning—Saul Chosen King of Israel.

At the expiration of the thirty days of mourning for Moses—precisely forty years from the time of their departure from Egypt—the Israelites broke up their camp on the plains of Moab, and moved towards the Jordan, under the leadership of Joshua. The column was headed by the priests bearing the Ark of the Covenant. The Jordan was swollen with the spring freshets, and was too high to be forded. As the priests stepped into the stream, bearing the sacred ark, the waters were miraculously divided, as the Red Sea had been, and a broad path was opened along which the host passed to the western shore of the river and entered Palestine (April, B. C. 1451). That night the Israelites encamped at Gilgal, on the plains of Jericho. Here the supply of manna ceased, and from this time the people lived upon the products of the country they had come to conquer.

It will be well to glance at the character of the people against whom the arms of Israel were now to be turned.

During the patriarchal period, the Promised Land was occupied by a number of tribes of Canaanitish origin, descendants of Canaan, the fourth son of Ham. Canaanite properly signifies *low*, and was

sometimes used to designate a particular tribe occupying a certain portion of Palestine; but in its more general sense it was applied to all the inhabitants of the Holy Land, and included seven different nations. These were:

"I. The *Canaanites*, the 'lowlanders, who inhabited the plain on the lower Jordan, and that on the sea-shore. These plains were the richest and most important part of the country.

"II. The *Perizzites* seem, next to the Canaanites, to have been the most important tribe. . . . In Judges i. 4, 5, they are placed in the southern part of the Holy Land, and in Joshua xvi. 15-18, they occupy, with the Rephaim, or giants, the 'forest country' in the western flanks of Mount Carmel.

"III. The *Hittites*, or children of Heth, were a small tribe at Hebron, of whom Abraham purchased the Cave of Machpelah. They are represented as a peaceful people.



EMBLEMS ON THE STANDARDS OF THE TRIBES.

The word "IV. The *Amorites*, 'mountaineers,' a warlike tribe, occupied first the barrier

heights west of the Dead Sea, at the same place which afterwards bore the name of En-gedi, stretching westward towards Hebron. At the time of the conquest they had crossed the Jordan and occupied the rich tract bounded by the Jabbok on the north and the Arnon on the south, the

by the Philistines, a strong and warlike nation, concerning whose origin authorities differ, some claiming for them a Hamitic and others a Semitic descent. It seems most probable that they were descendants of Ham. They are supposed, by those who favor the latter view, to have come into



SHEKEL OF THE SANCTUARY.

Jordan on the west, and the wilderness on the east.

"V. The *Hivites* are first named at the time of Jacob's return to the Holy Land, where they occupied Shechem. At the time of the conquest by Joshua, they were living on the northern confines of Western Palestine.

"VI. The *Jebusites*, a mountain tribe, occupying Jebus (Jerusalem), where they continued to dwell with the children of Judah and Benjamin to a late date.

"VII. The *Girgasites*, whose position is quite uncertain." *

During the sojourn of the Israelites in Egypt, several important changes took place in the character and location of the inhabitants of Palestine. The maritime nation of Phœnicia, lying immediately upon the north of Palestine, had grown up silently and rapidly, and had become the most enlightened and the wealthiest community of the ancient world. Phœnicia had not attained its greatest point of prosperity and power at the time of the conquest of Palestine by the Israelites, and did not reach it until about 1050 B. C. At the time of Israel's entry into Palestine, the Phœnicians, whose country lay along the northern sea-coast, and was included within the limits of the heritage of the tribes, had secured a firm hold upon their territory, and were in a condition to defend it stubbornly against the new-comers.

The sea-board of the Holy Land proper, on the coast south of Phœnicia, was held

by the Philistines, a strong and warlike nation, concerning whose origin authorities differ, some claiming for them a Hamitic and others a Semitic descent. It seems most probable that they were descendants of Ham. They are supposed, by those who favor the latter view, to have come into Palestine from Egypt; the advocates of their Semitic origin, on the other hand, regard them as having crossed over from the island of Crete. They are believed to have come into Canaan before the days of Abraham, and during his sojourn in that country they were a pastoral tribe in the neighborhood of Gerar. During the patriarchal period and the residence of Israel in Egypt, the Philistines abandoned their nomadic habits, and grew into a permanent and powerful nation. They settled in the fertile plain which bordered the sea-coast, and which was in consequence called the Plain of Philistia. The immense fertility of this plain was the secret of their wealth and prosperity. In times of scarcity and famine



PROMONTORY AND CONVENT OF MOUNT CARMEL.

all the neighboring nations looked to them for bread. The low country which they inhabited was favorable to their growth as a military power, as it enabled them to move their troops with ease and rapidity, and admitted of the manœuvres of war chariots, "the artillery of the ancients," in

* Dr. Wm. Smith.

which they were always very strong. They are believed also to have possessed a navy, as they are several times mentioned by profane historians in accounts of naval expedi-



SCENE ON THE JORDAN.

tions and battles. Gaza and Askelon were seaports. Numerous well-fortified cities were built by the Philistines in the plain, the undulating character of which offered many admirable sites for such strongholds.

Thus the two most prominent nations occupying Palestine at the time of the conquest by the Israelites were, the Phœnicians, on the north, and the Philistines, on the south; for it will be remembered that the Land of *Promise* extended from the Arabian Desert to the Mediterranean, and from the Desert of Sinai to "the entering in of Hamath," the name given in Scripture to the low range of hills which forms the water-sheds between the Orontes and the Litány. The northern part, or Phœnicia, was never occupied by the Israelites. The Philistine plain was a source of constant contention, and was rarely ever a secure and peaceful possession

of Israel. The Land of *Possession* extended only from Dan, on the north, to Beersheba, on the south.

As regards the land itself, it was in many respects a remarkable country. It is singularly disproportioned in size to its importance in history. Palestine is a small territory, about as large as the principality of Wales, or the State of New Jersey. Its extreme length from north to south is about 180 miles, and its average breadth about forty-five miles, giving it an area of about 8,000 square miles. It lies between latitude $30^{\circ} 40'$ and $33^{\circ} 42'$ north, and longitude $33^{\circ} 45'$ and $35^{\circ} 48'$ east. It is bounded on the north by Syria, on the east by the Jordan and the country now known as the Haurán, on the south by the Desert of Et Tih, and on the west by the Mediterranean. It lies in Western Asia, to the north of Egypt, and to the east and north of Arabia.

It is essentially a mountainous country. It possesses no independent mountain ranges, and is surpassed by other lands in the height and grandeur of its mountains; "but every part of the highland is in greater or less undulation." The mountain region occupies the centre of the country, and is bordered on each side, both on the east and on the west, by lowlands, extending from the foot of the uplands to the boundaries of Palestine. On the west this



SEA OF GALILEE, FROM THE NORTHWEST COAST.

lowland spreads out into the two great plains of Philistia and Sharon, which extend from the foot of the mountains to the sea. On the east the mountains are bor-

dered by the remarkable depression of the Jordan Valley, which is continued by the still more remarkable depression of the Dead Sea and by the Ghor. "The slopes or cliffs which form, as it were, the retaining walls of this depression are furrowed and cleft by the torrent beds which discharge the waters of the hills, and form the means of communication between the upper and lower levels. These three features—the mountains, the plains, and the torrent beds—make up the principal physical characteristics of the Holy Land."

battle-field of Palestine. North of this plain the mountains are met again, first in the low hills of Galilee, and rising higher until Hermon and the Lebanons are reached. The mountains once more push their way out to the sea, and terminate in the white headland of Ras Nakhûra. North of this is the ancient Phœnicia.

The mountainous region has a generally uniform height along its entire course, averaging from 1,500 to 1,800 feet above the level of the Mediterranean Sea. "It can hardly be denominated a plateau," says



THE FALL OF JERICO.

A little more than half way up the coast, the plain is suddenly broken by a bold spur of the mountain range, which leaves the central mass and runs abruptly to the northwest to the sea, terminating there in the magnificent promontory of Mount Carmel, which is the name of the entire spur or ridge. North of Carmel the plain begins again, and this time pushes back the mountains and extends entirely across Palestine to the Jordan Valley. This is the plain of Esdraelon, or Jezreel, the great

Dr. Smith, "yet so evenly is the general level preserved, and so thickly do the hills stand behind and between one another, that when seen from the coast or the western part of the maritime plain, it has quite the appearance of a wall." This appearance of monotony, however, is broken at intervals by greater elevations, which form the prominent features of the landscape. The water-shed of the country lies between these highest points, and on either hand the numerous torrent beds descend to the

Jordan Valley on the east, and the Mediterranean Sea on the west. The eastern valleys are very steep and rugged, especially in the southern and central portions of the country; but those on the west slope more gradually. The level of the maritime plain being higher than that of the Jordan Valley, gives them a more gradual descent, and this is made easier by the greater distance intervening between the mountains and the sea than between the mountains and the Jordan. As upon the eastern side, so upon the western, the valleys or wadies form the only means of communication between the plains and the mountains. All the roads from the borders to the interior lie along these valleys. These mountain passes, for such they are, constitute a peculiar feature of Palestine, and in ancient times were of the greatest importance to it. Being difficult, they presented very great obstacles to an armed force encumbered with a camp train or baggage. Though the western passes were easier than those of the eastern border, they were still difficult, and rendered it no slight task for an enemy to enter the Israelitish territory. The Israelites, secure in their mountain fastness, were often unmolested, while the cities of the plain below them were taken and retaken by the contending forces of Egypt and Asia. While the plain of Esdraelon became the great battle-field of Palestine, the mountains were comparatively exempt from war.

The Jordan formed the eastern boundary of the Promised Land. It is one of the most remarkable rivers in the world. Rising on the slopes of Mount Hermon it flows through an extraordinary depression, known as the Jordan Valley, and passing through Lake Huleh and the Lake of Tiberias, or Sea of Galilee, finally empties into the Dead Sea. Its source is 1,700 feet *above* the level of the Mediterranean; its mouth is 1,317 feet *below* the level of that sea, making the total descent of the river 3,017 feet. The length of the river is 200 miles; the distance in a straight line is sixty miles. The Jordan was never navigable, and in ancient times was passed only by its fords. It was not until the Roman conquest that bridges were thrown over it. No cities stood on its banks. Jericho and the other towns were located at some distance back from the river.

The first task devolving upon the Israelites after their entrance into Palestine was

the capture of the strong city of Jericho, which stood immediately in front of their place of crossing the river, and commanded the Jordan Valley. As the Israelites possessed no means of laying siege to the city, God came to their assistance; the walls of the town were thrown down in a miraculous manner, and the Israelites entering over the ruined fortifications, put the people to the sword and destroyed the city. Only one family, that of "Rahab the harlot," was exempted from the general massacre. She had received and befriended the spies which Joshua had sent into the city before its fall, and they had promised protection to her and her household. She subsequently became the wife of one of the spies, and was the ancestress of David. Advancing up the Jordan Valley, Joshua turned to the left and captured the stronghold of Ai, near Bethel, by stratagem, and moving rapidly to Shechem carried that place without a blow, and planted himself in the heart of the country.

The Canaanitish tribes now recovered from the surprise and dismay into which the rapid and successful movements of the Israelites had thrown them, and formed a general coalition against the invaders. Joshua defeated the combined forces of the Canaanitish kings in the great battle of Bethhoron, in which the day is said to have been miraculously prolonged in order to give the Israelites an opportunity to complete their victory. The kings of the five Canaanitish nations were made prisoners, and were hanged. This victory was followed by the capture by the Israelites, in quick succession, of the cities of Makkedah, Libnah, Lachish, Eglon, Hebron, and Debir, the inhabitants of which were exterminated. These successes made the Israelites masters of Southern Palestine.

A second coalition was now formed against the Hebrews, and consisted of all the tribes of Northern Palestine. Its leader was Jabin, king of Hazor. Joshua routed this force on the banks of Lake Merom (now Lake Huleh), and Jabin was made prisoner and put to death. A number of the cities of Northern Palestine now fell into the hands of the Israelites, and their inhabitants were killed. The Anakim of Southern Palestine were then attacked and exterminated. Six or seven years were spent in these conquests, and at length the Israelites were masters of the Promised Land from the foot of Hermon to the borders of

DEFEAT OF THE FIVE CANAANITISH KINGS BY JOSHUA.



Edom. The Canaanites still held a number of their strongest cities in the midst of the Hebrew conquests; the Philistines held the sea-coast, and Phœnicia had not as yet been molested.

Joshua was now very old, and decided to suspend his conquests, and devote his remaining years to establishing his people firmly in the lands they had won. He was now commanded to divide the Promised Land by lot among the nine tribes and a half; the two and a half having received their allotment east of the Jordan from Moses, and the Levites having no special territory assigned them. The withdrawal of the Levites from the number of the tribes to devote themselves especially to the service of God, was made up by the division of the tribe of Joseph into the two tribes of Ephraim and Manasseh. The territory divided among the tribes included many places still occupied by the Canaanites and Philistines, and Joshua left to each tribe the task of reducing such places within its limits.

The tribe of Judah received the South Country. Its southern border touched the Edomite territory and the desert, and its northern border was a line drawn from the mouth of the Jordan westward to the sea. This line passed on the south side of Jerusalem, which was thus in the territory of Benjamin. The eastern border was the Jordan, the western the Mediterranean. A large part of the Philistine plain was included in this allotment. The children of Joseph were given the central portion of the country, from the Jordan to the Mediterranean. Of this region Ephraim had the southern part. His southern border "was drawn from the Jordan along the north side of the plain of Jericho to Bethel, whence it took a bend southward to Beth-horon, and thence up again to the sea near Joppa. The northern border passed west from the Jordan opposite the mouth of the Jabbok, past Michmethah to the mouth of the river Kanah." It included the sacred valley of Shechem and the maritime plain of Sharon. The half-tribe of Manasseh held the region north of Ephraim as far as the range of Mount Carmel and the plain of Esdraelon, from the Jordan to the sea. Benjamin was given the hilly region north of Judah, and south of Ephraim, from the Jordan as far west as Jerusalem. Dan was given the region between Ephraim in the north, Judah on the south, Benjamin on

the east, and the Mediterranean on the west. This region was almost entirely occupied by the Philistines. For this reason, and because their territory was too small for them, a part of the people of Dan marched northward, and took the city of Leshem or Laish, at the sources of the Jordan. They named the city Dan, and acquired considerable territory around it. It became the great northern landmark of the Promised Land, as Beersheba was the southern, the phrase "from Dan even to Beersheba" being commonly used to describe the whole extent of the land from north to south. The tribe of Simeon was given an inheritance out of Judah's portion, and was settled in the southwestern part of the maritime plain. Their frontier bordered the desert from Beersheba to Gaza; and their sea-coast extended as far north as Askalon. Issachar received the great and fertile valley of Jezreel, sometimes called the plain of Esdraelon. Zebulun was given the mountain range which borders the plain of Esdraelen on the north, and which in later times formed the upper part of Lower Galilee. He had a small strip of sea-coast north of Mount Carmel, and his eastern border included the Sea of Chinneroth (Sea of Galilee). Asher was given the plain along the Mediterranean from Mount Carmel, northward, including a great part of Phœnicia. The Israelites never attempted to gain the Phœnician part of their inheritance, and Asher's northern frontier was really the Phœnician border south of Tyre. His territory extended eastward about half-way across Palestine. Naphtali was given the country north of Zebulun to Mount Hermon and between the Jordan and the dominions of Asher.

The two tribes and a half belonging east of the Jordan were dismissed with their share of the spoils, and with blessings, and returned to their homes beyond the river.

Feeling that his end was close at hand, Joshua assembled representatives of the whole nation at Shechem, and after rehearsing the great goodness of God to them, urged them to remain faithful to the worship of Jehovah and the law of Moses, and to continue the war against the Canaanites until they had finally driven them from the entire land. The crimes of the Canaanitish race had caused the Almighty to devote it to extermination, and the Israelites were specially charged with this mission. Joshua reminded them of this, and predicted great

misfortunes for his people if they abandoned their faith, or neglected to execute God's purposes with respect to the Canaanites, or mixed with them. The people solemnly promised to obey him, and renewed their covenant with God. Joshua then set up in the place of the assembly a monumental stone as a witness of this vow of the nation.

Soon after this, Joshua died at the age of one hundred and twenty-seven years. He had been the ruler of Israel for twenty-five years, and was greatly mourned by the nation.

Unfortunately for his people, Joshua failed to name a successor, and the nation was left without a head. As long as the elders who had been his contemporaries lived, the people retained their reverence for the law and were faithful to the worship of Jehovah. When these died, divisions and dissensions began to creep in among the tribes, alienating them from each other. No determined effort was made to conquer the cities which remained in the hands of the Canaanites. The northern tribes began to manifest an indifference to the national ties, and made the best terms they could with the Canaanites in their midst. The efforts of the Israelites to conquer the country of the Philistines were repulsed, and as a rule the coast cities remained in the possession of that warlike people. The intercourse which sprang up between the Israelites and the Canaanites was quick to produce evil consequences. The great religious centre of the nation was Shiloh, where the Tabernacle and the Ark of the Covenant had been set up. Now the Altar of God began to be more and more neglected, and the idolatrous worship of the Canaanites was introduced among the people. Quarrels broke out among the tribes, in one of which the tribe of Benjamin was nearly exterminated by the other tribes. The state of affairs is strikingly described in the following words from the Book of Judges (xxi. 25): "There was no king in Israel; every man did that which was right in his own eyes." There was no central political authority, and although God was, by the very fundamental principle of the Hebrew system, the King of his people, yet the spread of idolatry now became so great that the moral restraints which had bound the Hebrews to their sovereign were almost unheeded. The consequence was division and weakness. The Canaanites and Philistines were quick to perceive this, and en-

deavored to avenge their past grievances by bringing the Israelites under their yoke. God delivered the Israelites into the power of their enemies, who oppressed them cruelly, and so unconsciously executed the Divine justice upon the sinful nation. When the sufferings of the Israelites became intolerable, they awoke to a sense of their crimes, and in penitential sorrow cried to God for aid, and he heard them, and raised up deliverers for them in the persons of heroes who defeated their oppressors and re-established their independence. As soon as the danger was over, however, the Israelites sank back into idolatry, and were roused from it only by fresh subjugation.

The deliverers thus raised up by God were called Judges. Having rescued the people from their enemies, they became their governors or rulers, discharging their functions in accordance with the expression of the Divine will, which was ascertained in a prescribed manner. They led the armies in battle, and directed the public affairs in peace. The judge neither held the position nor exercised the power of a king; his office was but a little elevated above the mass of the people. The position was not hereditary, the judge being supernaturally designated by revelation to himself or to others. The exercise of his powers depended upon the consent of the people; and his authority did not always extend over the whole nation. Once appointed, he retained his office for life; but his successor was not always chosen immediately upon his death. Intervals, sometimes very long, occurred between the judges, in which the nation was either without a ruler, or subject to some foreign conqueror. There were fifteen judges in all, whose names are given in the Bible. The period of the judges extended through several centuries and its chronology is uncertain. The dates commonly assigned for the events of this period cannot be trusted.

During the lifetime of the generation which followed the conquest, a king of Western Mesopotamia, called in the Bible Chushan-rishathaim, pushed his dominions from the Euphrates to the borders of Canaan, reduced the Israelites to a state of dependence, and made them tributary to him for eight years, during which time he grievously oppressed them. At length God raised up Othniel, the nephew of Caleb, the contemporary of Moses and Joshua; he defeated the invaders and restored the in-

dependence of his countrymen, who remained unmolested for forty years.

At the end of this time Eglon, King of Moab, who had made an alliance with the Ammonites and the Amalekites, crossed the Jordan, defeated the Israelites, and established himself near the site of Jericho. He kept the Israelites in bondage for eighteen years. At the end of this time, Ehud, a Benjamite, succeeded in assassinating Eglon as he was presenting to the king the tribute required of his tribe. He made his escape, rallied the Israelites, and drove the Moabites beyond the Jordan, inflicting upon them a loss of 10,000 men. This success won for parts of Palestine a rest of twenty-four years; but this repose did not extend to the whole country.

Shamgar is mentioned in the Bible as the third of the judges. At the head of a body of laborers armed only with agricultural implements, he defeated a force of Philistines, himself slaying 600 of them with an ox-goad.

After the death of Ehud, the Israelites fell into sin again, and God delivered them into the power of the Canaanite Jabin, King of Hazor, a descendant of the monarch whom Joshua had defeated, and like him the head of a great confederacy in Northern Palestine. He had 900 chariots of iron in his army, which was commanded by a great soldier named Sisera. He overran Northern Palestine and reduced it to slavery. This bondage continued for twenty years.

Deborah, a prophetess, at this time administered justice to the Israelites under a palm grove between Ramah and Bethel, in Mount Ephraim. Smarting under the wrongs of her people, she summoned Barak, the son of Abinoam, of Kedesh, in Naphtali, to head an effort for the freedom of the nation, promising him that God would give him the victory. Barak responded promptly, stipulating that Deborah should accompany him. She consented, but warned him that he would reap no honor from the battle, as God would sell Sisera into the hands of a woman. Barak collected the forces of Naphtali, Zebulun, and Issachar, with a few men from Ephraim, Manasseh, and Benjamin, in all about 10,000 men, and took position on Mount Tabor. Sisera at once marched to meet him with the army of Jabin. Barak attacked him on the banks of the Kishon, and, aided by a fierce storm which overflowed the stream and

destroyed a part of the Canaanitish army, routed him with terrible loss. Sisera fled away on foot, and took shelter in the tent of Heber the Kenite, in Northern Palestine. Jael, the wife of Heber, killed him in his sleep, and so fulfilled Deborah's prophecy. Barak took the city of Harosheth, the home of Sisera, and afterwards Hazor, the capital of Jabin, and killed the king. Receiving aid from the other tribes he continued the war until he had freed the whole country. These triumphs won a period of forty years of peace for the tribes that had taken part in the war.

The next punishment which the Israelites experienced was of a more severe nature. Their idolatry became so great that God delivered them into the power of the Midi-



JAEI KILLING SISERA.

anites, who, with the Amalekites and the Bedawin tribes of the East, made repeated forays into Palestine, and ravaged the country as far as Gaza, carrying off everything they could transport, and destroying what they could not take with them. The Israelites were obliged to hide with their cattle and crops in caves in the earth, and to dwell in fortified cities. This state of affairs continued for seven years, and at length the people, humble and repentant, cried to God for deliverance. He heard them, and summoned Gideon, the son of Joash, of the tribe of Manasseh, to lead the movement, and encouraged him with a promise of success. Gideon overthrew the

altar of Baal and assembled a force of 32,000 Israelites. The Midianites and their allies, under their most famous chieftains, at once took the field to crush the insurrection. Gideon took position on the heights of Mount Gilboa, while the Arab tribes held the valley of Jezreel below. Confident of success, Gideon gave leave to all his men who wished to depart to do so, and 22,000 at once slunk away, leaving only 10,000 to meet the enemy. It was not God's purpose to employ even this force, however, for he wished to show the Israelites that their salvation was from him. He ordered Gideon to select 300 warriors by a given test, and to hold the rest of his force as a reserve. The 300 chosen men were divided by Gideon into three bands, and with these he surprised the Midianite camp by night. His men were armed with trumpets and with torches enclosed in pitchers of earthenware. At a given signal each man blew his trumpet, broke his pitcher, and disclosed his torch, and shouted, "The Sword of the Lord and of Gideon!" The enemy aroused from sleep, were seized with a panic, turned their swords upon each other, and abandoning their camp fled towards the Jordan. They were pursued by the remainder of Gideon's army, and were exterminated. Scarcely a man escaped over the Jordan. This great victory completely broke the Midianite power, and freed Israel. The grateful Israelites offered to make Gideon their king, but he refused to accept the crown, and ruled them many years as a judge. His rule was not altogether beneficial to the Israelites, as idolatry was almost openly encouraged by him. After his death one of his sons, named Abimelech, made himself King of Shechem and the neighboring country. His reign lasted but three years, and he was killed by a woman while besieging a town that had refused to recognize his authority.

The next judge was Tola, who ruled for twenty-three years. He was succeeded by Jair, the Gileadite, whose rule extended over twenty-two years. Their administrations were uneventful. We know, however, that idolatry became so prevalent in Israel during this period that God again gave the people into the hands of their enemies. The Ammonites subdued the tribes east of the Jordan, and held them in subjection for eighteen years. During this period they frequently crossed the Jordan and ravaged the land of Judah, Benjamin

and Ephraim. The people east of the Jordan chose as their leader a man named Jephthah, the chief of an outlaw band occupying Mount Gilead. He defeated the Ammonites in a great battle, and freed the country. He made a vow at the outset of his campaign that, if God would give him the victory, he would sacrifice to Jehovah the first living being which he should meet at the door of his house on his return home. Returning home the first one that met him was his daughter. Jephthah felt himself bound by his vow, and his daughter offered no resistance. She asked only for a respite of two months, which was granted to her, and at the end of this time Jephthah fulfilled his vow and sacrificed his child. This sacrifice was directly opposed to the law of Moses, and shows how far the Israelites east of the Jordan had fallen away from the precepts of that law. Jephthah judged Israel for six years after his victory, and was buried in Mount Gilead.

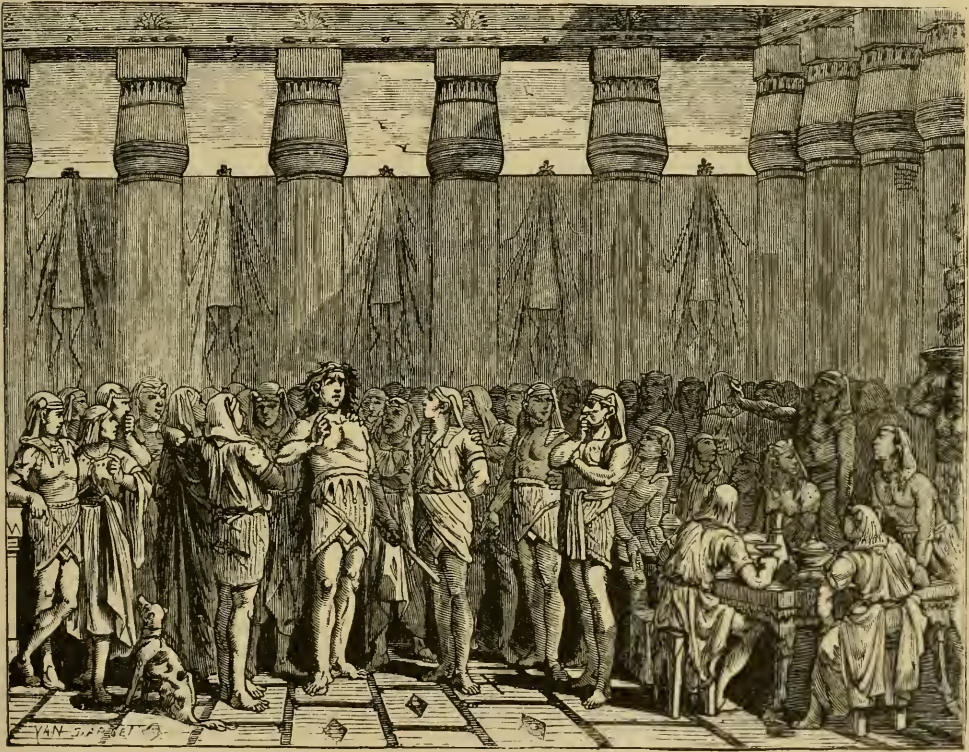
Ibzan, a Zebulunite, was the next judge. He encouraged a greater degree of intercourse with the surrounding nations by marrying his children to foreign husbands and wives. He judged Israel seven years. He was succeeded by Elon, another Zebulunite, whose term lasted ten years, and was uneventful. The next judge was Abdon, the son of Hillel, the Pirathonite. He filled an uneventful term of eight years. He is believed by some writers to be identical with Bedan, who is enumerated by Samuel among the judges.

The successes of the judges seem to have broken the power of the Canaanites, for we do not hear of them any more. The sins of the Israelites were still great, however, and God brought upon them a new and more formidable enemy in the fierce and warlike nation of the Philistines, the inhabitants of the sea-coast of Southern Palestine. They extended their power over all the south of Palestine, reducing the territories of Simeon, Judah, Benjamin, and Dan to subjection. This bondage was of a very severe nature, and lasted forty years.

At this time the judge of Israel was Eli, of the house of Ithamar, Aaron's youngest son. We do not know when the high-priesthood was transferred from the house of Eleazar to that of Ithamar, or the reason for the change, but it appears to have had the divine sanction, and was only reversed as a punishment for the sins of the house of Eli. Eli himself was a man of sincere

and exemplary piety. He resided at Shiloh, with the tabernacle, and his authority was generally acknowledged by the Israelites. His sons were vicious and profligate men, whose crimes disgraced the priesthood; but Eli weakly and sinfully passed them over, and allowed his sons to retain their sacred offices. A prophet was sent to warn him that he would be punished for his weakness, that his sons would be killed, and that his family would lose the august office they had not known how

to be put upon his head. This child, when he grew to manhood, was to accomplish great things for his people against the Philistines. Samson came to man's estate just as the oppression of the Philistines had reached its severest stage. There was constant war between the Israelites and their oppressors, and the sturdy warriors of the tribe of Dan lived in a fortified camp near Kirjath-jearim. Here the "spirit of Jehovah began to move Samson at times." He was possessed of more than mortal strength,



SAMSON'S RIDDLE.

to fill. Eli did no more than remonstrate with his sons, and permitted them to continue in their wicked ways.

During the judgeship of Eli God raised up two champions for Israel, in the persons of Samson and Samuel. Samson was a member of that part of the tribe of Dan which dwelt to the westward of Judah. His birth had been foretold by the angel of God to his parents, and they had been commanded to raise the child as a Nazarite, to keep him from all unclean food and strong drink, and not to permit a razor to

and was fearless and incapable of fatigue. Conscious of his powers he determined to provoke a quarrel with the Philistines; and with this view asked the hand of a woman of Timnath. On his way to visit her he slew a lion by seizing it by the mouth and tearing its jaws apart. He left the carcass by the wayside, and told no one of the exploit. Returning that way soon after he saw that a swarm of bees had taken up their abode in the carcass. He ate of the honey he found there, but told no one. At his marriage feast he made use of this cir-

cumstance to propound a riddle to the thirty young men assigned him as grooms-men, the riddle to be solved within the week of the marriage feast, for a stake of thirty tunics and thirty changes of raiment. The young men, by threatening to burn Samson's wife and her family, if she refused, induced her to ask her husband the answer. Samson, who was always fatally subject to the wiles of woman, weakly told her, and she revealed the answer to her kinsmen, who, on the appointed day, gave the proper solution. Samson at once saw through the trick, and, flinging the treachery of the Philistines in their teeth, left the city, went down to Askelon, slew thirty men of that city, sent their clothing to their fellow-countrymen who had guessed his riddle, and went back to his own country. His wife was given to one of his groomsmen, and he was forbidden to see her. In revenge for this wrong, he burned the standing harvests of the Philistines. They retaliated by burning his wife and her father; and he took vengeance upon them by attacking them and slaying a great number of them. He then took refuge in the territory of Judah. From this time there was constant war between the Philistines and Samson, in which the latter repeatedly displayed the most extraordinary strength. On one occasion he slew a thousand of their men with no other weapon than the jaw-bone of an ass. As long as he remained faithful to his Nazarite's vow he escaped every snare set for him, but at length he yielded to the temptations to which his strong animal nature exposed him, and was ruined. He formed a fatal connection with a woman named Delilah, who lived in the valley of Sorek. The Philistines bribed her to betray her lover, who, yielding at last to her entreaties, told her the secret of his strength. As he lay asleep in her arms his enemies stole upon him, cut off his hair in which lay his strength, and made him a prisoner. They put out his eyes, bound him in fetters, and led him down to Gaza, where they forced him to perform the menial office of grinding the prison mill. God had punished him sorely, but had not deserted him, and as his hair grew his strength returned. Shortly after this the lords and chief people of the Philistines held a great feast in the temple of Dagon, at Gaza, and brought Samson out and compelled him to amuse them with his feats of strength. They then allowed

him to rest between the two pillars which supported the roof of the court, which, as well as the court itself, was crowded with people to the number of 3,000. With a wild prayer to God for strength to avenge himself upon his enemies, the blind champion grasped the two pillars in his arms and bore upon them with all his might. They yielded and the house fell, killing Samson and all the assembly. "So the dead which he slew at his death were more than they which he slew in his life." His kinsmen took up his body, and buried it with his fathers. Samson is usually reckoned as the thirtieth of the judges, but his authority does not appear to have extended beyond his own tribe.

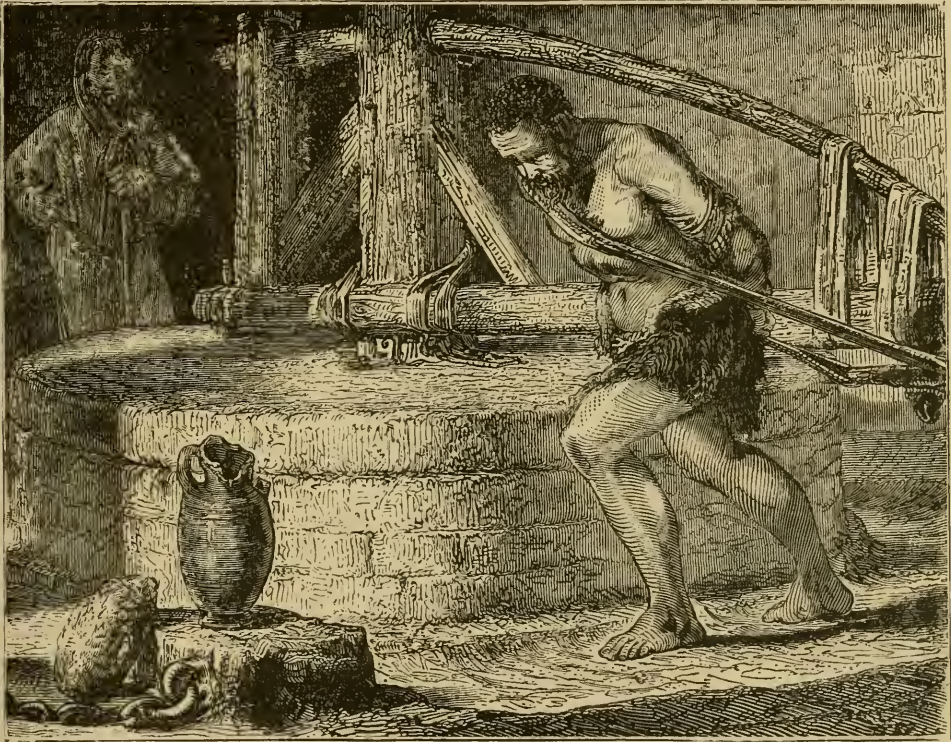
Samuel, the fifteenth and last of the judges, was, like Samson, a child of promise. His father, Elkanah, was a descendant of Korah, and a member of the tribe of Levi. He was settled at Ramathaim-zophim. He had two wives, a rare thing in a private person of that day. One of these, Peninnah, was the mother of several children; but the other, Hannah, the favorite wife, was barren. The family went up regularly to Shiloh to observe the festivals of their religion. As they feasted upon the free-will offering Elkanah bestowed upon Hannah a mark of his affection which aroused the jealousy of Peninnah, who reproached the barren woman with her condition in such bitter terms that Hannah left the feast in tears. In her bitterness of heart she went and stood in the door of the tabernacle, and prayed silently for a son, whom she vowed to devote to Jehovah as a Nazarite. Eli, the high priest, saw her lips moving, and, supposing she had gotten drunk at the feast, reproved her severely. She assured him that she was a woman of sorrowful heart, who was pouring out her griefs before the Lord. Eli spoke more gently to her then, gave her his blessing, and besought God to grant her prayer. She returned home in a happier frame of mind, and in due time Samuel was born. His mother kept him till he was old enough to be separated from her, and then took him to Shiloh, solemnly dedicated him to the service of God, and left him with the high priest. After this she bore her husband three sons and two daughters. Samuel grew up in the service of the tabernacle, winning favor of God and man. A signal proof of God's favor was vouchsafed him, when quite a youth.

God spoke to him in the night and told him of his purpose to destroy the house of Eli, and take the priesthood from it as a punishment for the sins of his sons and his failure to exercise his authority over them. From that day Samuel was a prophet of God. None of his predictions failed, and his fame and his influence over the people increased with his growth.

The favor shown to Samuel by God appears to have encouraged the Israelites to believe that Jehovah would help them to

of the disaster was brought to Eli as he sat at the gates of the tabernacle. When he heard of the loss of the Ark he fell backward from his seat, broke his neck and expired.

The Philistines carried the Ark in triumph into their own country, but God inflicted such a severe plague upon them that they sent it away to Bethshemesh. The curiosity of the men of Bethshemesh induced them to open the Ark and look into it. God punished this sacrilege by visit-



SAMSON GRINDING THE PRISON MILL AT GAZA.

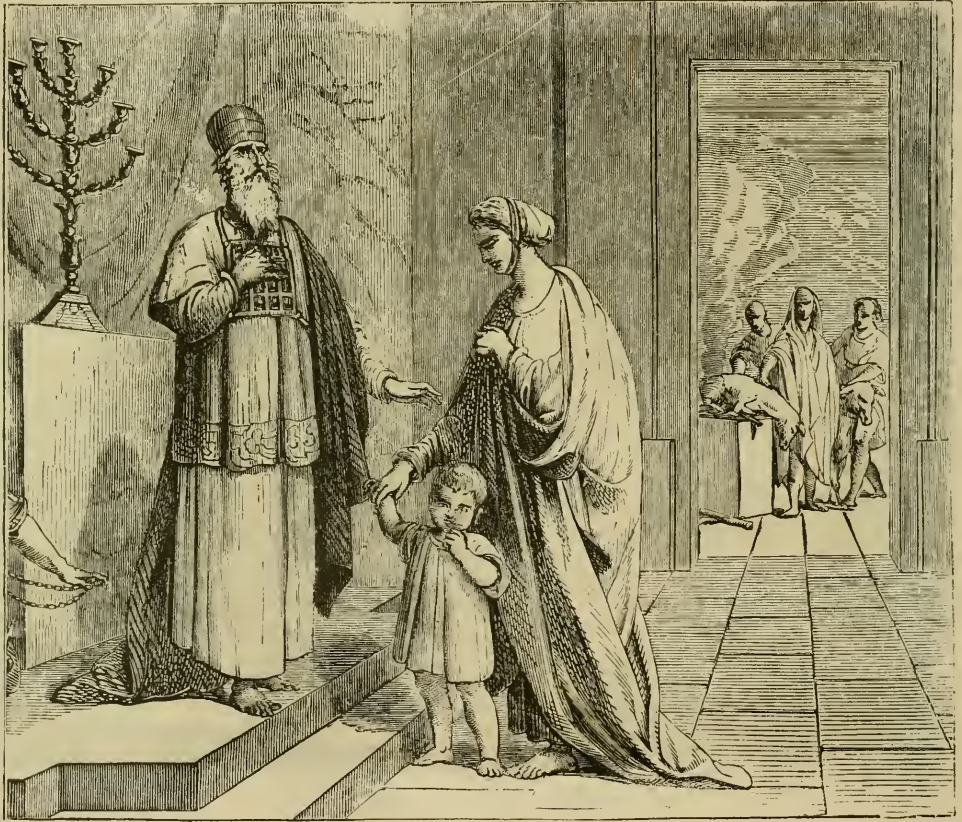
throw off the Philistine yoke. They therefore took up arms, but were defeated in the highlands of Benjamin, not far north of Jerusalem. Hophni and Phinehas, the sons of Eli, brought the Ark of the Covenant from Shiloh to the Israelitish camp, believing that this sacrilegious use of the Ark would win them the victory. God punished the sacrilege by allowing the Philistines to defeat the Israelites, inflicting upon them a loss of 30,000 men. Hophni and Phinehas were slain, and the Ark of God was captured by the Philistines. The news

ing 50,070 of them with death. Appalled at this judgment, the survivors sent for the men of Kirjath-jearim to take away the Ark. These took it to their own city, and it remained in the house of Aminidab, a Levite, until David carried it up to Jerusalem.

Samuel succeeded Eli in his office of judge, and his authority was generally acknowledged. For twenty years after the loss of the Ark, the Israelites were held down with a heavy hand by the Philistines. At the end of this time Samuel summoned

the nation to make a final effort for freedom, and to prepare them for it called a solemn assembly at Mizpeh, where, with fasting and repentance, the people renewed their broken covenant with God. Hearing of this assembly, the Philistines sent a strong army to break it up. Samuel encouraged the people to attack this force, and the efforts of the Israelites were assisted by a violent storm from heaven, which destroyed a large part of the hostile army.

government had been the source of their past calamities, and feared that it would expose them to similar evils in the future, forgetting that the true cause of their sufferings had been their infidelity to the worship and rule of Jehovah. They longed for a king, believing that with such a leader they could defeat their foes and secure peace and prosperity at home. In vain Samuel remonstrated with them, reminding them that God was their king, and



DEDICATION OF SAMUEL.

The Philistines fled, and were pursued with great slaughter.

This victory broke the Philistine power in Israel, and firmly established the authority of Samuel. He made circuits of the country, administering justice among the people, and appointed his sons, Joel and Abiah, his assistants. Under the rule of Samuel the Israelites enjoyed the most peaceful period they had ever known. They were not satisfied, however. They believed that their lack of a strong central

that in choosing an earthly sovereign they would be guilty of the sin of rejecting Jehovah. They were deaf to all his arguments and entreaties, meeting all with the declaration, "We will have a king over us." God pitied the weakness of his people, and punished them by granting their demand. Samuel was commanded to comply with the request of the people, and in accordance with the divine instructions anointed Saul, the son of Kish, a Benjamite, to be king over Israel, B. C. 1095.

CHAPTER IV.

THE SINGLE MONARCHY.

Character of Saul—Discontent of the Tribes—Rescue of Gilead—Saul Acknowledged by the Nation—Saul Usurps the Sacerdotal Power—His Quarrel with Samuel—Wars with the Philistines and other Nations—Extermination of the Amalekites—Samuel slays Agag—Curses Saul—Saul's Madness—David Anointed to be King—Saul's Fondness for David—Death of Goliath—Saul Seeks to Kill David—Flight of David—His Adventures—Saul Massacres the Priests—Battle of Mount Gilboa—Death of Saul and Jonathan—David Becomes King of Judah—Civil War—David King of all Israel—Capture of Jerusalem—David's Conquests—Extent of his Empire—His Civil Administration—His Sins—Rebellions of his Sons—Death of David—Accession of Solomon—Splendor of his Court—Commerce of the Hebrews—Personal Qualities of the King—His Oppressive System—The Temple—Decline of Solomon's Power—His Sins—His Death—Is Succeeded by Rehoboam—Revolt of the Northern Tribes.

SAUL, the new king, appears to have been about forty years old at the time of his elevation to the throne.

He is described in the Bible as a man of noble and commanding appearance, "taller than any of the people," and so truly regal in bearing that when Samuel presented him to the people, he was hailed with a rapturous shout of "God save the king." He possessed all the hardihood of his race and tribe, all their courage and energy; but was impulsive and unstable in character, and was possessed of an ungovernable temper, which changed to madness in the face of opposition.

The choice of a sovereign from the smallest of the tribes gave great offence to a large part of the nation, and it was considered prudent by Samuel to delay the solemn public installation of Saul until this opposition could be overcome. At this time Gilead, or the coun-

try east of the Jordan, was invaded by Nahash, King of the Ammonites. Saul promptly gathered the forces of Israel, crossed the Jordan, annihilated the Ammonites, and rescued Gilead. The skill and bravery which he exhibited in this campaign completely silenced the opposition to him, and his authority was enthusiastically acknowledged by the entire nation.

Samuel continued to exercise a great influence over the affairs of the nation. He regarded the king as merely a military chieftain, without power to interfere with the ancient constitution and laws, and very different from the sovereigns of the surrounding nations. For a while Saul accepted this view, and remained submissive to the prophet's influence; but his fierce spirit could not long brook this control. He began to resent the restraint put upon



THE ARK OF THE COVENANT.

him by Samuel, and longed to be a king in fact as well as in name.

After his solemn installation at Gilgal, which took place on his return from the campaign against the Ammonites, he dismissed the Israelites to their homes, and kept a force of only 3,000 men in the field. He retained 2,000 of these under his own command, and placed the remaining 1,000 under his son Jonathan, a young man of noble character. Jonathan surprised and captured the Philistine stronghold of

summate his long contemplated intention of throwing off the control of Samuel and usurping the sacerdotal power. He offered the sacrifice himself, thus claiming for himself priestly as well as kingly power. Samuel arrived soon after, and at once comprehended the significance of Saul's action, which he saw aimed at placing the Hebrew monarchy on the same basis as those of the nations around him, and giving the king supreme power over the spiritual as well as the civil system of the nation. He re-



SAMUEL ANOINTING DAVID.

Gibeah, in the land of Benjamin, and relieved that tribe from a constant annoyance. The Philistines at once put a powerful army in the field, and Saul summoned the forces of Israel to assemble at Gilgal, at which place Samuel was to join him and offer a solemn sacrifice to the Lord as the opening act of the campaign. The people assembled at the appointed time, but Samuel did not make his appearance. Saul waited seven days for him, and then, noticing the impatience of the people, resolved to take advantage of the occasion to con-

proved Saul severely for his sacrilegious act, and, speaking in the name of God, told him that the divine favor would be from this time withdrawn from him, and that at his death the royal dignity should pass to another family.

The Philistine bondage had weighed heavily upon the southern tribes, and they had forbidden the smiths to carry on their trade. The consequence was that weapons were so scarce that Saul could find only 600 armed men in the whole assembly of the people. Nevertheless he marched

northward to Michmash to meet the enemy. While there, Jonathan, accompanied only by his armor-bearer, surprised the camp of the Philistines, who were seized with a panic and turned their arms against each other, and fled. Saul at once pursued, and was joined by every Israelite who could find arms. He was soon at the head of 10,000 men, and pursued the enemy to Beth-aven, inflicting fearful losses upon them.

The Philistines withdrew to their own

though small, was composed of veterans and kept in a high state of efficiency. The command of this force he intrusted to his cousin Abner, son of Ner.

Samuel was now very old, and was near his end. He came to Saul one day, and commanded him to undertake a war of extermination against the Amalekites, the earliest and most inveterate enemies of Israel. Saul at once marched against them, and defeated them. He had been commanded by the prophet to destroy every-



DAVID PLAYING BEFORE SAUL.

country, and for some years made no further effort against Israel. During this time Saul repulsed the attacks of the Ammonites, Moabites, Idumeans, and the Syrians of Zobah, who attempted successively to invade his dominions. About the same time the tribes east of the Jordan conquered the nomadic Arab tribe of the Hagaréens and extended their territory towards Damascus. Saul, knowing that the safety of his kingdom would depend upon its ability to resist invasion, exerted himself to form a standing army, which,

thing he captured; but in spite of this brought off an immense spoil, and spared Agag, the Amalekite king, in the hope of obtaining a ransom from him.

Samuel met Saul at Gilgal, on his return from the war, and sternly denounced his disobedience to the divine command. In the name of God, he pronounced a curse upon him, and told him that God had rejected him from that day. At the same time the prophet slew Agag, with his own hand.

Samuel now departed from Saul, and the

breach between them was complete. The divine protection was withdrawn from Saul, and Samuel was commanded to go to Bethlehem, and anoint the future King of Israel.

He obeyed, and proceeding to the house of Jesse, the chief man of the town, solemnly anointed, with the sacred oil, David, the youngest and most gifted son. The newly chosen king was descended from Nahshon, who had been the chief, or prince of the tribe of Judah, in the wilderness, and

secret influence, could draw him. Saul conceived a warm affection for David, loaded him with honors, and made him his armor-bearer.

In the meantime the war with the Philistines had been resumed, and the armies of Israel and Philistia confronted each other in the south of Palestine. The Philistines brought forward as their champion a man of gigantic stature, named Goliath, an inhabitant of Gath. No Israelite dared to meet him, until David, who had just re-



DAVID SPARES THE LIFE OF SAUL.

among his ancestresses counted Rahab and the beautiful Ruth. He had already reached man's estate, and had shown his valor by his repeated and successful defences of his father's flocks against the robbers and wild beasts of the region.

After the breach with Samuel, Saul became the victim of a deep melancholy which amounted at times to madness, and from which nothing but the music of the harp of David, who seems to have been introduced into the palace through Samuel's

joined the army, offered to fight him. Saul endeavored to dissuade David from this attempt, but finding him resolute and reliant upon God for his success, consented to the meeting.

David, armed only with his shepherd's sling, in the use of which he was an expert, killed the giant, and then cut off his victim's head with his own sword. Terrified at the death of their champion, the Philistine army fled, and was pursued by Saul's forces with great slaughter to the gates of Gath and Ekron.

Saul was delighted with the prowess of David, and gave him his daughter Michal in marriage. Jonathan conceived a deep and lasting affection for the young hero. Saul, soon after this, with characteristic instability, became suddenly jealous of his son-in-law upon hearing the praises which his triumph over Goliath won for him from the nation, and from that day sought to destroy him.

David was at length obliged to fly from the court of Saul, and took refuge with the king of Gath, where he feigned madness, in order to escape the vengeance of the Philistines. He soon after became the leader of a band of outlaws, lived for a while in Moab, and then established himself in the almost inaccessible

but generously spared his life. He was obliged at last to take refuge with Achish, King of Gath, who gave him the city of Ziklag. There he dwelt for some years, undertaking frequent expeditions against the Amalekites, the common enemies of Israel and Philistia.

At length the war between the Philistines and Israelites broke out again, and David was ordered by Achish to join the Philistine army, and march against Saul. He was compelled to obey, but, fortunately for him, the Philistine leaders, who were suspicious of him, induced their king to order him to return to Ziklag. The armies of the Israelites and Philistines encountered each other at Mount Gilboa. The Israelites were routed, and Jonathan was slain. Saul,



HEBRON.

region of the wilderness of Judæa, in the territory of Judah. About the same time Samuel died at Ramah, at an advanced age, and was deeply mourned by all Israel.

After the death of Samuel, Saul gave free rein to his furious passions. He persecuted all the supporters of the law of Moses, and massacred the high priest Abimelech, eighty-five priests, and the entire population of the city of Nob, where the high priest dwelt. One of the sons of Abimelech, Abiathar, the heir to the high priesthood, escaped the destruction of his race, and fled to David for safety.

Saul now turned his arms against David, and hunted him through Southern Palestine. David twice had the king within his power,

being severely wounded and closely pursued, slew himself to avoid capture by his enemies, B. C. 1055. His reign had lasted forty years.

As soon as David was informed of the death of Saul and Jonathan, he returned to his own country, and established himself at Hebron. He was acknowledged as king by his own tribe of Judah; but the other tribes gave their adhesion to Ishbosheth, a younger son of Saul, whom Abner had caused to be crowned at Mahanaim. A bloody civil war followed, and lasted seven years. It resulted in the defection of Abner to the cause of David, and the assassination of Ishbosheth by two traitors in his own service. The entire nation then acknowledged David as its sovereign, and

he was solemnly anointed at Hebron, B. C. 1048.

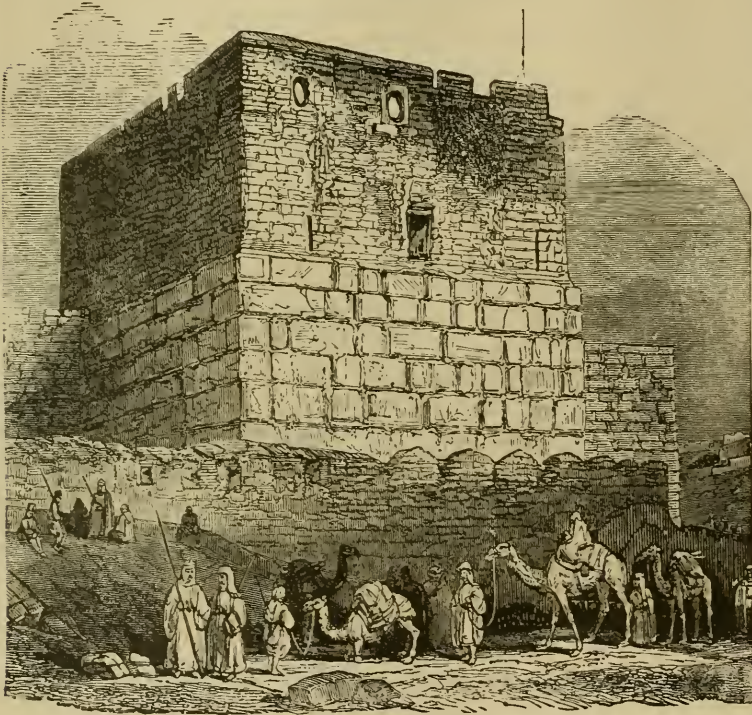
David was nearly thirty-eight years old when he began to reign over the whole kingdom of Israel. His first exploit was the capture of Jerusalem from the Jebusites.

He made that city the capital of his kingdom, and also the religious centre of the nation by bringing up to, and lodging in it, the Ark of the Covenant. He established a standing army, set up a splendid court at his new capital, provided himself with a

Hebrew nation. His wars were numerous and successful. The Philistines were punished and rendered powerless by the conquest of their country as far south as Gaza. Moab was subdued, and only one-third of its inhabitants left alive. These were compelled to pay tribute. The Ammonites and the various Syrian states between the Jordan and Euphrates were conquered, and the latter river formed the eastern boundary of David's dominions. Edom was also subdued, and the Hebrew territory was extended to the Red Sea and the Egyptian frontier.

David formed an alliance with the Phœnician King Hiram, of Tyre, which was very beneficial to his own kingdom. Hiram furnished the cedar and the necessary workmen and artificers for the construction of the magnificent palace which David built at Jerusalem.

At home David proved a wise and beneficent ruler. The Israelitish army was thoroughly organized. The civil administration was conducted under the personal supervision of the king, and an admirable internal service was inaugurated



DAVID'S TOWER AT JERUSALEM.

harem, and introduced a royal splendor until then unknown in Israel. He proved himself a faithful servant of Jehovah, and his greatest delight was to honor the God of Israel.

The prophets Gad and Nathan were his intimate associates. "These two men, inspired by God, were distinguished by their noble character, and by the frankness with which they reproached the king on every occasion with the faults of his private or public life, and the king always heard them with deference."

David was the greatest and most powerful sovereign that ever reigned over the

for the despatch of the public business. The religious institutions were revised and settled upon the basis upon which they were afterwards conducted. David's rare genius as a musician and poet enabled him to prescribe a gorgeous ritual for the Hebrew worship, and to furnish the noblest of the psalms used therein. It was his design to erect a magnificent temple to Jehovah at Jerusalem, but he was forbidden by God to do so, as his hands were stained with blood.

His design was commended, and he was told that his son and successor, who should be a man of peace, should build the temple.

He therefore confined his efforts to the purchase of a site and the collection of materials for the sacred edifice.

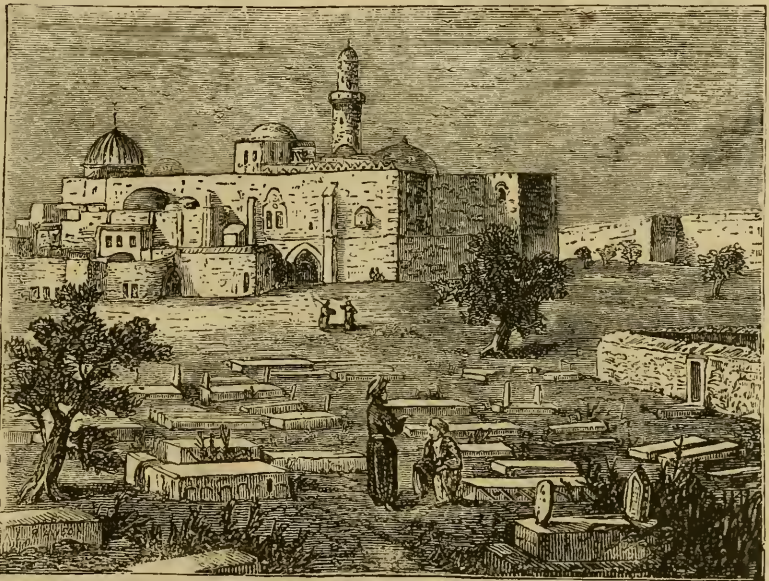
Though so eminently a servant of God, David could not always resist the temptations to which his nature exposed him. Becoming enamored of the beautiful wife of Uriah the Hittite, one of his captains, he determined to possess her. He therefore caused Uriah to be given the command of a dangerous expedition, in which he was treacherously slain. The king, who had seduced Uriah's wife, Bathsheba, now took her openly to his harem. She bore a child, which died, in accordance with the prediction of Nathan the prophet, who sternly reproved David for his crime. Another child was born to her, and he became the successor of David on the throne.

The glories of David's reign were tarnished by two rebellions, each directly due to the evil of polygamy, which David had introduced into the kingdom. His sons by his different wives tormented his closing years by their jealousies and crimes, and two—Absalom and

Adonijah—took up arms in open revolt against their father. Absalom's rebellion forced the king to fly from Jerusalem and take refuge in the country east of the Jordan. It was ended only by the defeat and death of Absalom, who had assumed the royal dignity, by his cousin Joab, the commander of David's army. Adonijah also atoned for his crime with his life. His rebellion induced David to secure the succession of Solomon by associating that prince with him upon the throne in the last year of his life. After a reign of forty years, thirty-three of which were spent in Jerusalem, David died—B. C. 1015—at the age of seventy-eight years, leaving to his

people the proudest name in their history.

Solomon began his reign under the most favorable auspices. Peace reigned throughout the whole of his extensive dominions; his authority was everywhere submitted to. An alliance was contracted with Egypt by the marriage of the young king with the daughter of one of the priestly Pharaohs of the Twenty-first (Tanite) Dynasty. A most advantageous commercial alliance was formed with Hiram, King of Tyre, who had been the friend of David. By this treaty Solomon was admitted to a share of the profits of the Phœnician traffic, and the wealth of the king was enormously in-



TOMB OF DAVID, ON MOUNT ZION.

creased by the vast influx of the precious metals and articles of luxury into Palestine. A navy, manned by Tyrian sailors, was established in the Red Sea, and the Israelites engaged in a lucrative trade with the countries along its shores. Solomon, thus enabled to gratify his natural tastes, increased the splendor and display of his court. He built him a larger and more magnificent palace than had contented David, and increased his seraglio to an extent which has no parallel in the history of Eastern monarchs. Seated on a gorgeous throne, he dispensed justice to his people, and received their homage and the embassies and presents of the neighboring powers.



SOLOMON RECEIVING THE ENVOYS OF THE TRIBUTARY NATIONS.

His personal qualities were in keeping with this splendor. Of noble and commanding presence, and rare majesty of demeanor, he was possessed of all the learning of his time, and of a wisdom divinely given to judge his people, and to "discern between good and bad." He was the profoundest student of human nature the world has ever known, and his writings have commanded the admiration of the greatest minds of succeeding generations.

The most notable act of his reign was the construction of a Temple to Jehovah upon Mount Moriah, at Jerusalem. His alliance with Hiram afforded him the means of executing this work. Phœnician sailors brought cedars from Lebanon to Joppa, whence they were hauled to Jerusalem for the wood-work of the Temple, and Phœnician architects and masons planned and built the massive platform upon which the sacred edifice stood, and the Temple itself. The Temple was the most superb edifice of its day, and upon it all the artistic and mechanical resources of the period were lavished. It was begun in the fourth year of Solomon's reign, B. C. 1012, and its construction occupied seven and a half years. It was completed in the eighth month of the eleventh year of Solomon's reign, B. C. 1005. The Ark of the Covenant was placed in it, and the holy house was dedicated to Jehovah and his service with the most solemn and imposing ceremonies. God himself accepted the offering in the presence of the assembled nation by causing the sacrifices to be consumed by fire from heaven, and by filling the house with a glorious light, so bright that the priests and people hid their faces from it. Solomon also enlarged and improved Jerusalem, strengthened its fortifications, and constructed noble and useful public works in various parts of his kingdom. In the midst of the great Syrian desert, half way between Damascus and the Euphrates, he built the splendid city of Tadmor, which afterwards became famous under the name of Palmyra.

The kingdom of Israel was now at the height of its splendor and prosperity; but under all this greatness the causes were growing which were to result in the disruption of the Hebrew state. The trade of Solomon was a monopoly of the government, and while it enriched the king was of no benefit to the people. The taxes which he levied for the support of his costly court were so enormous that the nation was im-

poverished, and a general discontent was aroused. He compelled large bodies of the people to engage in the great works which he carried on, thus interfering with the proper course of the industry of the country, and increasing the general dissatisfaction. The great favor shown to the tribe of Judah was resented by the rest of the nation, especially by the powerful house of Joseph, which had always regarded itself as entitled to the crown. The luxury introduced and fostered by the king exercised an enervating influence upon the people, who were also corrupted and led away from their ancient faith by the encouragement given by the king to the false religions which he maintained in the state, and which were celebrated with cruel and licentious rites. During the king's lifetime the kingdom was weakened by the successful revolt of Rezon, King of Damascus. Hadad attempted to re-establish the independence of Edom, but was defeated and obliged to fly to Egypt. The tribes of Ephraim and Manasseh came near breaking out into open rebellion. The attempt was discovered, and Jeroboam, the leader of the conspiracy, was obliged to take refuge in Egypt. When Solomon died the kingdom was in a feverish and unsettled state, and it was evident that its destruction was close at hand.

In his old age, Solomon, led away by his love of women, forsook the worship of God, opened his harem to a crowd of women of the most degraded of the neighboring nations, and gave himself up to sensuality, and at last to idolatry, thus tarnishing the earlier glories of his reign. He died, after a reign of forty years, B. C. 975.

Solomon was succeeded by his only son, Rehoboam, who was forty years old at the time of his accession to the throne. At the outset of his reign the northern tribes, which were rife for a revolt, demanded of the new king certain modifications of the oppressive system of his father. Rehoboam haughtily refused the demand, and threatened to increase the burdens of the people. The northern tribes thereupon threw off their allegiance to the house of David, took up arms, established a new kingdom, with its capital at Shechem, and made Jeroboam their leader. King Rehoboam undertook to suppress this revolt by force, and a civil war was prevented only by the express command of God, who forbade either army to attack the other. Thus was accomplished the punishment with which God had

threatened Solomon for his sins. The separation was complete, and thenceforth, in the place of the powerful empire of David and Solomon, there were two weak kingdoms in Palestine, neither of which ever attained the position of a state of the first rank. The northern kingdom took the name of Israel; the southern that of Judah.

As the northern kingdom was of shorter duration than Judah, it will be best to relate its history before proceeding to that of Judah.

CHAPTER V.

THE NORTHERN KINGDOM.

Character of the Kingdom of Israel—Reign of Jeroboam—The Separation Complete—Reign of Baasha—War with Damascus—Omri King—He Builds the City of Samaria—Ahab and Jezebel—Reigns of Ahaziah and Jehoram—Death of Jezebel—Jehu King—Israel Subject to Syria—Jeroboam II.—The Greatest King of Israel—Shallum King—Invades Assyria—Is Conquered and Made Tributary to Assyria—Conquest of the Trans-Jordanic Country by Assyria—Shalmanezar IV. Invades Israel—Captures Samaria—Transports the Israelites to Assyria—End of the Kingdom of Israel—Settlement of the Country by the Assyrian King.

THE kingdom of Israel, set up by the northern tribes under Jeroboam, reached from the northern boundary of Benjamin to the borders of Damascus, and embraced all the trans-Jordanic country, including Moab. It was not only larger, but more populous and more fertile than Judah. These advantages were outweighed, however, by the inferiority of every Israelite capital to Jerusalem, and the deliberate adoption by the monarch and nation of an idolatrous religion. A succession of prophets, some of them among the greatest in Hebrew history, vainly endeavored to eradicate this taint and restore the Israelites to their allegiance to Jehovah. Idolatry was so deeply seated as to be a part of the national existence, and could not be rooted out. The evil grew worse with the progress of time, and its effects upon the political prosperity of the kingdom was so pernicious that it fell an easy prey to the Assyrian conquerors two centuries later.

Jeroboam, the first king of Israel, was divinely appointed to his office. Under him the rebellion was consummated and the monarchy established. He endeavored to make the separation between the two kingdoms final. As a help to this he es-

tablished two national sanctuaries, one at Dan and the other at Bethel, with idolatrous emblems, and created a new priesthood in opposition to that of the Levites. This offended the Levites and their adherents in the various portions of the northern kingdom, and they passed into Judah. Jeroboam's reign lasted twenty-two years, and was passed in almost constant war with Judah. He died B. C. 954, and was succeeded by his son, Nadab, with whom his dynasty ended. Nadab reigned two years, and was murdered by Baasha, the commander of his army, who also put all the house of Jeroboam to death, and made himself King of Israel, B. C. 953. Baasha removed the capital to Tirzah. He was grossly addicted to idolatry. The remnant of the worshippers of Jehovah left in Israel went over to Judah about the thirteenth year of his reign, attracted by the piety of King Asa. Baasha, in the hope of checking this defection, made war upon Judah and attempted to blockade his southern frontier. He was recalled to the north by the invasion of his kingdom by the Syrians under Benhadad, King of Damascus, whose alliance had been purchased by Asa. He was succeeded by his son, Elah, B. C. 930, who was murdered, while drunk, by Zimri, B. C. 929. Zimri made himself king, but was not acknowledged by the army, which set up Omri, its commander. A civil war of seven days followed, and Zimri, being defeated, shut himself up in his palace and burnt it over his head, perishing in the flames. Omri's reign began B. C. 929. He had at first a rival named Tibni, whose claim was supported by half the people, but he overcame him, and reigned until B. C. 918. He built the strong city of Samaria, which he made his capital; and waged war with Damascus, but was obliged to conclude a disgraceful peace. He was succeeded by his son Ahab, who strengthened himself by marrying Jezebel, the daughter of Ethbaal, King of Tyre and high priest of Astarte. This alliance led to the introduction of the Phœnician idolatry into Israel. Towards the close of the century the prophet Elijah was sent to Israel to denounce upon the king and people the divine punishment for their crimes. A famine of three years' duration was sent upon the kingdom. Its close was marked by the memorable vindication of Jehovah's power in the sacrifice offered by Elijah on Mount Carmel, and

the slaughter of the priests of Baal. A successful war was waged with Damascus during the latter part of the reign of Ahab, and resulted in the re-establishment of the independence of Israel. It was followed by a peace of three years. About B. C. 897 Ahab renewed the war with Syria by attempting, in conjunction with Jehoshaphat, King of Judah, to seize the strong frontier fortress of Ramoth-Gilead. In the battle which ensued Ahab was killed and the allied army was routed.

Ahab was succeeded by his son, Ahaziah, during whose brief reign of a little more than a year, Moab revolted. Ahaziah was succeeded by his brother, Jehoram, who continued the alliance with Judah. He was somewhat better than Ahab or Ahaziah, for he abolished the worship of Baal, though he clung to the idolatry of Jeroboam. He made war upon Moab, which had revolted against his brother, and was joined in the expedition by Jehoshaphat, and the King of Edom, the vassal of the King of Judah. The army was miraculously supplied with water, and the Moabites were decisively defeated by the same power. Jehoram followed up this victory by ravaging the "land of Moab" with fire and sword, and stained his triumph with such cruelties that the King of Judah indignantly abandoned him and returned to his own country. It seems that the last years of his reign witnessed

the restoration of the worship of Baal. He renewed the war with Syria by seizing Ramoth-Gilead. He was wounded in a battle with the Syrians, and went to Jezreel to be healed. There Ahaziah, King of Judah, his ally, visited him. During their absence from the army Jehu was proclaimed king by the troops. Proceeding to Jezreel, Jehu slew Jehoram and Ahaziah, and caused Jezebel, the wicked widow of Ahab, to be thrown from the walls of the city. Thus he destroyed all of Ahab's house.

Jehu began to reign B. C. 884. His first act was to put down with a firm hand the

worship of Baal; but he maintained the idolatry of Jeroboam. Hazael of Damascus stripped him of his trans-Jordanic provinces, and upon one occasion at least he paid tribute to Assyria, which now began to loom up on the eastern horizon as the great power of Asia. He was succeeded by his son, Jehoahaz, B. C. 856. Under this king the power of the monarchy was still further reduced by the conquests of the Syrians. The Syrian king even compelled Jehoahaz to fix a limit to the strength of his standing army. His son, Jehoash, a vigorous and warlike monarch, succeeded him, B. C. 839. He inflicted three successive defeats upon Benhadad, King of Damascus (the son of



THE GOLDEN LAMP-BEARER.

Hazael), and won back a portion of the territory lost by Israel. He also defeated Amaziah, King of Judah, and entered Jerusalem as a conqueror. His son, Jeroboam II., succeeded him, B. C. 825. Under him the Israelitish monarchy reached its highest pitch of power. He not only regained all the territory lost by Israel east of the Jordan by his conquests of Moab and Ammon, but attacked Damascus itself, now weakened by the preponderance of Assyria, and added a large part of the Syrian territory to the Israelitish monarchy.

Jeroboam II. was succeeded, either immediately or after an interregnum, by his

son Zechariah about B. C. 772. Zechariah was assassinated six months later by Shallum, and with him ended the line of Jehu.

Shallum reigned a little more than a month, and was, in his turn, slain and succeeded by his murderer, Menahem. Menahem undertook the invasion of the Assyrian territory east of the Euphrates, and cap-



HALF-SHEKEL.

tured Thapsacus. This drew upon him the vengeance of the Assyrian monarch, who defeated him and made his kingdom tributary to Assyria. In B. C. 762 Menahem was succeeded by his son, Pekahiah, who was murdered by Pekah, one of his generals. Pekah mounted the throne of his victim B. C. 760. His reign of thirty years was full of disaster. He made an alliance with Rezin, King of Damascus, in the hope of protecting his kingdom against Assyria, and for the purpose of conquering Judah. The allied forces invaded Judah and reduced that power to great distress. Tiglath-Pileser II., of Assyria, marched to the aid of Judah and compelled Pekah to make



DEMI-SHEKEL. COPPER.

peace. In a second invasion of Israel by the Assyrians, the trans-Jordanic territory was ravaged and its inhabitants carried away captive into Assyria. This was the beginning of the end of the kingdom of Israel. Pekah was slain by Hoshea, who succeeded him, either immediately, or after an interregnum, B. C. 730. Hoshea was the last monarch of the Israelitish kingdom, which was now rapidly nearing its end. He was the best of the kings of Israel and seems to have wished to raise both himself and his kingdom out of the corruption of idolatry; but it was too late. He began his reign as the tributary of Assyria, but

soon renounced his allegiance and endeavored to re-establish the independence of his country. For this purpose he formed an alliance with Egypt. Shalmanezar IV. invaded Israel, overran the country, and laid



JEZEBEL THROWN FROM THE CITY WALLS.

siege to Samaria, which city resisted for two years. It was taken in the first year of Sargon, and with its fall the kingdom of Israel came to an end, after a duration of 255 years. In accordance with the custom

of the age, the conquered territory was depopulated, and its inhabitants removed to distant parts of the Assyrian empire.

The Israelitish territory remained comparatively deserted until the reign of Esarhaddon, King of Assyria, in the seventh century B. C. That monarch, appreciating the advantages of this fertile region, colonized it with families drawn from Babylon, Orchoë, Susa, Elymais, Persia, and other neighboring nations. "The new inhabitants imported their idolatrous worship; and God showed his jealousy for his own land, by plaguing them with lions, which had doubtless multiplied during nearly half a century of desolation. They ascribed the infliction to their ignorance of 'the manner of the God of the land,' and the King of Assyria sent back one of the captive priests, who established himself at Bethel, and 'taught them how to fear Jehovah.' His teaching was probably mixed with no little error, but it seems to have been free from the old idolatry of Jeroboam." The new inhabitants regarded themselves as at liberty to serve their old gods, and their worship was a strange compromise between the true and the false, which is thus described in the Bible, "They feared Jehovah and served their own gods." The descendants of these colonists were known in later Jewish history as Samaritans, and became the bitterest enemies of the Hebrew race.

CHAPTER VI.

THE KINGDOM OF JUDAH.

Advantages of the Southern Kingdom over its Northern Rival—Reigns of Rehoboam and Abijah—Asa's Good Reign—Defeats the Egyptians—The Levites Join Judah—Alliance with Damascus—Wars with Israel—Reign of Jehoshaphat—Alliance with Israel—Athaliah—Joash Proclaimed King—His Reign—Amaziah King—Conquest of Edom—Uzziah's Sin—Reign of Ahaz—Judah becomes Tributary to Assyria—Hezekiah King—Destruction of Sennacherib's Army—Manasseh's Wicked Reign—His Captivity and Repentance—Reign of Ammon—Judah Tributary to Babylon—Reign of Josiah—His Death—Judah Subject to Egypt—Passes under the Sway of Babylon—Revolts—Nebuchadnezzar Captures Jerusalem—The Babylonish Captivity.

THE Kingdom of Judah was confined to the southern and least fertile portion of the Holy Land. The tribe of Benjamin, though at first attached to the northern kingdom, soon cast its lot with Judah, and its northern line became the boundary of

the kingdom. Though territorially smaller and numerically weaker, it was really the stronger and more important kingdom of the two. Its position was admirable and was easily defended. It lay out of the route pursued by the contending powers of Asia and Egypt, who followed the level country along the sea, and avoided the difficult mountain region in which Judah sat enthroned. Its inhabitants were filled with an indomitable spirit, due to their conviction that they were the true people of God and the rightful heirs of the promises, they exhibited at all times a remarkable valor, and an extraordinary elasticity in recovering from defeat. Above all the kingdom enjoyed the protection and favor of God, an advantage which the crimes of the northern kingdom forfeited, and it preserved the hereditary succession of its kings unbroken. Its indomitable spirit enabled it to defy successively the power of Assyria and of Egypt, and required the exertion of the full force of the Babylonian empire to crush it. It lasted a century later than Israel.



QUARTER-SHEKEL. SILVER.

Rehoboam reigned eighteen years. His reign was one of misfortune. In B. C. 970, Sheshonk I., King of Egypt (called Shishak in the Bible), invaded Judah, and took its fortified cities. He occupied Jerusalem, and plundered the temple and the royal palace, and then withdrew, having reduced Judah to the position of a tributary to his crown. During this reign a large part of the people lapsed into idolatry. A constant but desultory warfare was maintained with the northern kingdom. Abijah, the son of Rehoboam, succeeded his father, B. C. 958. He prosecuted the war with Israel more vigorously, and defeated Jeroboam at Zemaraim in Mount Ephraim. As a result of this victory, Bethel, Jeshanah, and Ephraim fell into the hands of Abijah, and as Jeroboam did not venture to resume the war, a ten years' peace followed.

Asa succeeded his father Abijah, B. C. 955. Unlike his father, he was a devout follower of Jehovah. He put down idolatry with a stern hand, and replaced the treasures of the temple which had been



JOASH PROCLAIMED KING OF JUDAH.

carried away by Shishak, by rich offerings of silver and gold. Taking advantage of the peace with Israel, he strengthened the fortifications of his cities, and increased the force of the army. About B. C. 941, Judah was invaded by a strong army led by "Terah the Ethiopian," believed to be Osorhon II., of Egypt. Asa routed him at Mareshah, pursued him to Gerar, and returned to Jerusalem laden with the spoil of his foes, and of the cities around Gerar. Urged by the prophet Azariah, Asa summoned a convocation at Jerusalem in the fifteenth year of his reign, B. C. 940, and the nation solemnly covenanted to be true to the worship of Jehovah. Many devout persons from the northern kingdom attended this assembly, and this defection of the worshippers of God in Israel to Judah, so alarmed Baasha, King of Israel, that he fortified Ramah, on the highway between Judah and Israel, to check this emigration, and made war upon Asa. Asa, alarmed by the danger, committed the one error of his life. He purchased the alliance of Benhadad I., King of Damascus, using the treasures of the temple for this purpose. The Syrian king at once invaded Israel, and drew the northern army from the borders of Judah to meet this danger. The rest of the reign of Asa was passed in constant war. He died B. C. 916. He was succeeded by his son Jehoshaphat. A large part of his reign was passed by Asa in crushing out idolatry, and in fortifying the cities of his kingdom, as well as those which his father had captured in Mount Ephraim.

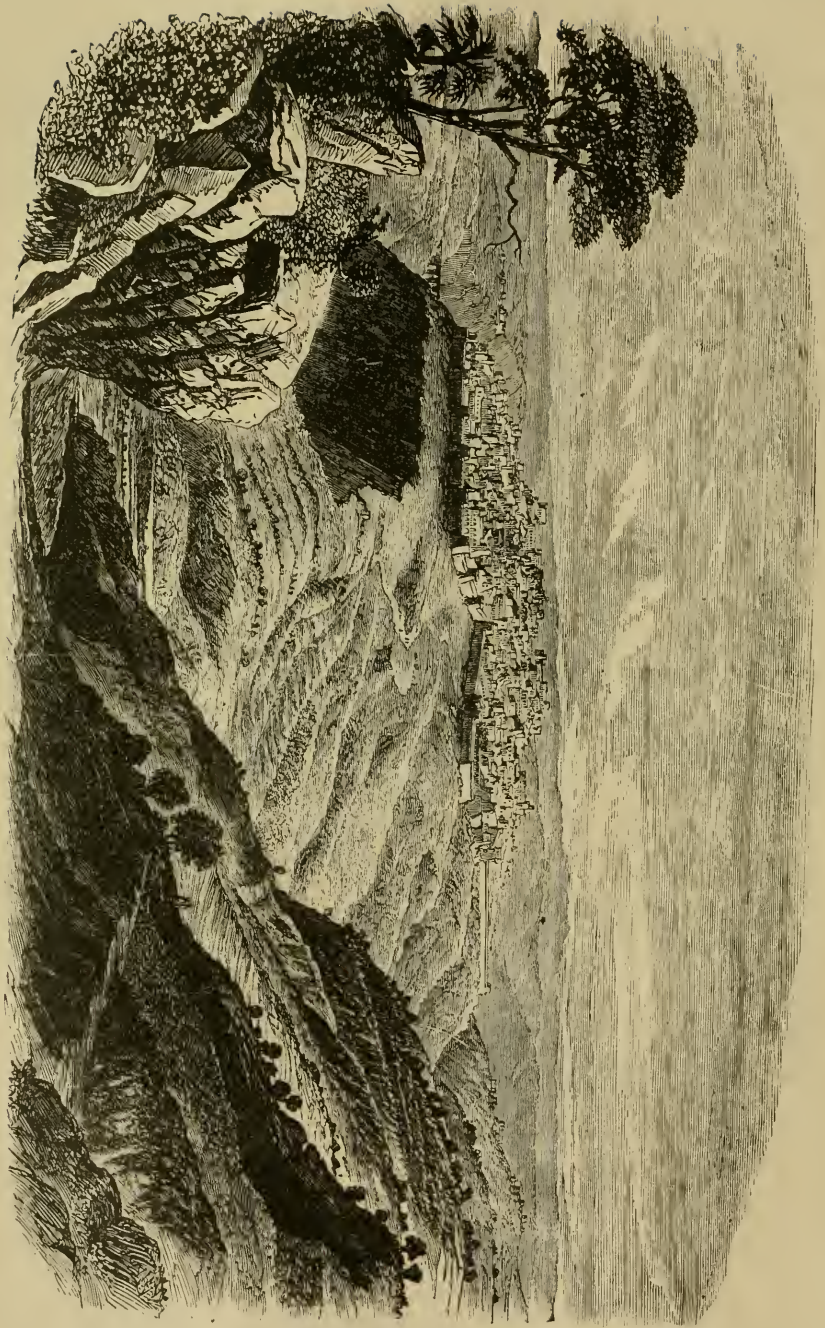
Jehoshaphat reigned in Judah twenty-five years. He reduced the Moabites and Philistines to the position of tributaries. He contracted an alliance with Ahab, King of Israel, by marrying his eldest son Jehoram to Athalia, the daughter of Ahab and Jezebel, a union which was full of trouble for Judah. He assisted Ahab in his wars against the Syrians, and was present with him at Ramoth-gilead, where Ahab met his death. This disastrous battle encouraged the old enemies of Judah—the Moabites, the Edomites, and Ammonites—to invade the kingdom in great force. They were miraculously defeated by God, in answer to the prayer of Jehoshaphat. This deliverance struck terror to all the surrounding nations, and secured peace for Judah during the rest of Jehoshaphat's reign. He attempted, in alliance with Ahaziah, the son of Ahab, to renew the maritime enterprises of Solo-

mon by way of the Red Sea, but his fleet was wrecked at Ezion-geber in punishment for the alliance with Ahaziah, and the king abandoned the attempt. He died B. C. 889, and was succeeded by his son Jehoram, who had been associated with him in the government for three years. Jehoram's reign was short and full of disaster. His marriage with Athaliah, daughter of Ahab, thoroughly corrupted him, and he set up the worship of Ashtoreth, with all its infamous rites, in Judah. He murdered all his brothers to avoid a disputed succession. God punished his wickedness by sending severe calamities upon his kingdom. Edom revolted, defeated the king's efforts to subdue it, and became an independent state under its own kings, and though it was afterwards worsted in battle by Judah, it was never again tributary to it. The Philistines and Arabians, who had been tributary to Jehoshaphat, invaded the kingdom and captured and plundered Jerusalem, and carried off all the king's wives except Athaliah, and all his children, save Ahaziah, his youngest son.

Ahaziah came to the throne in B. C. 885. He formed an alliance with his uncle Jehoram, King of Israel, the brother of his mother Athaliah. He was present with him in the battle near Ramoth-gilead, in which Jehoram was wounded, and was slain soon after by Jehu in the revolt which gave that warrior the Israelitish crown, B. C. 884. He was succeeded by his mother Athaliah, who slew all the royal family of Judah, except Joash, a new-born infant, the youngest son of Ahaziah, and made herself queen. Joash was concealed in the temple by his aunt, who was the wife of the high priest Jehoiada. Athaliah reigned six years, during which time Joash remained hidden in the temple.

In the seventh year Jehoiada headed a rebellion, which was supported by the army and people. Joash was proclaimed king and Athaliah was put to death, B. C. 878. Jehoiada was made regent. For the first twenty-three years of his reign, during which time Jehoiada lived and was his chief counsellor, Joash governed well, and the kingdom prospered. Idolatry was uprooted and severely punished. He repaired the temple, and put an end to the peculations of the Levites by which the sacred funds had been scattered. After the death of Jehoiada, Joash plunged into idolatry. Hazael, King of Damascus, attacked his kingdom and forced him to purchase peace by the sur-

JERUSALEM IN THE TIME OF DAVID, AS SEEN FROM THE SOUTH.



render of all the treasures of the royal palace and the temple (including the sacred vessels). He was killed by two of his servants, B. C. 839, and was succeeded by his son Amaziah, who began his reign with the execution of the murderers of his father. He endeavored to regain Edom, which had revolted from Jehoram. He defeated the Edomite army, and took Petra, where he massacred 10,000 men, but his success was only temporary. Elated with his victory he made war upon Jehoash, King of Israel, but was defeated and made prisoner at Beth-shemesh. The Israelitish monarch led his captive in triumph to Jerusalem, where he plundered the temple and royal palace, and broke down the north wall of the city. Then, taking hostages for the future peaceable behavior of Judah, he returned to Samaria. The last years of Amaziah were so oppressive and corrupt that his people hated him. The result was his murder at Lachish.

Amazia was succeeded by his son Uzziah (or Azariah), B. C. 809, a great and warlike sovereign. He began his reign by recovering and rebuilding the ancient port of Elath, at the head of the eastern arm of the Red Sea. Uzziah's reign lasted sixty-two years, and was a period of great prosperity. He conquered the most of Philistia, and received tribute from Ammon. Elated by his success, he arrogantly attempted to assume the priest's office, and was seized with leprosy in the very act of offering incense in the Holy Place. This compelled his seclusion, and for the remaining six or seven years of his reign the government of the kingdom was committed to his son Jotham, by whom he was succeeded.

Jotham began his sole reign at his father's death, B. C. 757. He was one of the most pious and prosperous of the kings, but his reign was marked by the growing corruption of the people of Judah. He fortified Jerusalem, and forced the Ammonites to pay tribute. During the latter years of his reign, Pekah, King of Israel, and Rezin, King of Damascus, began the war which proved so disastrous in the next reign. Ahaz succeeded Jotham, his father, B. C. 742. He re-established the worship of Baal, and greatly corrupted the people. The war, begun in the reign of his father, by Israel and Syria, was prosecuted vigorously, and Ahaz was so hard pressed that he begged aid of the great Assyrian monarch, Tiglath-Pileser II., purchasing his

assistance by becoming tributary to him. The Assyrians invaded Syria, captured Damascus, and put an end to the Syrian kingdom. Israel was severely punished and obliged to make peace.

Ahaz was succeeded by his son Hezekiah, B. C. 726. Hezekiah began his reign by re-establishing the pure worship of God, and destroying all the idols. He was a wise and virtuous prince, and "did that which was right in the sight of Jehovah." He defeated the Philistines, and even ventured to throw off the Assyrian yoke. Sennacherib, the Assyrian monarch, thereupon attacked him and compelled him to resume his position as a tributary. Not long afterwards he rebelled again, and made an alliance with Egypt.

In B. C. 699 Sennacherib once more entered Judah, intending to crush the little kingdom before proceeding to the invasion of Egypt, which he meant to punish severely for aiding his rebellious vassal. His march was along the coast to the southern extremity of the plain of Philistia. The cities of the low country fell before him, and at last, having taken Lachish, he formed the siege of Libnah. Either while thus engaged, or after the close of the siege, he sent a message to Hezekiah demanding his complete submission, blasphemously declaring that God was powerless to save him from the vengeance of Assyria. Hezekiah turned to God in prayer, and the Almighty answered him, and punished the insolent blasphemy of Sennacherib by the mysterious death of 185,000 men of his army in a single night. Terrified and fatally weakened by this disaster, Sennacherib hastily retreated to his own country.

Hezekiah was succeeded by his son Manasseh, B. C. 697. He reigned fifty-five years, and was one of the most wicked monarchs that ever sat on the throne of Judah. He restored every form of idolatry that had ever been practised in Judah or Israel, and so firmly did these abominable rites become established that the Temple was closed, and the law of Moses was almost forgotten by the people. Not only was this the case, but the worshippers of God were even persecuted in Jerusalem itself. The prophets denounced the apostasy in unmeasured terms, and were cruelly maltreated by the king. Isaiah is believed to have been one of the first of the victims slain by Manasseh.

About B. C. 677, the Assyrian monarch,

suspecting Manasseh of a design to rebel against him, dethroned him and carried him a prisoner to Babylon. The severity of his captivity brought Manasseh to repentance, and it pleased God to hear his prayers. The Assyrians restored him to his throne, and he reigned long and prosperously, exerting himself to uproot idolatry and re-establish the religion of his fathers. He also put Jerusalem in a state of defence.

About this time occurred the colonization of the territory of the kingdom of Israel by order of the Assyrian king.

Manasseh was succeeded on the throne of Judah by his son Amon, B. C. 642. He endeavored to restore the worship of idols, but before he could carry out his plans, was

intended him no harm, his expedition being directed against Babylon; but the Jewish monarch persisted, and was slain in the battle of Megiddo, which ensued, almost on the very spot that had witnessed the great victory of Deborah and Barak. He was succeeded by Jehoahaz, his second son, who was made king by the people. Jehoahaz reigned three months, when he was deposed by Nechoh, who gave the crown to Jehoiakim, the eldest son of Josiah, B. C. 609. Jehoiakim reigned for four years as the tributary of Egypt, when—Nechoh having been decisively defeated by Nebuchadnezzar, the prince of Babylon, at Carchemish, and the Babylonian dominions being extended to the borders of Egypt—Judah was compelled to submit, and Jehoiakim transferred

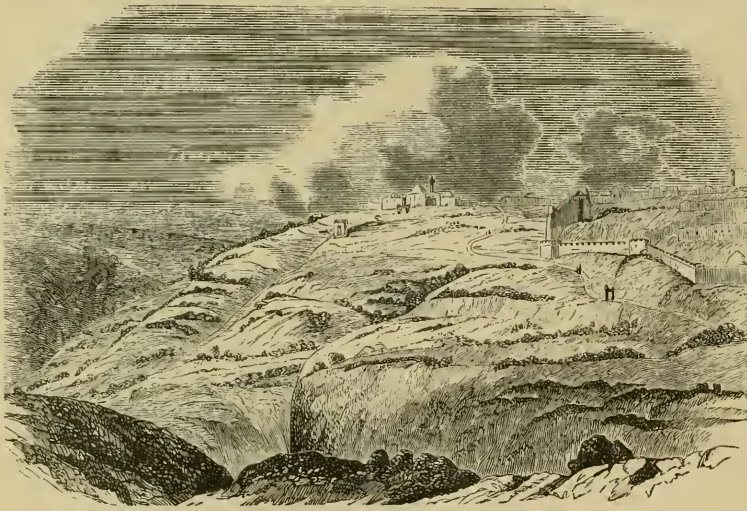
his allegiance to Babylon, B. C. 605–4. A number of noble Hebrew youths, among whom was the future prophet Daniel, were carried to Babylon by the conqueror and trained in the learning of the Chaldeans. In the year 602 B. C. Jehoiakim threw off his allegiance to Babylon and raised the standard of rebellion.

The prophet Jeremiah began to utter his predic-

murdered, B. C. 640, and was succeeded by his son Josiah, a boy of eight years. The first acts of the reign of the young king were the destruction of idolatry and the restoration of the Temple worship. He reigned thirty-one years, and was one of the best of Jewish kings. In his reign the Assyrian empire was overthrown. In B. C. 608, Nechoh, King of Egypt, having declared war against Babylon, invaded Palestine, conquered the Philistine cities, and marched along the sea-coast to Carmel, whence he struck across the great plain of Esdraelon, his march being directed towards the Euphrates. Josiah assembled his forces, and, in fulfilment of his duty as a tributary of Babylon, hastened to attack him. Nechoh warned him to desist, as he

intended him no harm, his expedition being directed against Babylon; but the Jewish monarch persisted, and was slain in the battle of Megiddo, which ensued, almost on the very spot that had witnessed the great victory of Deborah and Barak. He was succeeded by Jehoahaz, his second son, who was made king by the people. Jehoahaz reigned three months, when he was deposed by Nechoh, who gave the crown to Jehoiakim, the eldest son of Josiah, B. C. 609. Jehoiakim reigned for four years as the tributary of Egypt, when—Nechoh having been decisively defeated by Nebuchadnezzar, the prince of Babylon, at Carchemish, and the Babylonian dominions being extended to the borders of Egypt—Judah was compelled to submit, and Jehoiakim transferred

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MOUNT ZION.

custom, his body was treated with indignity, thus fulfilling the prophecy of Jeremiah concerning the king.

Jehoiachin, the son of Jehoiakim, a mere youth, was made king by Nebuchadnezzar, who suffered him to remain on the throne for only three months, and then, suspecting his fidelity, removed him and sent him a prisoner to Babylon, replacing him with his uncle Zedekiah, the brother of Jehoiakim and son of Josiah. Zedekiah remained faithful to his allegiance to Babylon for eight years, and then forming an alliance with Uaphris, the Apries of Herodotus, King of Egypt, who agreed to support him with a strong army, threw off his allegiance and raised the standard of revolt, B. C. 589.

The siege of Tyre was still in progress, and Nebuchadnezzar marched against Jeru-

to devote themselves to the peaceful cultivation of the land. He was murdered soon after, and the conspirators fled to Egypt, carrying with them the prophet Jeremiah,



SILVER SHEKEL.

who had endeavored to dissuade them from their suicidal course. Later on they became involved in the fate of Egypt. The remnant remaining in Judæa were removed into captivity in Babylon about the same time, thereby almost completing the depopulation of the country.



WALLS OF JERUSALEM.

salem in person with a large army. He defeated the Egyptian king, who sought to relieve his ally, and took Jerusalem by assault. Zedekiah and the remnant of his army fled, but were overtaken in the plain of Jericho. The troops were cut to pieces, but the king was made a prisoner. Nebuchadnezzar caused his eyes to be put out, and sent him a captive to Babylon. The city of Jerusalem and the Temple were then pillaged and given to the flames, and the people, except a mere handful, were removed to Chaldea. Thus began the great Babylonian Captivity—the national punishment for the sins of the people—B. C. 586. Judæa was not left to anarchy, however. A Babylonian governor was settled at Mizpeh, and he endeavored to induce the Jews

CHAPTER VII.

FROM THE BABYLONIAN CAPTIVITY TO THE PRESENT TIME.

The Jews in Babylon—Fall of the Babylonian Empire—Cyrus—His Interest in the Jews—Grants them leave to Return to Palestine—The Return—The Temple Rebuilt—Darius I. grants the Jews permission to Rebuild Jerusalem—Ezra—Conquests of Alexander the Great—Judæa becomes an Egyptian Province—The Septuagint—Judæa Transfers its Allegiance to Syria—Revolt of the Maccabees—Exploits of Judas Maccabeus—The War with Syria—The Asmonæan Kingdom—The Romans in the East—They Intervene in the Affairs of Judæa—Crassus Plunders the Temple—End of the Asmonæan Monarchy—Herod the Great—Birth of the Lord Jesus Christ—Judæa a Roman Province—The War for Independence—Capture of Jerusalem by Titus—The Saracens Conquer Palestine—The Crusades—Subsequent History of Palestine.

NEBUCHADNEZZAR caused the Jews whom he removed from their own country to be settled in Chaldea. There they were consoled in their captivity by the promises made by God, through the prophets, that he did not mean to destroy his people as a nation, but would restore them to their own land after they had undergone the punishment he was inflicting upon them.

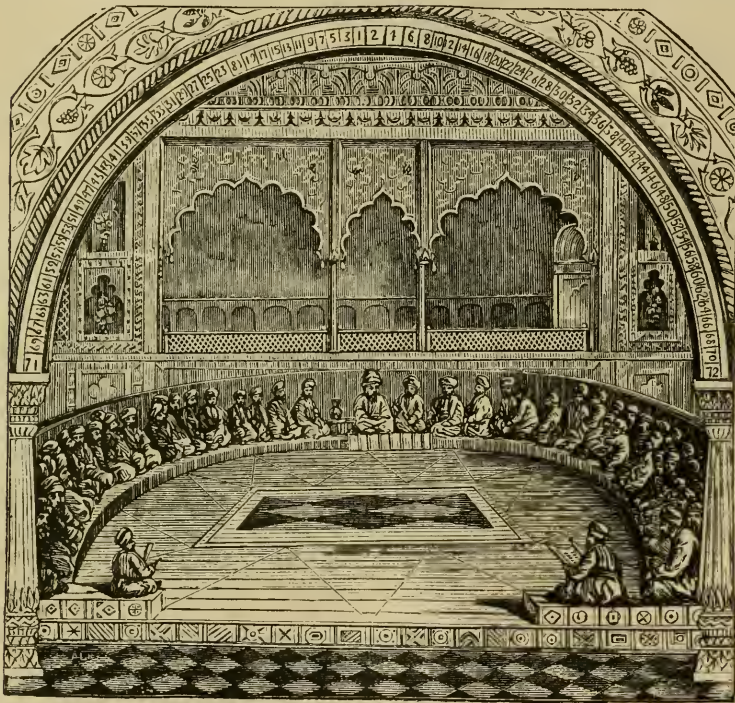
During the Jewish captivity the Babylonian monarchy was overthrown by the conquests of Cyrus, and its dominions were incorporated in the great Medo-Persian empire. Cyrus was made by the Almighty the means of restoring the Jews to their

own country. He captured Babylon in B. C. 538, and there found the Jews, "an oppressed race, in whose religion he found a considerable resemblance to his own." He took a warm interest in their fortunes, and learning that many of them entertained a strong desire to return to their own land, gave them permission to do so. In consequence of this permission, a colony of 42,360 persons, besides their servants, returned from Babylonia to Jerusalem in B. C. 535. They went direct to Jerusalem, under the leadership of Zerubbabel, a descendant of the old line of kings, and the majority set-

upon the arrival of the Jews, proposed to join them in rebuilding the Temple, which they wished to make a sanctuary common to both races. They claimed to be the descendants of the ancient tribes of Israel; but the Jews repudiated the Samaritan claim to Israelitish descent, and refused to allow them any share in their work. The Samaritans consequently became the bitter enemies of the Jews, and sought by every means to defeat the rebuilding of the Temple and city. They succeeded in delaying the work for a while, in B. C. 522, but it was resumed by order of Darius Hystaspis, King of

Persia, in B. C. 519, and in B. C. 515 the Temple was completed and dedicated.

The favor with which Darius I. of Persia regarded the Jews enabled them to establish themselves firmly in their old homes in spite of the jealousy and hostility of the neighboring nations. His successor, Xerxes, though favorably inclined to the Jews, came near causing their extermination by weakly consenting to a plot for that purpose formed by his prime minister Haman.



THE SANHEDRIM IN SESSION.

tled at first on the site of the Holy City and in its immediate vicinity. The larger part of the Jewish nation remained in Chaldea.

The first effort of the restored Jews under Zerubbabel was to rebuild the Temple and restore the old Temple service. They began the work in the year of their return, but were interrupted by the Samaritans, who were, as we have seen, a mixed race inhabiting the ancient territory of Ephraim and Manasseh, and descended from the colonists settled in that country by Esarhaddon, King of Assyria. These people,

The plot was detected by Mordecai, a Jew and the uncle of Esther, the favorite wife of Xerxes. Through the exertions of these two, the king was induced to put the Jews on their guard and allow them to defend themselves against their enemies. The result of the plot, therefore, was the death of Haman and the successful defence of the Jews in all parts of the empire. They took advantage of the king's permission to destroy their most conspicuous antagonists. This event occurred about B. C. 473, and is still commemorated in the Feast of Purim.

In B. C. 458 a second colony of Jews was

led from Babylon to Jerusalem by a priest named Ezra, who enjoyed the royal favor. He arrived in time to put a stop to the practice of intermarriage between his people and the surrounding nations, which had become so common as to threaten the extinction of the pure Jewish race. Other necessary reforms were made in church and state by Ezra, and under him the books of the Old Testament were definitely and authoritatively arranged. In B. C. 445, Nehemiah, a Jewish favorite of Artaxerxes I., who had been the king's cup-bearer,

long as the tribute was paid regularly, the Persian sovereigns left the Jews free to manage their internal affairs in their own way.

The captivity had the effect of thoroughly curing the Jewish nation of its fondness for idolatry. In all its subsequent history we shall see that among its numerous faults a desertion of the worship of Jehovah finds no place. The attempts of the Syrian kings, in the second century before Christ, to force idolatry upon the Jews were met with a fierce resistance which forms one of the



THE REBUILDING OF JERUSALEM.

arrived at Jerusalem, with permission to restore the fortifications of the city. In spite of the king's command, the neighboring nations endeavored to stop the work, but were prevented by the vigilance of Nehemiah, who caused his countrymen to prosecute their labors under arms, ready to repel an attack at any moment. The fortifications being restored, the people were divided between the Holy City and the rural districts. From this time Judæa was usually governed by the High Priest. As

most striking periods of Jewish history, and is significant of the great spiritual advance made in their faith.

From the time of the return from the captivity, the ancient territory of Judah was called Judæa, and its inhabitants Jews. The Jews in Babylonia gradually drifted back to Palestine, but a large number remained in that country, and between these and their brethren in Judæa a constant and intimate intercourse was maintained down to the latest period.

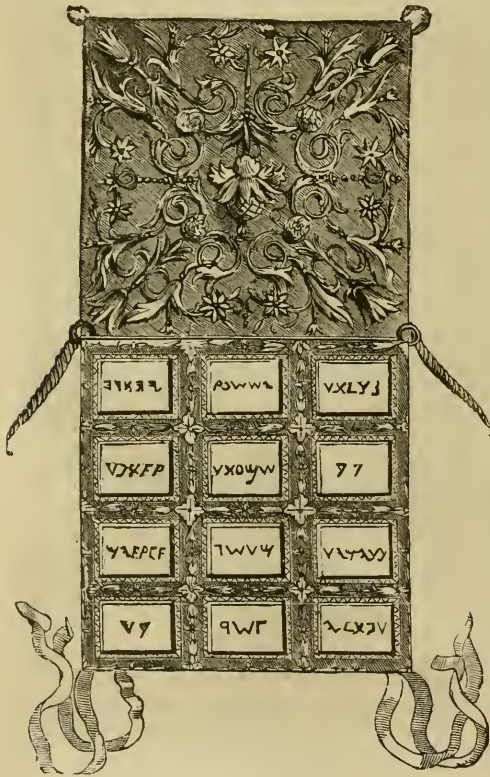
Judæa continued under Persian rule until the fall of the Persian empire before the arms of Alexander the Great. According to Josephus, Alexander, while engaged in the siege of Tyre, sent to demand the surrender of Jerusalem, which was refused by the High Priest Jaddua, who answered that the Jews were the faithful subjects of Darius. After the fall of Gaza, which succeeded the capture of Tyre, Alexander advanced to Jerusalem to take vengeance upon the city. By the command of God, received in a vision, Jaddua hung the city

and that he recognized in him a figure which had appeared to him in Macedonia and encouraged him to undertake the conquest of Persia. The story of Josephus is doubted by historians, but it is certain that Alexander not only spared Jerusalem, but bestowed important privileges upon the Jews, and induced many of them to settle in his new city of Alexandria in Egypt, where they formed an important part of the population.

After Alexander's death Palestine was alternately the prize of Egypt and of Syria. The final division of Alexander's empire, which followed the battle of Ipsus, confirmed Palestine, together with Phœnicia and Cœle Syria, to Egypt, B. C. 301. Under the rule of the first three Ptolemies Judæa was allowed to manage its affairs very much in its own way, and so long as the tribute was regularly paid, the kings of Egypt rarely attempted to interfere with the Jews in their religious or civil matters. The high priest was the head of the nation and the chief of the national religion. Altogether the reigns of the first three Ptolemies constituted a period of peace and prosperity for Judæa.

Ptolemy IV. (Philopator), a weak and dissolute prince, gave mortal offence to the Jews by attempting to violate the sanctity of the Holy of Holies in the Temple at Jerusalem by entering it, B. C. 217. His attempt was frustrated, and he avenged himself by outrages upon the Alexandrian Jews, who had done him no harm at all. Disgusted and alarmed by the conduct of this prince, Judæa solicited the protection of Antiochus the Great of Syria, and voluntarily transferred its allegiance to that prince.

During the reign of Ptolemy II. (Philadelphus) occurred an event of the greatest moment in the history of the Jews and of the world. This was the translation of the Hebrew Scriptures into the Greek language, which version is called *The Septuagint*, or the LXX., from its seventy or seventy-two translators. The tradition ascribes the translation to the desire of the king to read the Scriptures in his own language; but be this as it may, the appearance of the Sacred Books in a language which made them accessible to the whole civilized world, was an event which could not fail to exercise an immense influence upon the times, and especially upon the Jews themselves. It made the Hebrew Scriptures known to the



THE BREASTPLATE OF THE HIGH PRIEST.

with garlands, and, arraying himself in his gorgeous vestments, went forth to meet the conqueror at the head of a solemn procession of the priests and people. He met Alexander, who had ridden in advance of his army with his generals, on an eminence in full sight of the city. Upon seeing the high priest, Alexander, to the astonishment of his friends, prostrated himself to the earth. In reply to the remonstrances of Parmenio, he told him that he worshipped not the high priest, but the Name engraved on the breastplate which he wore,

ancient world, and so prepared the way for the spread of Christianity.

The battle of Paneas in B. C. 198 established the power of Syria over Judæa, but the Jews soon had reason to regret their change of masters. Antiochus at first continued the Egyptian policy of non-interference, but, towards the close of his reign, being in need of money, he attempted to plunder the Temple of its treasures, but was prevented either by a miracle or by the adroitness of the high priest. Antiochus IV., Epiphanes, was a cruel persecutor of

These cruelties raised up a national deliverer in the person of Mattathias, a priest, and the founder of the Asmonæan family. He raised the standard of revolt, but being too old for such an enterprise, the direction of the rebellion passed to his heroic son Judas, surnamed Maccabæus, under whom the movement prospered steadily. Judas defeated numerous detachments of the Syrian army, and having regained Jerusalem, with the exception of the citadel on Mount Zion, which was held by a Syrian force, he cleansed the Temple, and restored



FEAST OF THE NEW MOON.

the Jews. He sold the high priesthood to the highest bidder, and affecting to regard the quarrel between the claimants as a rebellion against himself, he marched into Judæa, captured Jerusalem by assault, gave it up to pillage and massacre, polluted the Temple in the most shameful manner, and stripped it of its treasures to the amount of 1,800 talents. He endeavored by all the means in his power to compel the Hellenization of the Jews, and in his effort to force the Greek religion upon them began one of the cruellest persecutions known to history.

the services. He defeated five Syrian armies of from six to ten times his own strength, and in these victories erected a splendid and enduring monument to his own greatness and the courage of his race. In B. C. 164 he was besieged in Jerusalem by Antiochus V. with a force of over 120,000 men. Being deceived into a peace with Syria, he admitted Antiochus to Jerusalem. The king at once broke the terms of the treaty and destroyed the fortifications of the city, after which he returned to Syria, where his presence was needed. In B. C. 162, Judas

once more raised the standard of revolt, and defeated the Syrians at Capharsalama. The next year he won his greatest victory, that of Adasa, near Bethoron, over a vastly superior Syrian force. He now sent an embassy to Rome to seek an alliance with the republic. The mission was successful, but before the return of the envoys, Judas had closed his glorious career by a soldier's death at Eleasa, where with only 800 men he met a Syrian force of 22,000 infantry and cavalry. With the bulk of his little band he defeated the Syrian right wing and drove it from the field, but the Syrian left closed in upon him at the moment of his success, slew him, and dispersed his followers, B. C. 160. Jerusalem was lost to the patriots, and the followers of Judas fled with Jonathan, his brother, to the fortress of Tekoah, in the "Wilderness of Judæa," from which they carried on a partisan warfare for fourteen years.

The civil war which broke out in Syria between Alexander Balas and Demetrius made the alliance of the Jews a matter of

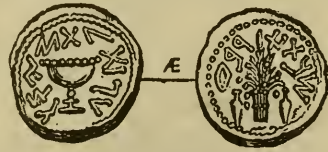
importance to the contending parties. The result was that Jonathan Maccabæus was recognized as prince of Judæa and high priest, and was restored to Jerusalem, B. C. 153. He was murdered by Tryphon, in B. C. 143, and was succeeded by his brother Simon, under whose rule Judæa recovered in some measure from the suffering the war had inflicted upon her, and the independence of the country was effected. He was murdered in B. C. 135, by his son-in-law Ptolemy, who also put to death two sons of Jonathan. The other son, John Hyrcanus, escaped, and succeeded his father. He was attacked by Antiochus Sidetes, and Jerusalem was besieged for two years. Hyrcanus was forced to acknowledge the authority of the Syrian king, the fortifications of Jerusalem were dismantled, and an annual tribute exacted. On the death of Antiochus Sidetes in the Parthian war, this tribute ceased. Syria had been reduced by the Parthian conquests to a petty kingdom, and Hyrcanus seized the opportunity to make Judæa her equal in power. He sub-

dued Samaria, destroyed the Samaritan temple on Mount Gerizim, and conquered Idumæa. Hyrcanus was succeeded by his eldest son Aristobulus I., B. C. 106. Aristobulus assumed the title of King of Judæa, and founded the Asmonæan kingdom, which lasted just seventy years. He died after a reign of a year, and was succeeded, B. C. 105, by his brother, Alexander Jannæus.

Alexander Jannæus reigned until B. C. 78. He was a Sadducee, and his reign was marked by a rebellion of the nation under the opposite sect of the Pharisees. Though defeated at first he crushed the rebellion, and avenged himself terribly upon his enemies. Dying in B. C. 78, he advised his wife Alexandra to end the troubles by allying herself with the Pharisees. She acted upon this advice and reigned in peace for eight years. At her death, in B. C. 69, a civil war broke out between her sons Hyrcanus and Aristobulus. It continued seven years and was ended by the intervention of the Romans, under Pompey the Great, who



QUARTER COPPER SHEKEL OF SIMON MACCABÆUS.



SIXTH-PART COPPER SHEKEL OF SIMON MACCABÆUS.

took Jerusalem, seated Hyrcanus on the throne and carried Aristobulus a prisoner to Rome, B. C. 63. At the end of six years, Aristobulus escaped from Rome and resumed the war. He was defeated and made prisoner by the Romans, who then confined Hyrcanus to his priestly office, and placed Judæa under the rule of councils called Sanhedrims.

Pompey had spared the treasures of the Temple, and had protected the edifice upon his capture of the holy city, but had mortally affronted the Jews by entering and profaning with his presence the Holy of Holies, and they favored the party of Cæsar in the great struggle between the rivals. In B. C. 54, Crassus, who had received Syria as his share in the partition of the Roman dominions by the first triumvirs, reached Jerusalem, and stripped the Temple of its treasures to the amount of 10,000 talents, or \$12,000,000, to provide for the expenses of his Parthian expedition. The Jews regarded the fate of Pompey and

Crassus as divinely sent punishments for their sacrilege. Aristobulus was freed by Cæsar at the outbreak of the civil war, but on his return to Judæa was murdered by partisans of Pompey. The troubled state in which the kingdom was placed was ended in B. C. 48 by the appointment of Hyrcanus to the nominal sovereignty with the title of Ethnarch. The real ruler was Antipater, an Idumæan noble, who had in the past twenty years played a prominent part in Jewish affairs. Cæsar, in return for his assistance in the Egyptian campaign, made him a Roman citizen, and the procurator or civil governor of all Judæa.

In B. C. 40, Antipater's powerful patron, Julius Cæsar, being dead, Antigonos, the son of Aristobulus, seized the throne, captured Jerusalem with the assistance of a Parthian army, and reigned as king for three years. In the meantime, however, Herod, the Governor of Galilee, the son of Antipater, aided by his friend and patron, Mark Antony, obtained a decree of the Roman Senate, appointing him King of Judæa. He hastened back to Palestine, and with the help of the Romans subdued the open country and the garrisoned cities. Jerusalem was taken by storm after a siege of six months. So severe was the punishment inflicted by the Romans upon the Jews at the capture of the city that Herod was obliged to implore the Roman commander not to leave him monarch of a depopulated capital. Antigonos was made prisoner and was sent to Rome, where he was put to death at Herod's instigation. With him ended the Asmonæan monarchy.

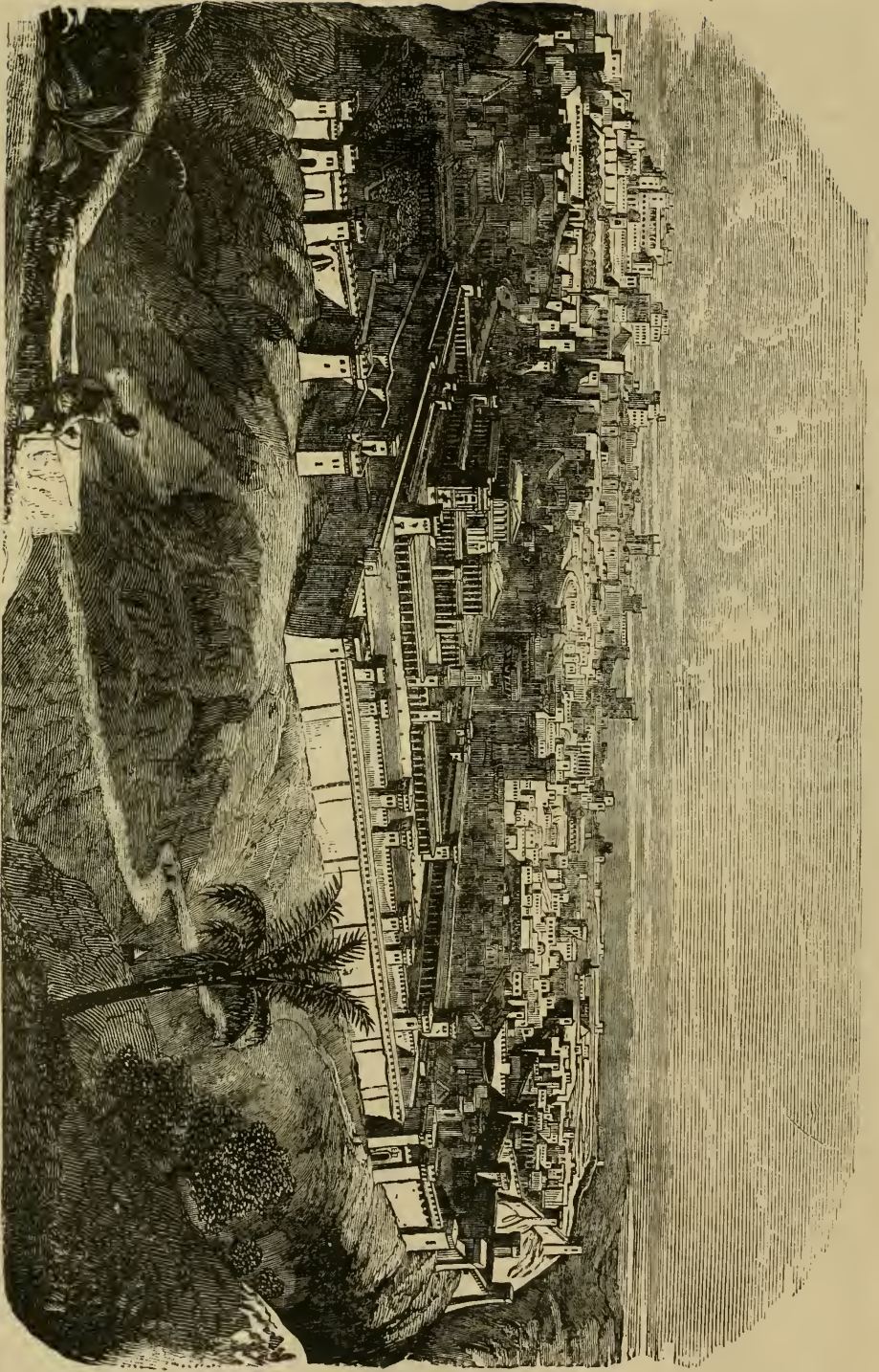
Herod became master of Judæa in B. C. 37, holding his crown as a tributary of Rome. He possessed great talents as a ruler and a soldier, but was a monster of cruelty. He began his reign by massacring the principal Jews who had opposed him. Two members of the Asmonæan family were living at the time of his accession—Aristobulus and Mariamne, the grandchildren of Hyrcanus II. To conciliate the Jews, Herod married the beautiful princess Mariamne, and made her brother high priest, although the latter was only sixteen years old. The Jews were passionately attached to the young prince, as the last of his race. A short time afterward, Aristobulus was put to death by Herod's orders, and in such a manner as to give the act the appearance of an accident. Becoming jealous of his beautiful wife, Herod caused her to be

murdered, and somewhat later inflicted the same fate upon her mother, Alexandra, thus entirely extinguishing the Asmonæan line. Later on he caused three of his sons to be executed, upon the suspicion that they were plotting his overthrow, and the last years of his reign were literally drenched with blood.

He signaled his reign by rebuilding the Jewish Temple upon a scale of unprecedented magnificence. It was not completed until long after his death. He adorned Jerusalem with palaces and splendid works, greatly added to the extent and strength of its fortifications, and would have rendered it impregnable had he not feared to offend his Roman masters by so doing. He also built the splendid city of Cæsarea, on the Mediterranean, and erected many noble public works in various parts of his kingdom. He was in no sense a Jew, though he claimed to be one in his religious belief. He affected Roman manners, and tolerated all religious beliefs in his dominions. He died from a loathsome disease amid the rejoicings of his sorely tried people, B. C. 4. His dominions were divided among his three sons. Archelaus received Judæa and Samaria, Antipas, Galilee, and Philip the region east of the Jordan, called Trachonitis.

In the last year of Herod's reign our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ was born at Bethlehem, a town of Judæa, the birth-place also of David. By an error the received chronology places this momentous event in the year 4 B. C.

The Jews were never entirely satisfied with the rule of the Herods. Except by a small faction these princes were hated with an intense bitterness because of their Idumæan descent, and as the tools of the foreign masters of the country. They were a standing reproach to the nation, a constant reminder of its weakness and degradation. These feelings were intensified by the anxiety with which the Jews were at this time looking for the coming of the Messiah, who, they imagined, would be a temporal sovereign divinely sent for their deliverance, and under whose guidance the ancient power and glory of Israel would be restored. When Herod was informed of the birth of Jesus at Bethlehem, he caused all the children of that place of two years and under to be put to the sword, thus seeking to rid himself of one whom he regarded as a formidable rival to his house. Thoroughly hated by the people, the Herodian family



JERUSALEM IN THE TIME OF HEROD THE GREAT.

had no safety but in the protection of their Roman masters, and they sacrificed every Jewish interest to their favor.

These sacrifices availed nothing, however. The Herodian kingdom steadily lost power, and the encroachments of the Romans became greater every year. Archelaus ruled his dominions so oppressively that the Romans deposed him in A. D. 8. Judæa and Samaria were incorporated with the Roman province of Syria, but were still allowed a separate administration under Roman procurators or governors.

It was during this period that the Lord Jesus Christ grew up to manhood and

years ruled over the entire kingdom of his grandfather. The action of Caligula was but a temporary interruption of the Roman system, which aimed at the entire absorption of the Jewish state in the empire. In A. D. 44 Agrippa began a cruel persecution of the Christians, and this gave the Romans the occasion they wanted. Judæa was taken from him, and was again placed under the government of procurators.

The Roman governors were cruel and rapacious, and carried their oppressions so far that the Jews could not endure them. Gessius Florus, the sixth of the new line, plundered his province without mercy. He



ANCIENT HARBOR OF CÆSAREA.

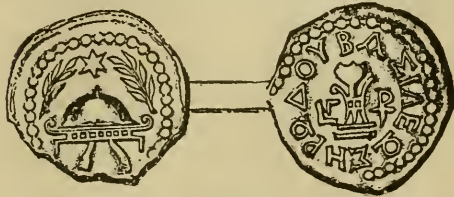
executed the great mission for which he came upon the earth. His crucifixion, resurrection and ascension took place during the administration of Pontius Pilate, the fifth of the Roman procurators of Judæa.

Judæa continued to be so governed until A. D. 36. Herod Antipas reigned, in the meantime, as king in Galilee; and Philip ruled his domain of Trachonitis. When these provinces became vacant by the death of their rulers, the Emperor Caligula bestowed them upon his favorite, Herod Agrippa I., the grandson of Herod and Mariamne. In A. D. 41 Agrippa was given Judæa, and Samaria also, and for three

drove the Jews to despair, and in A. D. 66 the entire nation took up arms to drive out the Romans and regain their independence. Florus is commonly held responsible for the outbreak, but it was the Roman system rather than the tyranny of any particular governor that lay at the bottom of the trouble. Sooner or later it must have driven the Jews into rebellion. Gessius Florus did no more than hasten the struggle, and perhaps give to it a fiercer character than it would otherwise have assumed. Judæa had submitted to foreign masters before the Romans came, but the policy of these powers was unlike that of Rome, which tolerated

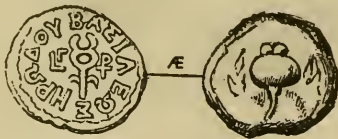
no differences and sought not only to absorb but to assimilate nations. Under no circumstances would the Jews have allowed their national existence to be destroyed without a struggle.

The war for independence, or the Revolt, as it is more popularly termed, began in the year 66. It was conducted with vigor by the Romans, who subdued all of Galilee and Samaria, and scourged those regions with fire and sword. Judæa was overrun, and the war was practically brought to an end by the capture and destruction of Jerusalem by Titus, in A. D. 70. The Romans had by



COIN OF HEROD THE GREAT.

this time formed a true conception of the formidable character of the Jewish nation, and the destruction of the holy city was designed as much to deprive them of their strongest rallying point in future revolts, as in punishment for their resistance to the empire. Titus found Jerusalem a city of palaces, and left it a heap of blackened ruins. The splendid Temple was burned, and every edifice but a few fortified towers, which were left as quarters for a Roman garrison and as monuments of Roman valor, were levelled with the ground. Not even Nebuchadnezzar did his work of destruction



COIN OF HEROD THE GREAT.

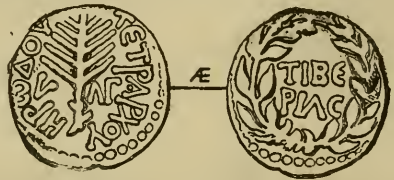
more thoroughly. The siege of Jerusalem lasted five months, and will always remain one of the horrors of history. It was not so much the desperate bravery of the combatants or the destruction of the city, as the appalling loss of life and the fearful sufferings of the besieged, that make it one of the saddest chapters in the annals of war. Josephus states that 1,100,000 persons perished during the siege, and, though his numbers may be somewhat exaggerated, they cannot be far wrong. The people who survived the siege were made slaves, and were divided among the conquerors. Large

numbers were transported as colonies to the interior of Germany and to Italy.

After the close of the war, Judæa was attached to the province of Syria, and later on, both Syria and Palestine were governed by a Roman Prefect stationed at Antioch. This general state of affairs continued during the existence of the Roman Empire. Christianity made rapid progress in Syria and Palestine, and secured a firm footing in those countries long before its establishment throughout the empire by Constantine.

The Jews never recovered from the blow struck them in the destruction of Jerusalem. The political existence of the Jewish nation was annihilated by it. It was never again recognized as one of the states or nations of the world. Scattered over the face of the earth, strangers and sojourners in all lands, the children of Abraham are expiating the sins of their fathers in rejecting the Messiah and his kingdom.

The ruins of Jerusalem were held by a Roman garrison during the reigns of Vespasian and his immediate successors. The



COPPER COIN OF HEROD ANTIPAS.

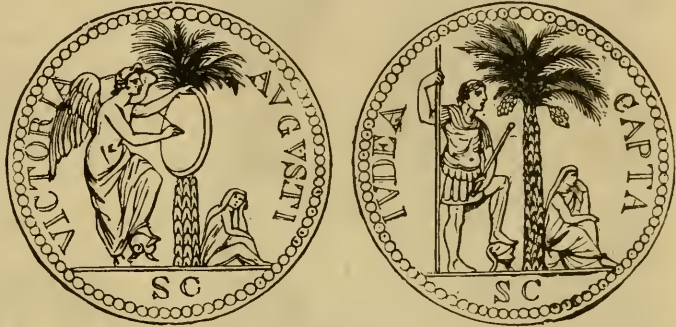
Emperor Hadrian, in order to prevent Jerusalem from being made a rallying point for the disaffected race of Israel, determined to restore the city, and occupy it with a strong garrison. This measure brought on a formidable insurrection of the Jews in Palestine, led by Bar Cocheba, or Cochbar, who claimed to be the Messiah. The war raged with great fury for three years, but at length resulted in favor of the Romans. Bar Cocheba was slain, and over half a million of Jews fell during the struggle. Hadrian caused the ruins of Jerusalem to be utterly destroyed, and on the site of the old capital built a new city, which he named *Ælia Capitolina*, A. D. 136. Christians and Pagans alone were allowed to reside in it; the Jews were rigidly excluded from it. In the fourth century they were permitted to enter the city once a year, and weep over it on the anniversary of its capture. Though treated with great severity, the Jews were permitted to dwell in other parts of Palestine. Their chief was known as the Patriarch of Tiberias, from the place of his residence. To him

was due the allegiance of all the Jews throughout the Roman dominions.

When Julian became emperor, paganism was restored as the religion of the empire. In the attempt to falsify the prophecies of the Saviour, he called upon the Jews to rebuild their Temple at Jerusalem. They flocked to the holy city from all quarters of the empire, and men, women and children engaged in the work of clearing away the ruins. Their task was suddenly interrupted by a fire which burst out from the Temple foundations in an unaccountable manner, and raged a whole day, driving away the workers, and consuming their tools. They were obliged to abandon the attempt, and the death of Julian, which occurred soon after, put a stop to the sacrilegious attempt.

When the Persians began to threaten the eastern possessions of the Roman Empire, the Jews of Palestine secretly encouraged them to invade that country. They eagerly welcomed the advance of the Persian monarch Chosroes II., who, in A. D. 610, invaded Palestine, rose unanimously, joined the Persians, and helped them to conquer Jerusalem, then a Christian city. Once in possession of the city, they massacred the Christian inhabitants, but were soon terribly punished by the victorious Emperor Heraclius, who not only drove the Persian monarch back to his own dominions, but recovered from

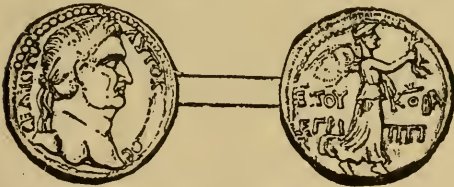
alternative of death to unbelievers. The Jews were amongst the first from whom he endeavored to make proselytes. Failing in his effort, he turned his arms against them, and conquered those cities of Arabia in which they were numerous and powerful. He intended to add Palestine to his conquests, but died before he could accomplish this task. Abubeker, his successor, began the invasion of Syria in A. D. 632. He overran the country east of the Jordan, and his generals defeated the Roman army sent to the assistance of Syria, and captured



COINS STRUCK BY THE EMPEROR VESPAIAN, 'COMMEMORATING THE CONQUEST OF JUDEA.

Damascus in A. D. 634. The whole of Syria now submitted to him. Palestine was next invaded, and the Roman army, assembled for its defence, was defeated at Yarmuk, in November, 636. Jerusalem was besieged, and surrendered to the Khâlif Omar, in A. D. 636. It was made the second holy city of the Mohammedans, and Omar built a superb mosque on the site of the Temple. All Palestine now passed under the Mohammedan sway.

The Mohammedan rule was fatal to Palestine. In A. D. 649 Damascus became the capital of the Mohammedan empire, and from that time Palestine, which, all through the Roman dominion and down to the period of the Moslem invasion, had been among the most prosperous and important of the Roman dependencies, began to decline. Islamism weighed the country down with the weight of a blighting curse, and each succeeding generation saw it sink lower and lower. Its cities fell into decay and ruins; its industry languished. Jerusalem is now an insignificant town; Cæsarea is but a heap of broken columns, over which the sand is drifting. The whole land bears terrible witness to the fatal results of Mohammedan rule. When the Moslem



COIN OF HEROD AGRIPPA II., WITH HEAD OF TITUS.

him the provinces of Egypt and Syria. The law of Hadrian was re-enacted, which prohibited the Jews from approaching within three miles of Jerusalem.

While this conflict was going on between the Roman and Persian sovereigns, a new and more terrible power was silently growing up in the desert. Mohammed had already proclaimed himself the Prophet of God, and announced his new faith with its

capital was transferred from Damascus to Bagdad, Palestine became an insignificant



SUBTERRANEAN FIRES DEFEAT JULIAN'S EFFORT TO REBUILD THE TEMPLE.

part of the province of Syria, and fared even worse than before.

About the middle of the tenth century Palestine was seized by the Fatimite dy-

nasty, which had recently occupied the Egyptian throne, and remained subject to it until the latter part of the eleventh century, when it passed under the sway of the Turks, who had overrun Asia Minor and wrested Syria and Palestine from the Fatimite rulers of Egypt.

The Turks treated the Christian inhabitants of Palestine with such brutal severity that the powers of Western Europe took up arms in their defence. Palestine was invaded by the Europeans, and a series of wars ensued which are known as the Crusades, the history of which will be related in another part of this work. The result of the first crusade was the capture of Jerusalem and the establishment of a Latin kingdom in Palestine, A. D. 1099. Godfrey of Bouillon was crowned King of Jerusalem; his kingdom consisted of the holy city and Jaffa, "with about twenty villages and towns in the adjacent country."

The Latin kingdom did not last long. The victories of Saladin, in the twelfth



COIN OF HEROD AGRIPPA II., WITH HEAD OF NERO.

century, having made him master of Egypt, Syria and Arabia, he bent all his efforts to the task of driving the Christians out of Palestine. A pretext for invading the Holy Land was soon given him, and he entered Palestine at the head of an army of 80,000 veteran warriors, defeated Guy of Lusignan, King of Jerusalem, at Mount Hattin, July 3d, 1187, inflicted upon him a loss of 30,000 men, and took him prisoner. Three months later he captured Jerusalem, marking his victory by the kindness and forbearance with which he treated the Christian inhabitants. He followed up this success by driving the Latins out of every city in Palestine, with the exception of a few along the coast.

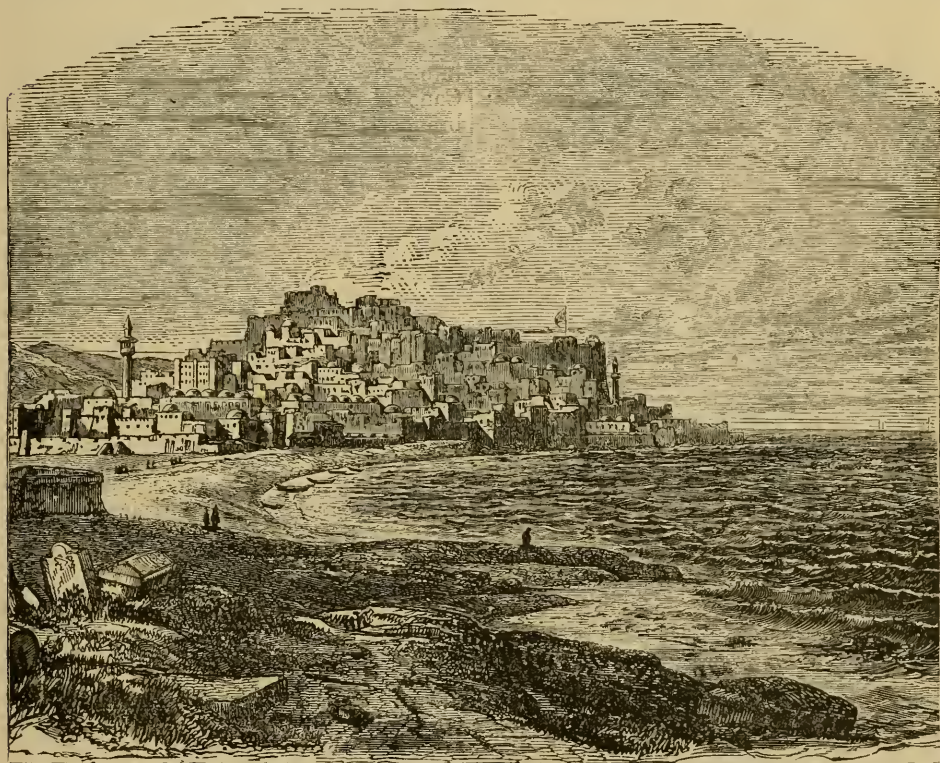
In 1228 the Emperor Frederic II. obtained the restitution of Jerusalem to the Christians by a treaty with the sultan. Bethlehem, Nazareth, Tyre and Sidon were also restored to them. In 1243 the Tartars, pressed back by the Moguls, overran Syria and Palestine, took Jerusalem by storm, massacred the entire Christian population, and profaned the Holy Sepulchre.

After the loss of Jerusalem, Acre, on the

Mediterranean, became the Christian capital of Palestine, and "was adorned with strong and stately buildings, with aqueducts, an artificial port, and a double wall." Its population was made up of representatives of every European nation. As Gibbon well says, "the city had many sovereigns and no government." A reign of corruption and anarchy ensued, almost without a parallel in history. The outrages of a portion of the inhabitants on the neighboring Mohammedan villages aroused the anger of Sultan Khalil, who marched

the Sultan Selim I., and since then has been a part of the Turkish Empire.

In 1831 Mohammed Ali, Pasha of Egypt, sent his son, Ibrahim Pasha, into Syria with an army of 38,000 men, under pretext of chastising the Pasha of Acre for an indignity offered him; but really for the purpose of conquering that country and bringing it under Egyptian rule. The conquest of Syria was rapidly effected, and Palestine shared its fate. The Egyptian ruler now resolved to extend his triumphs to the whole of the Turkish dominions, but the



JAFFA, OR JOPPA.

against Acre with an army of 200,000 men, and carried it by assault on the 18th of May, 1291, after a desperate siege of thirty-three days. Thus the last Christian possession in Palestine passed into the hands of the Moslems.

In A. D. 1400 Syria was overrun by Timour the Tartar, or Tamerlane, who burned Damascus; but his passage through the country does not appear to have affected the condition of Jerusalem, which remained in the hands of its Mohammedan masters. In 1517 Palestine yielded to the arms of

European powers intervened in May, 1833, and compelled Mohammed Ali to accept a treaty which secured to him the whole of Syria, the district of Adana, in Asia Minor, and the island of Candia or Crete, in the Mediterranean. This settlement continued in force until 1839, when the sultan renewed the war by despatching his fleet to bombard Alexandria, and invading Syria with an army of 80,000 men. The Turkish army was decisively defeated by Ibrahim Pasha at Nisib, on the 24th of June, 1839, and the fleet was treacherously surrendered

to the Egyptians without a battle. Turkey was on the point of being overwhelmed by the Egyptian forces, when the European powers again intervened. They compelled

Ali Pasha to accept a peace, by which he lost Syria and Palestine, and retained only Egypt. Since then Palestine has remained a part of the Turkish Empire.

BOOK II.

THE HISTORY OF EGYPT.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE FOUNDATION OF THE MONARCHY TO THE TWENTY-SECOND DYNASTY.

Description of Egypt—The Valley of the Nile—The Delta—The Overflow—Population of Ancient Egypt—The Character of the Egyptians—Religion of the Egyptians—The Gods of Egypt—Belief in a Future State—Embalming the Dead—Classes of Egyptians—The King—The Priests—Mode of Writing—The Laws of the Egyptians—Establishment of the Kingdom by Menes—Contemporary Dynasties—The Fourth Dynasty—Evidences of its Greatness—The Pyramids—Advance of Civilization during this Dynasty—Conquests—Growth of the Supremacy of Thebes—The Invasion of the Hyksos—Lower and Middle Egypt Overrun—The Twelfth Dynasty of Thebes—Its Greatness—Upper Egypt Conquered by the Hyksos—Destruction of the Monuments—Expulsion of the Hyksos from Egypt—The Eighteenth Dynasty—The Greatness of Egypt under the Nineteenth Dynasty—Rameses III.—Decay of the Monarchy—The Priest-Kings.

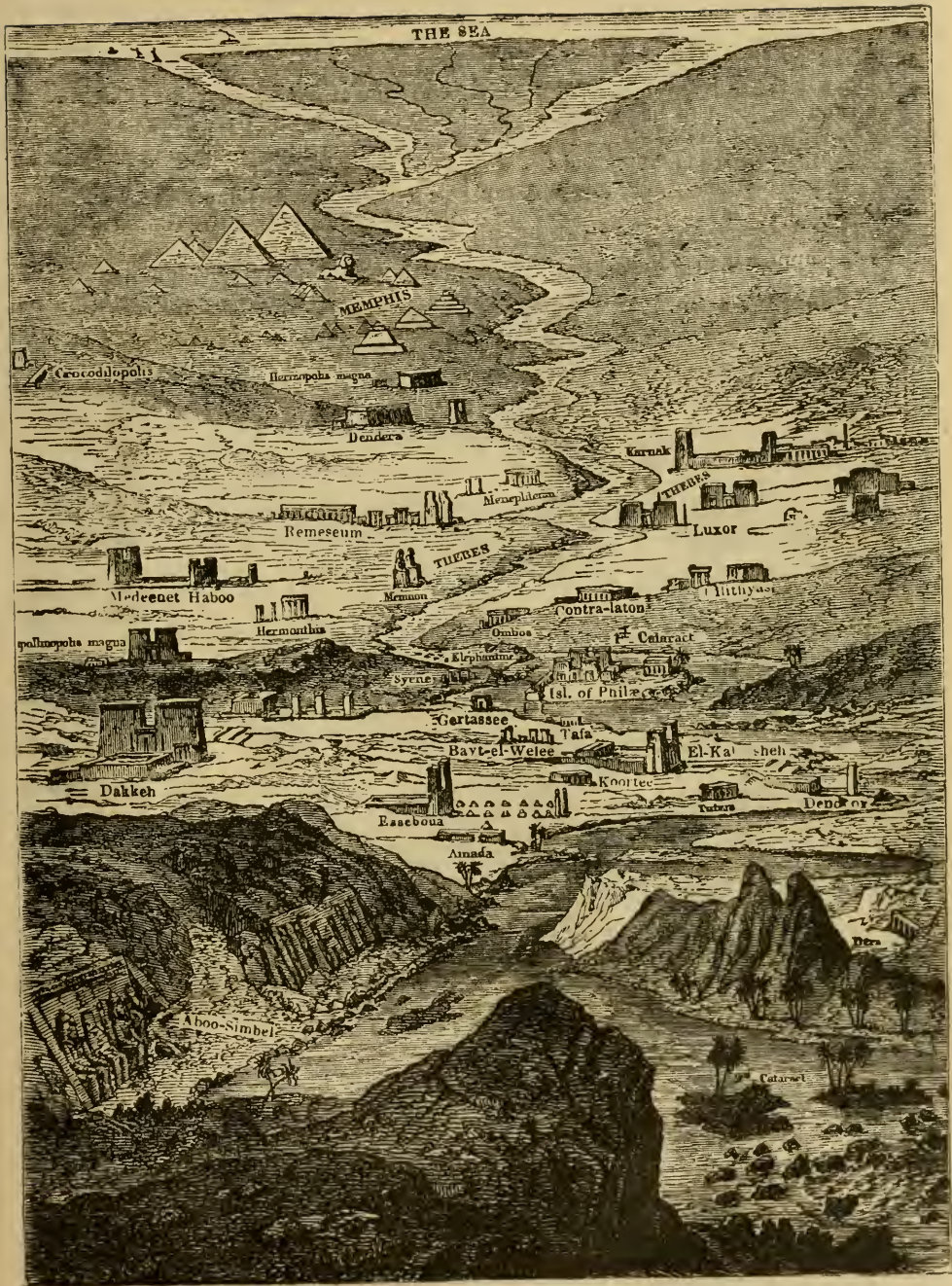
THE continent of Africa lies almost wholly within the tropics. It is the hottest and driest of the great divisions of the world. A large part of its surface being unfit for human habitation, it is unsuited to the growth or existence of great nations. Egypt and Carthage were the only African States which ever attained any importance in history. Both of these lay in the northern part of the continent, and within the limits of the northern temperate zone.

Egypt occupies the extreme eastern part of the African continent, from the Mediterranean on the north to latitude 24° on the south, and from the Red Sea on the east, to the Libyan, or Great Desert, on the west. The region known as Nubia lies south of Egypt. Through the centre of Egypt, from south to north, flows the Nile, its only river. The valley of the Nile constitutes the only fertile portion of the country, and is really Egypt, so that Herodotus was quite right when he said, "All Egypt

is the gift of the Nile." About ninety miles from the sea the river divides itself into three distinct channels, called the Canobic, the Sebennytic, and the Pelusaic branches, which enclose a fertile region known as the Delta, from its resemblance in shape to the fourth letter of the Greek alphabet. The average breadth of the Nile valley, from Cairo to the First Cataract, does not exceed fifteen miles. The land in this valley is of the best quality, and the Delta is one of the most fertile regions in the world. The richness of the soil is due to the annual overflow of the Nile, which begins in June and lasts until December. In ancient times the Delta was thickly studded with cities of note. The most important cities of the kingdom, however, lay within the narrow valley. These were, Memphis, just above the apex of the Delta, and Thebes, situated in about latitude 25° 31' N.

The population of ancient Egypt is known to have been at least five millions, and may have been greater. The country was originally peopled from Asia by a branch of the Hamitic race, the descendants of Mizraim. The general character of the Egyptians was mild; their manners were polished; and they were naturally obedient and religious. They were cleanly in their habits and food, and consequently healthy.

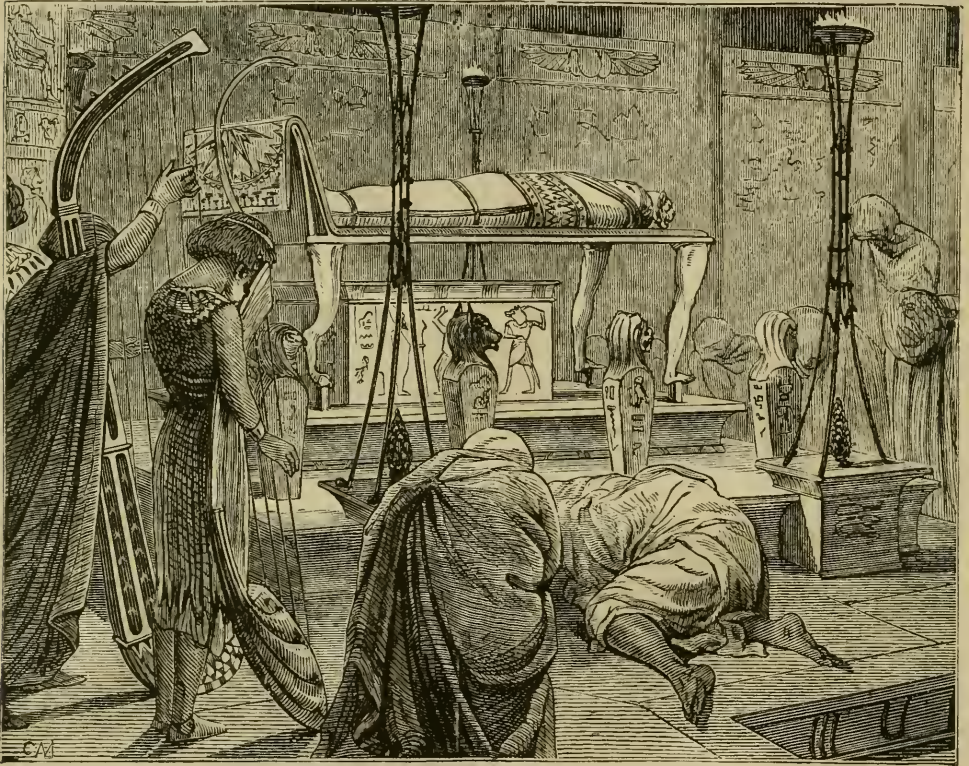
The religion of the ancient Egyptians was an exceedingly complicated, and in many respects a revolting system, at the base of which, however, they held to a grand faith. They regarded God as one, unrepresented, indivisible. This was the fundamental doctrine of their faith. They held that the deity manifested himself in different forms, each representing his attributes. For each and all of these attributes he possessed a name, which to the priests and the educated were but the



A BIRD'S EYE VIEW OF EGYPT.

manifestations of one God. To the people they became so many separate divinities. The priests kept their religion concealed from the common people, whom they regarded as too ignorant to understand it, and suffered the growth of the polytheism which came in time to be regarded, especially by strangers, as the national religion. The people recognized eight gods of the first order; twelve of the second; and seven of the third. The sun and the moon were worshipped. Some portion of the divine life was supposed to reside in animals.

was embalmed. It must not be supposed that every animal of each species was sacred. A few only were set apart, maintained at the expense of the state, and served by persons of the highest rank. The educated regarded these animals as only the representatives of their deities; to the common people they were real gods. The same animals were not held sacred in all parts of the kingdom. The worship of the hippopotamus was confined to the Papremis nome. The inhabitants of Thebes worshipped the crocodile, but in the other



EMBALMING THE BODY OF AN EGYPTIAN KING.

Hence arose the system of animal worship which appeared so strange and ludicrous to the Greeks and Romans. "The god was represented under the figure of the animal, or more often by that strange conjunction, peculiar to Egypt, of the head of the animal with a human body." The bull, the cow, the ram, the cat, the ape, the crocodile, hippopotamus, hawk, ibis, scarabæus, were each worshipped. Each of the sacred animals was kept and carefully tended during its life in the temple of the god to whom it was sacred. Upon its death its body

provinces it was hunted as a dangerous animal.

The chief god of Egypt was Amen-Ra (Amen, the sun). With him were associated Maut, the divine mother; and Chons, the son of Amen. Amen was regarded as the father of all the gods. The ritual distinctly says, "Amen-Ra is the creator of his members; they become the other gods who are associated with him." "But of all the triads," says Lenormant, "the one most closely related to humanity in external form and worship, although the conception was

one of the most exalted, was that of Osiris, Isis, and Horus, who were objects of universal worship in all parts of Egypt. They were said to be the issue of the god Set, the personification of the earth, and of the goddess Nut, the vault of heaven. Osiris, said the tradition, had manifested himself to men, and had reigned in Egypt." Osiris was believed to have been slain in a contest with Set. He at length raised himself by his own power, and with the aid of his son, Horus, triumphed over Set. From that moment Osiris became the ruler of the future world, and the rewarder of good and punisher of evil.

The Egyptians believed in a future state, in which the rewards and punishments were the consequences of the acts of the individual in this life. The souls of the

to the solemn tribunal of the gods, on which were seated Osiris and forty-two other gods. The soul was placed in one of the scales of a balance, held by Horus and Anubis, and weighed against the image of justice. The result was recorded by the god Thoth, and settled irrevocably the fate of the soul. If found guilty of inexcusable faults, the soul was doomed to punishment and annihilation. If found perfect and just, it was required to pass through many trials to atone for the faults which were inseparable from its nature in life. In these trials it was sustained by the aid of Osiris, through whose power it was finally to be raised in the general resurrection.

The belief in a future state gave rise to the practice of embalming the dead. The



EGYPTIAN PRIESTS WEARING LINEN DRESSES AND LEOPARD SKINS.

wicked were condemned to return to earth, and after undergoing every form of torture, were obliged to inhabit the bodies of the lower animals for a certain period, when they were annihilated. Death put an end to all distinctions that had prevailed in life. The king and the slave were subject to the same rule. Before his body could be buried with his fathers, the record of his life had to be submitted to a tribunal of forty-two judges. If found worthy of burial, the body was carried across the sacred lake, of which each nome or province had one, and was buried. If unworthy of such honor, the body was returned to the friends of the deceased, and buried usually on the side of the lake opposite the resting place of the just. The body thus disposed of, the soul entered upon a long and trying journey, during which it was engaged in prayers and confessions. This journey led

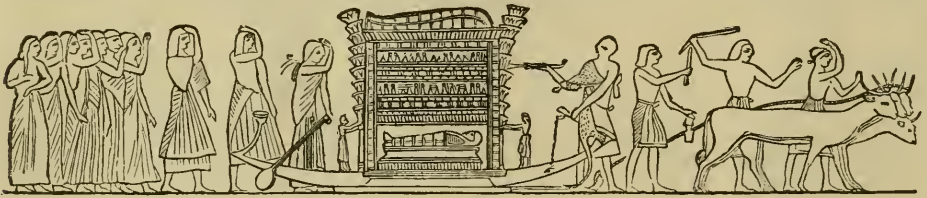
mummy was carefully guarded from injury in order that the soul, upon its return to the body at the end of all things, might find its former habitation fit for its reception.

The Egyptians were divided into classes or ranks, distinguished by occupations. Modern writers generally reckon three classes, viz. : priests, soldiers, and husbandmen ; the last being subdivided into gardeners, boatmen, artisans of all kinds, and shepherds. The king was the head of both the religious and political systems. His title was Phrah (called Pharaoh in the Bible), signifying the sun. He was the representative of the deity, and his person was sacred. He presided over the sacrifice and poured out libations to the gods. He was governed in every act, almost in his thoughts, by the minute requirements of the sacred books, all of which were de-

signed to make him worthy of his high station. At his death his embalmed body was placed in view of the people, the meanest of whom was free to bring and sustain a charge of unworthiness against him. If the accusation was proved, the body of the king was excluded from burial with his ancestors.

The priestly class ranked next to the king. They were governed by severe rules, which bound them to temperance and cleanliness. They were the masters of all the learning of the Egyptians, and had charge of the secular education as well as the religious training of the sovereign. Their power over the people was absolute, and was heightened by their proficiency in the physical sciences, which enabled them to arouse the superstitious fears of the masses by their skilful optical delusions. They claimed authority to admit men to or exclude them from the unseen world. They were, from very ancient times, the physicians of the eastern world, the prac-

has said that "Egypt was the source of all good government." Perjury was regarded as the greatest of crimes—an offence against the gods and men—and was punished with death. To see a man struggling for his life with an assassin, and to fail to assist him, was also a capital crime. Should the witness be unable to render assistance, he was bound to denounce the assailant to the lawful authorities. A person bringing a false accusation against another was punished as a calumniator. Every Egyptian was bound to deposit with the authorities a written statement of his means of subsistence; he who made a false declaration, or pursued an illegal calling, was put to death. Wilful murder was punished by the death of the offender. A pregnant woman could not be executed until after the birth of her child. A judge who condemned an innocent person to death was guilty of murder, and was punished accordingly. The soldier who deserted his ranks, or disobeyed his orders, was punished with infamy, not with



ANCIENT EGYPTIAN FUNERAL PROCESSION.

tice of embalming the dead enabling them to study the effects of the various diseases upon the human system. Their knowledge was crude, but superior to that of other nations of the time. The Nile valley furnished them with an unlimited supply of medicines.

The military class ranked next to the priests and enjoyed many privileges, among which was exemption from taxation. When not on duty, the troops were allowed to remain on and cultivate their own lands.

The mode of writing practised by the Egyptians consisted of a series of ideographic signs and symbols, which the Greeks termed hieroglyphics, or "sacred sculpture." Neither the Greeks nor Romans ever learned to decipher these signs. Modern scholars have succeeded by their researches in finding the key to them, and they are now easily read.

The laws of Egypt were remarkable, and afford an indisputable evidence of the high civilization enjoyed by the people. Bossuet

death; but could by any subsequent gallant conduct regain his lost honor. Making counterfeit money, false weights, scales, or measures, falsifying public records, or forging documents were crimes punishable with the loss of both hands. A man found guilty of offering violence to a free woman was condemned to mutilation. Adultery was punished, in a man, by a thousand blows with a stick; in a woman, by the loss of her nose. The property of a man could be seized for debt, but not his person; and the debt was null if the debtor swore that he owed nothing to a creditor who was without a bond. The interest was never allowed to amount to more than the principal.

The known history of Egypt extends back to a very remote period. Modern writers differ as to the full measure of its antiquity. One school—the French—with M. Mariette at its head, fix the establishment of the monarchy at about 5000 B. C. Other writers, such as Bunsen, place this event about B. C. 3906. The English

Egyptologists regard B. C. 2700 as the period of the establishment of the monarchy. This last view is accepted here, and forms the basis of this narrative.

Egypt was originally divided into a number of nomes or petty states, independent of each other. The stronger gradually absorbed the weaker. This process of consolidation finally resulted in the establishment of the kingdom named in history. In B. C. 2700 Menes established the first kingdom at This, in upper Egypt, and founded the First Dynasty mentioned by Manetho. He conquered and improved lower Egypt, and built Memphis. There were six kings of this dynasty.

The Third Dynasty reigned at Memphis, and its nine kings were contemporary with those of the First, after Menes. The first of these kings, Necherophes, is said to have conquered Libya, and the last Sephuris is believed to have subdued the tribes of the Sinai Peninsula.

The Second, Fourth and Fifth Dynasties reigned simultaneously; the Second at This, in middle Egypt; the Fourth at Memphis, in lower Egypt; and the Fifth at Elephantine, in upper Egypt. Of these the Memphite Dynasty was the most powerful. It is possible that the kings of the Second and Fifth Dynasties were connected with those of the Fourth by blood, and held their respective crowns by permission of the Memphite sovereigns.

The Fourth Dynasty was established at Memphis about B. C. 2440. It consisted of eight kings, and has left proof of its greatness in the immense structures of stone with which it covered middle Egypt, between the Libyan Mountains and the Nile, the chief

of which were the Pyramids. The founder of the dynasty was Soris (Shuré), who built the northern Pyramid of Abousir, on the blocks of which his name has been found. The second king was Suphis I. (Shufu), the Cheops of Herodotus. He built the "Great Pyramid." He was assisted in this work by Suphis II. (Non-Shufu), who reigned conjointly with him, and survived him three years. These two kings oppressed the people very greatly and despised the gods. They compelled the people to undergo the severest labors in



SCENE ON THE NILE.

their public works, closed the temples, and put a stop to the worship of the gods. Herodotus says that the construction of the "Great Pyramid" consumed thirty years, and required the labor of 100,000 men, who were relieved every three months. The king intended it for his tomb. The great Sphinx, at Gizeh, is also attributed by some writers to this reign. Mencheres, the fourth king, was perhaps the son of Suphis I. He built the "Third Pyramid," which contained his sarcophagus. The fifth king was Ratoises; the sixth Bicheris; the seventh Sebercheres; and the eighth was

Thamphthis. The dynasty extended through a period of 221 years.

During the existence of the Fourth Dynasty, Egypt exhibited a civilization of a very advanced character. The quarrying, transportation, raising, and putting in place the huge blocks of stone of which the pyramids are constructed show a high degree of mechanical science. Each pyramid is located so as to face exactly the cardinal points of the compass, to accomplish which required considerable mathematical knowledge. The monuments show that writing had acquired a degree of perfection which indicates long use. "The reed pen and the inkstand are among the hieroglyphics employed, and the scribe appears pen in hand in the paintings on the tombs, making notes

Maghârah and Sarabit el Khadîm, Professor Palmer, of the British Sinai Survey (A. D. 1868-69), found inscriptions extending from the Third to the Eighteenth and Twentieth dynasties, showing that for long ages these mines were a constant source of revenue to Egypt.

The Fourth Dynasty was succeeded at Memphis by the Sixth Dynasty about B. C. 2220. The Second Dynasty continued to reign at This or Abydos, and the Fifth at Elephantine. Two new dynasties—the Ninth and Eleventh—arose at Heracleopolis and Thebes, and Egypt was divided into five kingdoms. Memphis lost its pre-eminence, and Thebes slowly became the most powerful. Thus weakened and divided, the country became the prey of the nomad



THE PYRAMIDS OF EGYPT.

on linen or papyrus. The drawing of human and animal figures is fully equal, if not superior, to that of later times, and the trades represented are nearly the same as are found under the Ramesseid kings. Altogether it is apparent that the Egyptians of the Pyramid period were not just emerging out of barbarism, but were a people who had made very considerable progress in the arts of life." The country was divided into nomes or provinces, each of which had its governor. The priestly and military classes were distinct, and were charged with about the same duties as in later times. Soris, the first king of the dynasty, took possession of the Peninsula of Sinai, and established there colonies of Egyptians for the purpose of working the copper and turquoise mines of that region. In Wady

tribes of Syria and Arabia, which invaded Egypt by the Isthmus of Suez about B. C. 2080, or perhaps a little later. These were the Hyksos or Shepherd kings. They succeeded in conquering Egypt from the sea to latitude $29^{\circ} 30' N.$ They carried on their conquest in the cruellest manner; they burned the cities, razed the temples to the ground, slew the male inhabitants, and made slaves of the women and children. Their power was thus established over lower and a part of middle Egypt. They founded two dynasties, which there is reason to believe were contemporary. One of these—the Fifteenth—reigned at Memphis; the other—the Sixteenth—either in the Delta or at Avaris. The remainder of Egypt continued in the hands of native dynasties. The Ninth, reigning at Heracleopolis, held

the Faioom and the Nile valley as far to the south as Hermopolis; the Fifth continued to hold upper Egypt, reigning at Elephantine. A new kingdom sprang up at Xoïs, in the Delta, in the very heart of the conquests of the Hyksos, under the Fourteenth Dynasty, and maintained its inde-

pendence during the whole period of the Shepherds' ascendancy. Under the vigorous rule of the Twelfth Dynasty Thebes increased rapidly in power and prosperity. This dynasty included six kings and one queen, who was the last of her line. Their combined reigns covered a

period of 160 years. During their rule the dynasties of Heracleopolis and Elephantine, though continuing to govern, became dependent upon Thebes. Their power also extended over Heliopolis, below Memphis; and they held the Peninsula of Sinai, and made war against the Arabians and Ethio-



FRONT OF THE ROCK TEMPLE OF IBSAMBUL, EGYPT.

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Under the vigorous rule of the Twelfth Dynasty Thebes increased rapidly in power and prosperity. This dynasty included six kings and one queen, who was the last of her line. Their combined reigns covered a

pians. Amun-m-he III. (the Maris, or Lœmaris, of Manetho, and the Mœris of Herodotus) built the Labyrinth in the Faioom. This superb and gigantic temple contained 3,000 rooms, 1,500 of which were underground, and was the receptacle of the mummies of kings and of the sacred croco-

diles. Herodotus says: "The roof was throughout of stone like the walls, and the walls were carved all over with figures. Every court was surrounded with a colonnade, which was built of white stones exquisitely fitted together." The same king constructed Lake Mœris, also in the Faioom. Sesortasen I. erected numerous temples and an obelisk. Architecture and the arts flourished; canals were constructed for the purposes of irrigation, and upper Egypt seemed to increase in power and prosperity in proportion to the oppression and degradation of the lower country under the rude Hyksos.

The Thirteenth (Theban) Dynasty lost all that the Twelfth had won. They were attacked by the Shepherd kings, driven from their kingdoms and forced to take

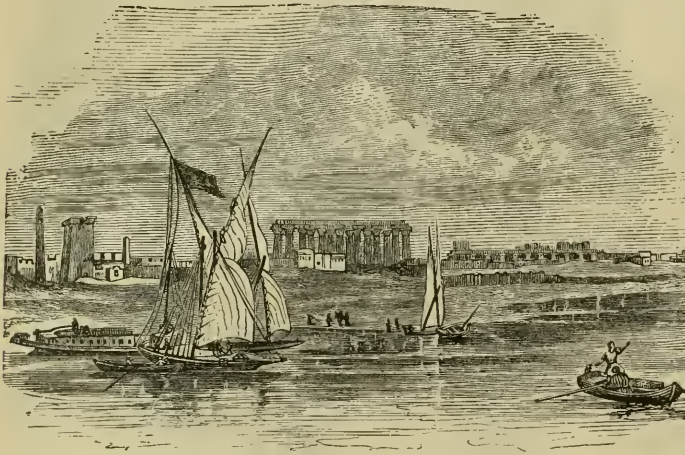
It is believed that Joseph and the family of Jacob came into Egypt during the reign of one of the kings of the Seventeenth Dynasty.

The Eighteenth Dynasty began to reign at Thebes about B. C. 1525. Its founder was Amosis, or Ames or Aahmes. Thebes had now regained her power, and under Amosis the Shepherd kings were driven out of Egypt, across the isthmus into Asia. The country, thus released from its foreign oppressors, became a single centralized monarchy, with Thebes as its capital. Egypt now entered on the most flourishing period of its history, which continued through the reigns of this and the Nineteenth and Twentieth Dynasties. During this period Egyptian art attained its highest perfection. Thebes reached the height

of its splendor. Its great temple-palaces and obelisks belong to this period. Aggressive wars marked these reigns, and the conquering arms of Egypt were carried into Ethiopia, Arabia, Syria, and even beyond the Euphrates.

The first king of the Eighteenth Dynasty was Amosis. He reigned twenty-six years. His successor was Amunoph I., who married the widow of Amosis, and reigned twenty-one years. She was a Theban princess of Ethiopian blood,

and is called "the good, glorious woman." Thothmes I. was the third king. He won great victories over the Ethiopians, and reduced the Canaanites of Palestine—most likely the Philistine inhabitants of the great maritime plain—to submission. He even carried his conquests across the Euphrates into Mesopotamia. He reigned twenty-one years, and after his death his daughter Amen-set (Amensis) became regent for his infant sons. She reigned seventeen years. To her reign belong the two gigantic obelisks, one of which still stands among the ruins of Karnak. Her reign was brilliant and successful, and terminated with her life. She was succeeded by her brother, Thothmes III., who had been of age for some years, Thothmes II. having died during his infancy. He reigned for upwards of forty



RUINS OF THEBES—UPPER EGYPT.

refuge in Ethiopia. The Hyksos then occupied upper Egypt, and destroyed the monuments of the Twelfth Dynasty. Thus their authority was supreme over all Egypt about B. C. 1900. It lasted until about B. C. 1525. The Theban monarchs most likely returned to their own country, and regained their crowns as the tributaries of the Hyksos. The other native kingdoms appear to have existed on the same conditions. The Seventh and Eighth Dynasties of Memphis, the Tenth of Heracleopolis, and the Seventeenth Shepherd Dynasty belong to this period, which is the darkest part of Egyptian history. The Hyksos destroyed the monuments of their predecessors and left none of their own, so that we have no record of their history. For nearly 300 years the names of their kings are unknown to us.

years, and carried on wars in Ethiopia, Arabia, Syria, and western Mesopotamia. He built magnificent palaces and temples at Thebes, Karnak, Memphis, Heliopolis, Coptos, and other places. Amunoph II.,



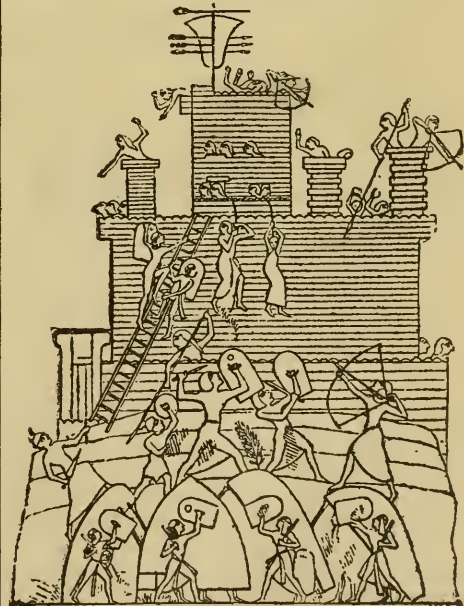
CHARIOT-HORSE OF RAMESSES III.

his son, the sixth king, was associated with him shortly before his death, and succeeded him. Amunoph's reign was short and uneventful. He was succeeded by his son Thothmes IV., who is believed by some writers to have caused the construction of the great Sphinx near the Pyramids. Amunoph III., his son and successor, came to the throne about B. C. 1400. He was one of the greatest monarchs of the dynasty. He conducted successful wars against the Libyans and Ethiopians. He was also a great builder. The two great Colossi, one of which is known as "the Vocal Memnon," belong to his reign. He also caused the construction of tanks or reservoirs throughout the kingdom for the retention of water for irrigation. His reign lasted for about thirty-six years, and was marked by great internal troubles caused by his unsuccessful efforts to change the religion of the nation. His son Horus, his lawful heir, succeeded him, but his claims were disputed by pretenders who are thought to have been his brothers and sisters, and for thirty years the country was in an unsettled and disturbed state. Horus ultimately triumphed, and reigned seven years longer, when he died. He was succeeded by Resitot (Rathotis), whose relationship to him is uncertain, and with whom the dynasty ended in B. C. 1324.

In the same year the Nineteenth Dynasty was founded by Rameses I., who was de-

scended from the first two kings of the Eighteenth Dynasty, but not through any of the later kings. He reigned less than two years, and was succeeded by his son Seti (the Sesostris of the Greeks), a great and warlike monarch, who conquered Syria, which had revolted after the death of Amunoph III., and carried his victorious arms to the borders of Cilicia and the Euphrates. He built the great hall of Karnak, and constructed for himself the most beautiful of the royal tombs. For a number of years his son, Rameses II., called the Great, was associated with him in the government, and after the death of Seti he became sole king (about B. C. 1311).

Rameses reigned sixty-six years, and the events of his life are so mixed up with fable that it is hard to separate fact from legend. He conquered Libya and Arabia during his father's lifetime, and upon becoming sole king subdued Ethiopia. He built a canal from the Nile above Bubastis to the Red Sea, and maintained a fleet which some writers estimate at 400 vessels in that sea. The legend attributes to him the invasion of Asia at the head of a vast army, and the conquest of that continent as far as the



EGYPTIANS ATTACKING A FORT ON A ROCK.

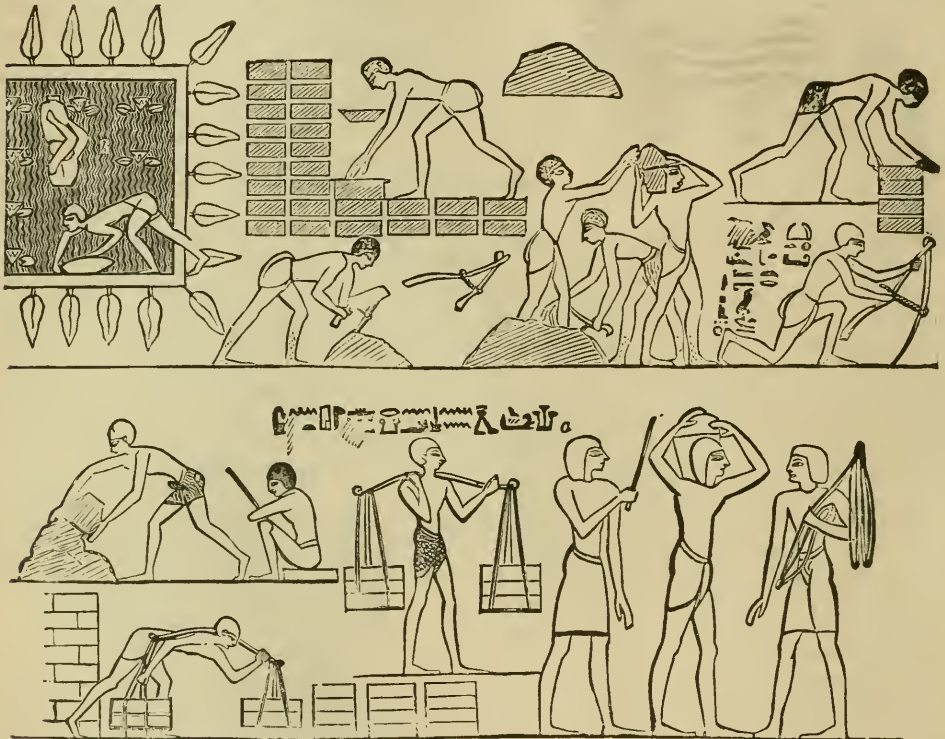
Ganges, but it would seem that his Asiatic wars were confined to quelling the revolts in the provinces already held by Egypt, and he added no new territory to the kingdom. His steles are still to be seen on the

rocks at Adlân near Tyre, and at Nahr el Kelb (Dog River), near Beyrout in Syria. He built the Ramesseum (Memnonium) at Thebes; and in his reign Egyptian art reached its highest point. He was succeeded by his son Amenephtes (Menephtah, or Merenphtah) who, according to some systems of chronology, was the Pharaoh of the Exodus. The length of his reign is uncertain. His successor was his son Sethos II. (Seti), with whom the dynasty terminated about B. C. 1219.

The Twentieth Dynasty was established

VIII. followed them, breaking the general monotony of the Egyptian history of this period by some successful wars. Six or seven other kings followed him, all bearing the same name, and nearly all had short and uneventful reigns. The dynasty appears to have ended about B. C. 1085.

The highest pitch of Egyptian greatness was reached under the Nineteenth Dynasty. Under the Twentieth the military power and the internal strength and prosperity of the empire declined rapidly. One by one its conquests were torn from it in Asia and



FOREIGN CAPTIVES EMPLOYED IN MAKING BRICKS AT THEBES.

by Rameses III. He was a great builder and a great conqueror. He erected the palace at Medinet Abu at Thebes, every pylon, every gate, every chamber of which gives us an account of his exploits. He defeated an invasion of the Libyans aided by the Tokari, the people from the islands or northern shores of the Mediterranean, and appears to have fought a naval battle with the fleet of the latter. He also conducted a successful campaign in Asia, advancing as far as Western Mesopotamia. He had four sons, all named Rameses, who came to the throne successively. Rameses

in the country to the south of its natural limits. "From its prolonged contact with Asiatics, Egypt had lost that unity essential to its power. Semitic words had been admitted to the language; foreign gods had invaded the sanctuaries previously inaccessible." During this period of general decline, another cause of weakness appeared. "The high priests of Amen, at Thebes, with whom that dignity was hereditary, attempted to play the part taken in later times by the mayors of the palace under the Merovingian Kings of France; they possessed themselves successively of all the supreme

functions, civil and military, gradually undermined the royal authority, and aspired to dethrone the legitimate king. Egypt thus paid the penalty of the ambition of the conquerors of the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Dynasties. The process of internal decay was rapidly sapping the prosperity of the nation during the existence of the Twentieth Dynasty. The overwhelming predominance acquired by the priestly class, whose influence pervaded all ranks, from the highest to the lowest, was fatal to thought and progress of all kinds.

dynasty, the Twenty-first began its reign at Tanis (Zoan) in the Delta. They styled themselves "High Priests of Amen," and wore the priestly dress. Their rule was acknowledged in upper as well as in middle and lower Egypt, but their power was not established without a struggle.

The reign of the Twenty-first Dynasty extended through seven kings. This period was one of mental and political insignificance. Ethiopia revolted and became independent of Egypt; and all the Asiatic conquests were lost. The strong kingdom of Israel was formed by David out of territory which had once been subject to Egypt. One of the Tanite kings, probably Amenephtes, or Osochor, gave his daughter in marriage to Solomon—an evidence that the dynasty had abandoned all hope of reasserting its ancient power in Asia. At the same time Assyria, the great rival of Egypt, was rapidly growing into a powerful empire beyond the Euphrates.



EGYPTIAN MUMMIES.

The people were held sternly to the old forms of religion, architecture languished, no new buildings were erected, art neglected the study of nature, and confined itself to the slavish imitation of old models. The object of the priestly party was to maintain all things at a certain set level, fixed and immutable. Hence, when the limit of progress had thus been fixed, decay set in. The later monarchs of the Twentieth Dynasty were little more than puppets in the hands of the priests.

About B. C. 1085, at the close of that

CHAPTER II.

FROM THE TWENTY-SECOND DYNASTY TO THE END OF THE PERSIAN DOMINION.

The Twenty-second Dynasty—Revival of the Monarchy—Bubastis the Capital—The Twenty-third Dynasty Remove the Capital to Sais—Egypt and Assyria at War—Battle of Raphia—Sargon Subdues the Delta—Egypt Throws Off the Assyrian Supremacy, but is Again Subdued—Decline of the National Spirit—Psammetichus I. Re-establishes the Independence of Egypt—Defection of the Military Class—Nechoh Makes War Upon Babylon, but is Defeated by Nebuchadnezzar—Growth of Egyptian Commerce—Egypt Conquered by Babylon—Amasis Re-establishes the Independence of his Kingdom—His Conquests—Egypt Conquered by Cambyses—His Cruelties—Egypt a Persian Province—Rebels Against Persia—Ochus Punishes the Rebels.

THE Twenty-first Dynasty ended with Psusennes II. (Pisham II.), B. C. 993. It was succeeded by the Twenty-second Dynasty, founded by Sheshonk I., the son-in-law of Pisham II. By some writers this king is regarded as the grandson of Pisham II., adopted by him as his heir. Though he styled himself High Priest of Amen, he was in no sense an ecclesiastic. He established his capital at Bubastis, in the Delta. Here he gave asylum to Jeroboam, who had fled from Solomon, King of Israel, upon the discovery of his plot to divide the Hebrew monarchy. Under Sheshonk the Egyptian monarchy experi-

enced a temporary revival. He restored to it its military character, and made Egypt once more a formidable state. When Jero-boam established the new kingdom of Israel, Sheshonk, in alliance with him, invaded Judah, captured its cities, plundered the temple at Jerusalem, and made Judah tributary to him. He died in B. c. 972, and was succeeded by his son Osorkon I., whose uneventful reign covered a period of fifteen years. His successor was his son Pehor, B. c. 957. The remaining kings of this dynasty were insignificant personages. The Twenty-second Dynasty came to an end in B. c. 847. It was succeeded by the Twenty-third Dynasty, which consisted of four kings, none of whom were persons of note.

The period of the Twenty-third Dynasty was passed by Egypt in contentions and

established over the Delta, and the Ethiopians were confined to the limits of upper Egypt. Sabaco II. came to the throne about B. c. 704. It would seem that the Assyrians placed the Delta under the rule of petty kings, tributary to them. Their policy was always to weaken Egypt by dividing it as much as possible.

Sabaco II. continued on the throne until B. c. 690, when he was succeeded by the greatest of the Ethiopian monarchs of Egypt. This was Tehrak, called Tirhakah in the Bible, and Tarchus, Tarachus, or Tearchon, by the Greeks. About B. c. 669 Esarhaddon, King of Assyria, invaded Egypt, and conquered the country as far as the First Cataract. He divided Egypt into twenty small kingdoms tributary to Assyria. The next year, profiting by the fatal illness of Esarhaddon, Tirhakah re-



VARIOUS FORMS OF EGYPTIAN HARPS.

revolutions. The country was divided between various families, and was full of civil discords. Nor did this state of affairs cease when the Twenty-fourth Dynasty came to the throne, B. c. 758. This dynasty consisted of a single monarch, called by Manetho and Diodorus, Bocchoris. He removed the capital to Sais, another city of the Delta. In B. c. 730 his reign and life were cut short by Sabaco, an Ethiopian, who conquered Egypt at the head of a powerful army of his countrymen, and established the Twenty-fifth Dynasty. Sabaco I. is known in the Scriptures as So, or Seveh. He made an alliance with Hoshea, King of Israel, who had revolted from Assyria, and this drew upon him the enmity of the masters of Asia. He was defeated by Sargon in the battle of Raphia, B. c. 718. The Assyrian supremacy was

conquered the whole valley of the Nile, being everywhere assisted by the priests of the god Amen as the restorer of the national religion. He drove the kings of the Delta out of their cities, and re-established his authority over that district. In the meantime Asshur-bani-pal, who had succeeded his father as King of Assyria, entered Egypt with a strong army to restore his authority. For two years Tirhakah made a vigorous resistance, but was at length decisively defeated and obliged to retreat beyond the Cataracts, leaving all Egypt once more in possession of the Assyrians. The country was again divided into petty kingdoms, tributary to Assyria, and remained so for many years. A disastrous practice had been maintained since the time of the Twenty-second Dynasty of employing foreign mercenaries in the Egyptian army. These

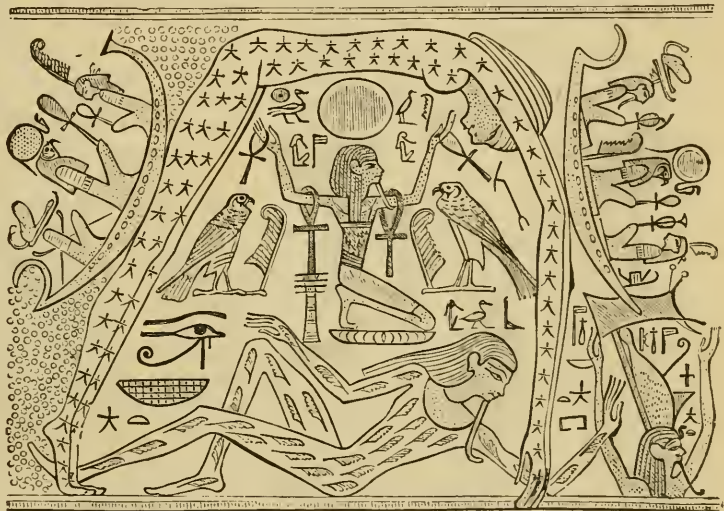
troops cared little under what master they served, and the army was thus deprived of the stimulus of patriotism, and was rendered unfit to resist the Assyrians. In addition to this, the national spirit had declined so greatly that the foreign yoke was less bitter than it would have been a century or two earlier. These causes rendered it easy for the Assyrians to maintain their supremacy in Egypt.

Among the viceroys established by the Assyrians over the petty kingdoms was one named Nechoh. He was either succeeded by his son, or he associated that son with him almost immediately after his appointment by Asshur-bani-pal. This son was Psammetichus I. For several years he was one of the petty rulers of Egypt, but, at length, taking advantage of the growing weakness of the Assyrian empire, he threw off his allegiance to that power, about B. C. 632, and after putting down the opposition of the other viceroys, made himself master of all Egypt, and ascended the throne as the first king of the Twenty-sixth Dynasty. Thus Egypt passed once more under the sway of its native kings after nearly a century of foreign domination.

In order to conciliate the Ethiopian party Psammetichus married the daughter and heiress of the King of Thebes, whom he had dethroned, and so secured the undivided adhesion of upper Egypt, where the Ethiopians were still popular. He was a wise and liberal ruler, and under him the arts and sciences received new life. He constructed many great works in the kingdom. He continued the practice of using foreign troops, and by his employment of Greek mercenaries so offended the warrior class of Egypt that large numbers of them deserted to Ethiopia. The number of warriors concerned in this defection is placed at 200,000. Psammetichus entreated them to return, but they preferred to remain in Ethiopia. He undertook the conquest of Palestine and Syria,

but was arrested at the outset by the Philistine city of Ashdod, which resisted him, and endured a siege of twenty-nine years before it succumbed. Psammetichus was also a patron of commerce, and did much to encourage friendly intercourse between Egypt and foreign nations. He was succeeded by his son Nechoh, about B. C. 610.

By this time the Assyrian monarchy had fallen, and the powerful empire of Babylon had arisen, under Nebuchadnezzar I. A contest between this monarchy and Egypt for the control of the world was inevitable. It soon came. Nechoh continuing the war begun by his father, overran Philistia, defeated Josiah, King of Judah, at Megiddo, and made himself master of Syria as far as



EGYPTIAN SYMBOLS OF THE HEAVENS AND THE EARTH.

the Euphrates, reducing the kingdom of Judah to the position of a tributary. Advancing to Carchemish, or Ciresium, on the banks of the Euphrates, he encountered the Babylonian army under Nebuchadnezzar, and was utterly routed, and obliged to retire to Egypt, B. C. 604. He lost all his Asian conquests, and was compelled to confine himself to his own kingdom. During his reign Egyptian commerce was largely augmented. So greatly had the number of foreigners increased in Egypt that a new class of interpreters sprang up. Through the medium of these, intercourse with foreign nations was greatly facilitated. The king undertook to reopen the ancient canal from the Nile to the Red Sea, which had been constructed, as we have seen, by Rameses II., but abandoned the attempt on

account of the oracle which warned him that he was working for the barbarian. He caused a vessel, manned by Phœnician sailors, to make the circuit of the African continent by sea. They started from the head of the Red Sea, and returned by the Pillars of Hercules (Straits of Gibraltar) and the Mediterranean. The voyage extended over three years, but was barren of commercial results, and was soon forgotten.

Nechoh was succeeded on the Egyptian throne by his son Psammis, or Psamatik II., B. C. 594, whose unimportant reign of six years witnessed an expedition to Ethiopia. He was succeeded, B. C. 588, by his son Uaphris, the Apries of Herodotus and the Pharaoh Hophra of the Bible,



EGYPTIAN STANDARDS.

whose reign covered a period of nineteen years. He resumed the aggressive policy of his grandfather, besieged Sidon and fought a naval battle with Tyre, but did not succeed in becoming master of Phœnicia. He endeavored to assist Zedekiah in the revolt against Babylon, but was driven back into his own country by Nebuchadnezzar. He also undertook an unsuccessful expedition against Cyrêné. Nebuchadnezzar, about B. C. 581, invaded Egypt and won some trifling successes. He again invaded the kingdom in B. C. 570, compelled its submission, and placed on the throne a new king named Amasis, as a tributary to Babylon, B. C. 569. Amasis reigned forty-four years, holding his crown at first as a dependent of Babylon. He

added to his influence in the kingdom by marrying a daughter of Nitocris, the sister of his predecessor. Under the weaker successes of Nebuchadnezzar, he threw off his allegiance to Babylon, and made himself independent. He adorned Sais, his capital, with grand buildings, and the monuments of his reign are found in all parts of the country. He cultivated friendly relations with Cyrêné and the other Greek states, and encouraged Greek merchants to settle in Egypt. He conquered the island of Cyprus, and made it tributary to him. Alarmed by the growing power of the Persians, who had absorbed Media and Babylon, he made an alliance with Crœsus, King of Lydia, and Polycrates of Samos, in the hope of resisting the advance of the conquering nation, but nothing came of this arrangement. He died B. C. 525, and was succeeded by his son Psammenitus, or Psammatik III., who made Memphis his capital. In the same year, the Persian King Cambysses, the son and successor of Cyrus, invaded Egypt at the head of a vast army drawn from all parts of his dominions. Psammenitus endeavored to drive him back in a pitched battle near Pelusium, but was defeated, and obliged to shut himself up in Memphis. That city was taken, and the Egyptian king became a captive after a reign of but six months. In the same year he was put to death by order of Cambysses, who suspected him of a design to regain his crown. With him perished the Egyptian monarchy after an existence of a thousand years as a single united kingdom.

Cambysses remained in Egypt less than three years, but so great was his cruelty, so vast the destruction he accomplished, that the memory of his invasion was never lost by the Egyptians, who from this time detested and constantly plotted against their Persian masters. Egypt was always the most disaffected of the Persian provinces, and her efforts to regain her independence were unceasing.

During nearly the whole of the fifth century B. C., Egypt remained a province of the Persian empire. For a brief period of five years, from B. C. 460 to B. C. 455, a degree of independence was enjoyed by the Twenty-eighth Dynasty, which consisted of one king only. The revolt was suppressed at length, and the Persian authority continued unbroken until B. C. 405, when the Twenty-ninth Dynasty threw off the foreign yoke, under the leadership of Nefêrites, or

Nepherites, and established its capital at Mendes. This dynasty held the throne until B. C. 384.

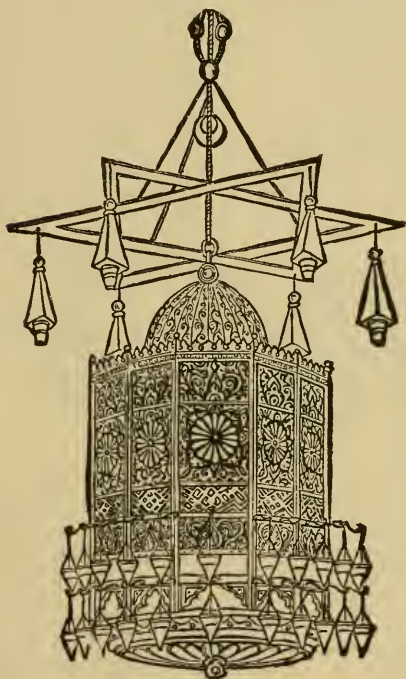
In the last-named year the Thirtieth Dynasty came into power under Nectanebo I., who reigned until B. C. 366. He was succeeded by Teos, or Tachos, who, in his brief reign of two years, contrived to stir up a general disaffection of all the western provinces of the Persian empire. These disorders were quieted by Artaxerxes, but the Egyptian monarch soon after attempted to conquer Syria. He was recalled to his own country by a revolt in which he lost his crown. The successful leader of the

Ochus, who demolished the walls of the cities, plundered the temples, bestowed large rewards upon the Greeks in his service, and returned to Persia, carrying with him an immense booty.

CHAPTER III.

THE GREEK KINGDOM.

Alexander the Great Conquers Egypt—Alexandria Founded and Made the Capital—Greek Civilization in Egypt—Death of Alexander—Ptolemy Lagi Takes Possession of Egypt—Reign of Ptolemy I.—Character of his Kingdom—Ptolemy Philadelphus—Intellectual Greatness of Egypt—The Libraries of Alexandria—The Septuagint—Events of this Reign—Commercial Prosperity of Egypt—Vices of the King—Ptolemy III.—His Conquests—His Relations with Rome—Cruelties of Ptolemy IV.—Decline of the Monarchy Under Ptolemy V.—The Romans in Egypt—The Monarchy Sinks Still Lower—The Romans the Real Arbiters of the Destiny of Egypt—Reigns of the Other Ptolemies—Rapid Decline of Egypt—Cleopatra Queen—Julius Caesar in Egypt—Mark Antony—The Romans Conquer Egypt—It Becomes a Province of the Empire.



EGYPTIAN LANTERN.

revolt mounted the throne as Nectanebo II., B. C. 364. In B. C. 351, Ochus, King of Persia, made an unsuccessful attempt to conquer Egypt. In B. C. 346, Ochus renewed his attempt, and invaded Egypt with an army of 344,000 men, of which 14,000 were veteran Greek mercenaries, commanded by experienced generals. Nectanebo prepared to meet him with an army of 100,000 men, of whom 20,000 were Greek mercenaries. The Greek generals of Ochus outmaneuvered the Egyptian king, and defeated his army. Egypt was rapidly overrun, and Nectanebo in despair fled to Ethiopia. All Egypt now submitted to

EGYPT continued a province of the Persian empire until after the battle of Issus, when it was conquered by Alexander the Great, who annexed it to his empire, and conferred a lasting benefit upon it by the erection of the city of Alexandria. Alexander spent little time either in the conquest or reorganization of Egypt, but in this brief period he entirely changed the character of Egyptian history and of the Egyptians themselves, and laid the foundations of their future greatness and glory. He made Alexandria the capital of Egypt, and gave to it the advantages of Greek civilization which rapidly spread among the native population. By this change Egypt was brought into constant and familiar intercourse with the rest of the world, and commercial pursuits were adopted by the greater part of the nation. The Macedo-Greek element was to be found chiefly in and around Alexandria. In the interior the native population continued in language and religion the same people they had always been, except that they were powerfully affected in manners and thought, and brought more into sympathy with the western world, by their association with the Greeks. They became the willing subjects of Alexander and the Ptolemies, and under them engaged actively in commerce, and began the cultivation of a literature which

soon made Alexandria one of the most illustrious cities in the world.

Upon the death of Alexander, in B. C. 323, the African provinces were assigned to Ptolemy Lagi, in the division of the empire by the generals. Ptolemy at once took possession of his government, which he meant from the first to retain for his own benefit, and devoted himself to the task of rendering it unassailable. Relinquishing all great ambitious designs he confined himself to this policy, and limited his conquests to such regions as could be acquired without too much risk. His great effort was to make Egypt a strong naval power, and in this he ultimately succeeded beyond his expectations. To secure the success of this design

Macedonian and Greek officials. The standing army was also composed almost entirely of Macedonians and Greeks.

An author himself, Ptolemy was a munificent patron of learning. He founded the famous library of Alexandria, and induced the most eminent scholars of the world to take up their residence at his court. Under his wise guidance Alexandria became the brilliant rival of Athens in literature, the arts and sciences. He also adorned his capital with a number of splendid edifices, the most noted of which were the royal palace, the museum, the magnificent light-tower of white marble, called the Pharos, which marked the entrance to the harbor, the Soma, or tomb in which the body of



SPECIMEN OF ANCIENT EGYPTIAN ART.

it was necessary that he should be master of Palestine and Phœnicia, as he needed not only the timber but the hardy sailor population of those countries. After a period of alternate success and failure, the peace of B. C. 301, which followed the battle of Ipsus, confirmed him in these possessions. His efforts to obtain Cyprus were unceasing, and after a liberal expenditure of blood and treasure, he made that island a dependency of the Egyptian crown.

The kingdom founded by Ptolemy was an absolute monarchy, in which, while he made no important changes in the ancient laws or political system of the country, the power was lodged entirely in the hands of

Alexander the Great was buried, the temple of Serapis, and the hippodrome. His reign extended into the third century before Christ, and he died in B. C. 283, at the age of eighty-four, after a reign of forty years.

Ptolemy II. (Philadelphus) became sole King of Egypt by the death of his father, B. C. 283. He was twenty-six years old, and had been carefully educated by the learned men whom his father had gathered at the Egyptian court. He was a liberal patron of science and literature, and in his reign Alexandria reached the height of her intellectual splendor. He made extensive additions to the Alexandrian library, and the minor library of the Serapeium was entirely collected by him. Learned men were invited to his court from all parts of the world, and literary works of the greatest value were undertaken at his desire or under his patronage. The most important of these was the translation of the Hebrew Scriptures into the Greek language, by which they became the property of the world. This work was begun in his reign and was continued through those of several of his successors. This version is known as the Septuagint, either because it was the work of seventy translators, or because it was au-

thorized by the Sanhedrim of Alexandria, which consisted of seventy members. In this reign also, the Egyptian priest Manetho composed in Greek his famous "History of Egypt." Philadelphus was a munificent patron of painting and sculpture, and adorned Alexandria with noble buildings.

Ptolemy II. did not inherit his father's military genius, and his wars were consequently not as important as those of the preceding reign. The first of these was against Macedon for the protection of the Achaean league. He next made war upon his half-brother Magas, King of Cyréné, who threw off his dependence upon Egypt, and marched against that kingdom about B. C. 266. Magas then made an alliance with Antiochus of Syria, and invaded Egypt a second time in B. C. 264. The Egyptians prevented Antiochus from leaving his own kingdom by vigorous movements in that quarter, and checked the advance of Magas. In B. C. 259, Magas was recognized as independent monarch of the Cyrenaica and

established between Egypt and Ethiopia, Arabia, and India, and for centuries it flowed chiefly along this route to Alexandria, which was the point of its distribution to the nations of Europe. The Ethiopian traffic was especially valuable. This flourishing state of trade naturally produced a full treasury. The revenues of the kingdom in this reign are said to have amounted to 14,800 talents, or about \$17,760,000 (without counting the tribute in grain), a sum equal to the revenue of the whole Persian empire under Darius I.

Philadelphus was not as worthy of admiration as his father. He began his reign by banishing Demetrius Phalereus, whose only offence was that he had advised Ptolemy I. against altering the succession. A little later he caused two of his brothers to be put to death. He was married to Arsinoë, the daughter of Lysimachus, King of Thrace, but becoming enamored of his sister, Arsinoë, who had already been married to his half-brother, Ptolemy Ceraunus,



COIN OF PTOLEMY I.



COIN OF PTOLEMY II.

his daughter Berenice was betrothed to the eldest son of Philadelphus. Ptolemy made himself master of a large part of the coast of Asia Minor and a number of the Cyclades during the war with Syria, which continued ten years longer. Peace was made in B. C. 249, and Ptolemy gave his daughter Berenice in marriage to Antiochus.

Under the second Ptolemy Egypt reached the culminating point of her commercial prosperity. He reopened the canal between the Nile and the Red Sea, which had been dug by Rameses the Great twelve hundred years previous to this reign, and built the port of Arsinoë at the head of the Red Sea, on the site of the present town of Suez. Owing to the dangers of the Red Sea navigation, one port was insufficient, and two more, each called Berenice, were constructed on the African coast, one nearly in latitude 24°, and the other about latitude 13°. A high road was constructed from the northern Berenice to Coptos on the Nile, near Thebes. An extensive commerce was es-

he divorced his first wife and banished her to Coptos in upper Egypt. He then married his sister, to whom he continued passionately attached, though she bore him no children. He did not long survive her, and died of disease in B. C. 247, after a reign of thirty-eight years, during thirty-six of which he was sole monarch.

Ptolemy III., called Eugertes, or the Benefactor, succeeded his father. He was the son of the first wife of Ptolemy II., and was the most enterprising prince of his race. He abandoned the defensive policy of his father and grandfather, and entered upon a series of conquests by which he revived the ancient glories of Egypt and added largely to his dominions. By his marriage with Berenice, the daughter and heiress of Magas, he became master of the Cyrenaica. In a year or two after his accession he made war against Syria, to avenge the wrongs of his sister, Berenice, who had been divorced by Antiochus, and then murdered by Laodicé. In B. C. 245 Eugertes marched

into Syria and captured Antioch, after which he crossed the Euphrates and reduced Mesopotamia, Babylonia, Susiana, Media and Persia, and received the submission of the eastern provinces to the borders of Bactria. While he was thus engaged, his fleet ravaged the coast of Asia Minor and Thrace. He was recalled to Egypt by impending troubles, and at once lost all his eastern conquests, which were recovered by the Syrian monarch. The maritime provinces, however, were retained, as Ptolemy's command of the sea enabled him to hold them. His empire now extended along the Mediterranean from Cyrené to the Hellespont, and included a



COIN OF PTOLEMY III.

portion of Thrace, and many islands of the Mediterranean. Towards the close of his reign he made himself master of a part of the western coast of Arabia, and of portions of Ethiopia. He took part in the struggles in Greece, supporting first the Achæan League until it came to terms with Antigonus, when he aided Cleomenes, of Sparta, against the confederates. During this war the Egyptian fleet defeated that of Antigonus, off Andros. Eugertes maintained friendly relations with Rome, but declined the assistance proffered him by the Republic against Syria. He appears to have been suspicious of the ambitious Romans. Eugertes was also a patron of learning and art. He died B. c. 222, after a prosperous reign of twenty-five years. He was the last of the great Macedonian kings of Egypt, and under him that country reached the summit of her later power and prosperity. His successors were weak and generally worthless.

Ptolemy IV. succeeded his father. As he was generally suspected of murdering Eugertes, he assumed the title of Philopater (lover of his father) to allay this suspicion. He began his reign, however, by murdering his mother, his brother, and his uncle, and marrying his sister, Arsinoë, whom he put to death a few years later, after she had borne him an heir to the throne. He was a weak and shamefully dissolute king, and the gov-

ernment of the kingdom was conducted by his minister, Sosibius, who was as wicked and unfit to rule as his master. This state of affairs encouraged Antiochus III., of Syria, to attempt to recover his dominions and to wrest Palestine and Phœnicia from Egypt. He was defeated by the Egyptians at Raphia, and succeeded in regaining only the port of Antioch, B. c. 217. This war had scarcely closed when a general revolt broke out among Philopater's Egyptian subjects. It lasted through a large part of this reign, and required a liberal expenditure of blood and treasure for its suppression. Notwithstanding his infamous character, Philopater was a liberal patron of learning and the arts, and dedicated a temple to Homer. He died at the age of forty, B. c. 205, a victim to his excesses.

Ptolemy V., who afterwards assumed the surname of Epiphanes, was the son of the murdered Arsinoë and Philopater, and was but five years old at the time of his father's death. He was readily acknowledged king, and Agathocles, an infamous and incompetent adventurer, a former favorite of Philopater, was made regent. He soon fell a victim to the rage of the people, together with all his relatives, and Tlepolemus, who was honest, if incompetent, succeeded to the regency. The alliance of Syria and Macedon against Egypt made it of the highest importance that the affairs of the kingdom should be administered by a firm and able hand. A combined attack of the allies stripped Egypt of all her



COIN OF PTOLEMY IV.

foreign possessions but Cyprus and the Cyrenaica. Tlepolemus, feeling his own incompetence, asked aid of the Romans, who, in B. c. 201, sent M. Lepidus to undertake the management of Egyptian affairs. Lepidus, by his exertions, preserved Egypt from conquest, but was either unwilling or unable to regain the foreign possessions of which she had been deprived.

Ptolemy V., protected from the efforts of Antiochus of Syria by his Roman patrons, was declared of age in B. c. 196, when only fourteen years old. He was a weak

and cruel prince, and began his reign by the murder of his honest guardian. He was himself assassinated in B. C. 181.

Ptolemy VI., seven years of age at the time, succeeded his father. For eight years the kingdom was well ruled by his mother, Cleopatra, the daughter of Antiochus the Great. At her death in B. C. 173, the power passed into the hands of two corrupt and incompetent ministers, who involved Egypt in a war with Antiochus Epiphanes of Syria, who invaded Egypt, defeated the royal army at Pelusium, and gained possession of Ptolemy VI., whom he used as a tool for effecting the reduction of the entire



COIN OF PTOLEMY V.

country. The people of Alexandria made the younger brother, Ptolemy Physcon, king, and the Romans, intervening, compelled Antiochus to surrender his conquests and withdraw. The brothers agreed to reign conjointly, and Ptolemy VI. married his only sister, Cleopatra. Then both renewed the war with Syria. Antiochus seized Cyprus, and advanced into Egypt, B. C. 168. He would have taken Alexandria had not the Romans again compelled him to retire. Four years later the brothers quarrelled, and Ptolemy VI. went to Rome, where the Senate sustained his cause. Physcon refusing to accept the adjustment of the Senate, a civil war ensued, which was finally closed by the capture of Physcon by Ptolemy VI., B. C. 155. Ptolemy spared his brother's life, and restored his dominions. Some years later Ptolemy encouraged the rebellion of Alexander Balas in Syria as a means of revenging himself upon that country, and aided him to gain the throne. Disgusted by the ingratitude of Alexander, he passed over to Demetrius, and assisted him to hurl his rival from power. He was killed by a fall from his horse in the last battle with Alexander, near Antioch, B. C. 146.

Ptolemy VII., Eupator, succeeded his father, but was murdered a few days later by his uncle Physcon, who, by the aid of the Romans, became King of Egypt and Cyréné as Ptolemy VIII. He married his sister,

the widow of Ptolemy VI., and began such a series of cruelties that his subjects fled in such numbers that Alexandria was half depopulated. He was so bloated and corpulent that he could scarcely walk. He repudiated his wife, Cleopatra, although she had borne him a son, and married her daughter, Cleopatra, the child of his brother. His cruelties at length drove the Alexandrians into rebellion. They made the elder Cleopatra queen, and Physcon fled to Cyprus, B. C. 130. A civil war of three years ensued. In B. C. 127 Cleopatra imprudently applied to the Syrian king, Demetrius II., for aid, and this act so alarmed the Alexandrians that they deposed her and recalled Physcon, who, profiting by the lessons of his exile, desisted from his cruelties. He devoted the latter part of his reign to literary pursuits, and obtained some reputation as an author. He did not desist from war, however, but, to avenge himself on Demetrius for the support he had given to Cleopatra, induced Alexander Zabinas, the son of Alexander Balas, to revive his father's claims to the Syrian crown. With the aid of Egypt Alexander became king, but, like his father, turned upon his patron, who thereupon hurled him from his throne and secured the elevation of Antiochus Grypus, to whom he gave his daughter, Tryphœna, in marriage.

Ptolemy IX., called Lathyrus, succeeded his father in B. C. 117. At his death Phys-



COIN OF PTOLEMY VI.

con bequeathed the kingdom of Cyréné to his natural son, Apion, who at his death left it to the Romans. It was thus lost to Egypt. Cyprus became almost a separate monarchy, being governed at first by Alexander, the brother of Ptolemy, as king. Ptolemy began his reign as King of Egypt, but the real power was held by the queen mother, Cleopatra, who obliged her son to divorce his sister, Cleopatra, and marry his other sister, Seléné, who was more easily managed by their mother. In B. C. 107 Ptolemy having commenced a policy in Syria adverse to her own, the queen mother

compelled him to retire to Cyprus, and placed Alexander on the Egyptian throne. Soon after this the queen mother endeavored to dispossess Ptolemy of Cyprus, but he succeeded in maintaining himself there as king.

About the year B. C. 89 Alexander I. murdered his mother, and proclaimed himself king as Ptolemy X. He was expelled from the capital by the Alexandrians, who summoned his brother Lathyrus from Cyprus to resume the sovereignty. Alexander subsequently attempted to regain Cyprus, but was defeated, and soon after died. A little later a revolt broke out in Thebes, in upper Egypt. The royal troops invested the city, captured it and destroyed it, B. C. 86. Lathyrus after this reigned peacefully until B. C. 81, when he died.

Berenice, the only legitimate child of Lathyrus and his daughter by Seléné, succeeded him upon the throne, and reigned for six months as sole monarch. She then married her cousin Ptolemy XI., also called Alexander II., the son of Alexander I. (or Ptolemy X.) He was a protégé of Sulla, and the marriage was consummated in order to prevent a civil war, with the agreement that the king and queen should reign conjointly, but within three weeks after the marriage the king murdered his wife. The Alexandrians, enraged at this, rose against him and killed him, B. C. 80. For fifteen years a period of confusion prevailed, the crown being claimed by a number of pretenders.

In B. C. 65, Ptolemy XII., called Auletes, or "the flute player," an illegitimate son of Lathyrus, secured the throne. He dated his reign from the death of his half-sister, Berenice, but he was not properly king of Egypt until B. C. 65. By this time Cyprus had become an independent kingdom. The first efforts of Auletes were directed to securing his recognition by, and the friendship of, the Romans. He was not able to accomplish this until B. C. 59, when Cæsar became Consul, when he succeeded by means of bribery. He had been obliged to spend so much money in effecting this that his treasury was now empty, and in order to refill it he resorted to increased taxation. His subjects, exasperated by his debaucheries and "fluting," rose against him, and after a brief struggle compelled him to fly to Rome. They then placed his two daughters, Tryphœna and Berenice, upon the throne. The former died a year later.

The latter continued to rule until B. C. 55, when her father returned under the protection of Pompey, who sent a strong Roman army, under Gabinius, to restore him. He was resisted by Berenice, who sought to retain the crown, but she was overcome and put to death. Auletes then reigned under the protection of his Roman masters until B. C. 51, when he died, leaving his country on the brink of the ruin and degradation to which he had led it.

Ptolemy XII. left his crown to his eldest daughter, Cleopatra, aged seventeen, and his eldest son, Ptolemy, aged thirteen. He ordered that the two should reign conjointly and be married when Ptolemy was of full age. He left also two other children, a son named Ptolemy, and a daughter named Arsinoë, who were mere children. His directions were approved by the Romans, but Cleopatra, unwilling to submit to any control, quarrelled with her youthful husband. War followed, and Cleopatra took refuge in Syria. Here she met Julius Cæsar and so fascinated him with her marvellous beauty that he became her protector. With his aid she conquered her husband, who was slain in the struggle, and was made sole queen of Egypt on condition of marrying her younger brother when he came of age, B. C. 47. In B. C. 44 she complied with her agreement in form, but freed herself by having her second husband poisoned soon after the marriage. The remainder of her reign was generally prosperous, for Cæsar remained faithful to her during his life. After his death she succeeded in winning Mark Antony to her side, B. C. 41, and made him her slave. For the sake of the guilty love he bore her, Antony sacrificed honor, ambition and power. He abandoned his wife, who was a woman worthy of all honor and had been conspicuously faithful to him, deserted his country, and basely left to its fate the army that had stood by him through good and evil report, to follow the Egyptian queen, who, when the moment of trial came, showed herself willing to sacrifice him to ensure her own safety and the retention of her kingdom. We shall refer to this period of Egyptian history in our account of Rome, and pass it by now. It only remains to say that, upon the capture of her capital by the Romans, in B. C. 30, Cleopatra committed suicide, and Egypt became a Roman province. Thus fell the kingdom of the Ptolemies, after an existence of 293 years.

CHAPTER IV.

FROM THE ROMAN CONQUEST TO THE PRESENT TIME.

Egypt as a Roman Province—Literary Splendor of Alexandria—Christianity in Egypt—Decline of Upper Egypt—Zenobia becomes Queen of Egypt—Is Conquered by the Romans—Rebellions of the Egyptians against Rome—They are Unsuccessful—Diocletian Takes Alexandria—Egypt a Ruined Country—The Greek Element Dies Out—Rise of the Copts—Persecutions of the Egyptian Christians—The Establishment of Christianity under Constantine—The Arian Controversy—The Council of Niceæ—The Arians Persecuted—The Pagan Temples Destroyed—Effects of Paganism upon Christianity—Cyril—Murder of Hypatia—Desolation of Upper Egypt—Conquest of Egypt by the Persians—Rise of the Coptic Church—Rise of the Mohammedans—Conquest of Egypt by Amru—Alexandria Taken—Egypt a Saracen Province—Spread of Islamism—Rise of the Fatimite Khalifs—They Conquer Egypt—Division in the Mohammedan Church—Al-Hakem—End of the Fatimite Line—Saladin—Saladin Conquers Palestine and Syria—The Mamelukes—They Seize the Egyptian Kingdom—Egypt Conquered by the Ottoman Turks—Becomes a Turkish Province—Is Conquered by Napoleon Bonaparte—Mehemet Ali—Massacre of the Mamelukes—His Efforts to Make Egypt Independent—The Greek Revolution—Egypt Rebels against Turkey—Ibrahim Pasha's Victories—Syria Conquered—Intervention of the European Powers—Egypt Reduced to its Proper Limits—Abbas Pasha—The First Railroad in Egypt—The Suez Canal Begun—Ismaïl Pasha—Rapid Advance of Egypt under its Present Ruler.

EGYPT remained a Roman province for more than three centuries. Under the earliest of the Roman emperors it was, on the whole, well treated, while governed with great rigor. It was regarded as one of the most valuable portions of the empire, and was the chief source from which the city of Rome drew its grain. It was governed by prefects, and was frequently visited by the emperors.

During this period Alexandria was considered the chief seat of the learning of the ancient world. Its libraries, museums and rare collections of art made it the most attractive place of residence and resort in existence to the learned and cultivated, who flocked to it in such throngs as to give character to its society.

Christianity spread rapidly, Alexandria being its chief centre, and the writings of the Christian authors began to command a respectful attention equal to that paid to the productions of the most learned pagan philosophers.

During this period the population of upper Egypt decreased steadily. By the reign of the Emperor Commodus (A. D. 181-194), "it had been drained of all its

hoarded wealth. Its carrying trade through Coptos to the Red Sea was much lessened. Any tribute that its temples received from the piety of the neighborhood was small. Nubia was a desert; and a few soldiers at Syene were enough to guard the poverty of the Thebaid from the inroads of the Blemmyes. It was no longer necessary to send criminals to the Oasis; it was enough to banish them to the neighborhood of Thebes." Lower Egypt suffered much from the uncertainty and want of order which followed the reign of Alexander Severus (A. D. 222-225), and which were due to the constant rebellions and persecutions, and the frequent changes in the imperial power. Famine, until then almost a stranger to Egypt, became a frequent visitor, and poverty increased in a marked degree among the people.

In the last year of the reign of Gallienus, Zenobia, Queen of Palmyra, who had hitherto been the ally of Rome, threw off the friendship of the empire, routed the armies which Gallienus sent against her, and marched upon Egypt to add that country to her dominions, which already included Syria and Asia Minor. She claimed to be a descendant of Cleopatra, the last queen of Egypt, and was joined by a large Egyptian force. The attempt was unsuccessful, however. It was renewed upon the death of Claudius (A. D. 270), and this time with success. All Egypt acknowledged Zenobia as its queen, and the country became for the time a province of Syria. Aurelian at first recognized Zenobia as his colleague in the empire, and some of the Alexandrian coins of this period bear his head on one side and the head of the Palmyrene queen on the other. Soon afterwards Aurelian marched against her, defeated her, made her prisoner, and added her kingdom to the territory of the empire. Egypt thereupon became once more a Roman province.

The period of the Roman dominion was marked by numerous but fruitless rebellions. The most formidable of these lasted nine years, and was suppressed with difficulty and great severity by the Emperor Diocletian in person. Several cities were captured and destroyed, and Alexandria was taken by storm after a siege of eight months. A large part of the city was burned, and many of the inhabitants were put to the sword, A. D. 297. Egypt suffered terribly from these rebellions, and especially

from the last one. The traffic along the Nile was stopped, the canals for the irrigation of the country became choked up, the fields were badly cultivated, and trade and manufactures of all kinds were nearly ruined. Egypt, in short, emerged from the great rebellion a very different country from that which Augustus had made a part of his empire, and which his successors had regarded as one of the most valuable jewels of their crown. Another change had resulted from these internal troubles. "The frame-work of society had been shaken, the Greeks had lessened in numbers, and still more in weight. The fall of the Ptolemies and the conquest by Rome did not make so great a change. The bright days of Egypt

rapidly in Egypt. Since the reign of Gallienus the Christians had been allowed to build churches and hold public meetings, and a number of the brightest and purest names of this period were furnished by them. The Emperor Diocletian undertook in A. D. 304 to exterminate the Christian faith throughout the empire by a terrible persecution. This persecution was nowhere more severe than in Egypt, and large numbers of Christians perished in it. It did not check the growth of the new religion, however, but added thousands of converts to it. These cruelties came to an end in the reign of Constantine the Great, who made Christianity the religion of the empire. The Christians had been united during their sufferings, but after the triumphant establishment of their faith, divisions appeared among them and led to a number of bitter and even sanguinary quarrels. After Constantinople became the capital of the empire in A. D. 330, the history of Egypt is, for a period of about three centuries, little more than a record of the disputes of its theologians. These disputes frequently led to riots and other outbreaks,



ANCIENT EGYPTIAN COSTUME.

as a Greek kingdom began with the building of Alexandria and ended with the rebellions against Gallienus, Aurelian and Diocletian. The native Egyptians, both Copts and Arabs, now rise into notice, but only because Greek civilization sinks around them. And soon the upper classes among the Copts, to avoid the duty of maintaining a family of children in such troubled times, rush by thousands into monasteries and convents, and further lessen the population by their religious vows of celibacy."*

Christianity, as we have said, spread

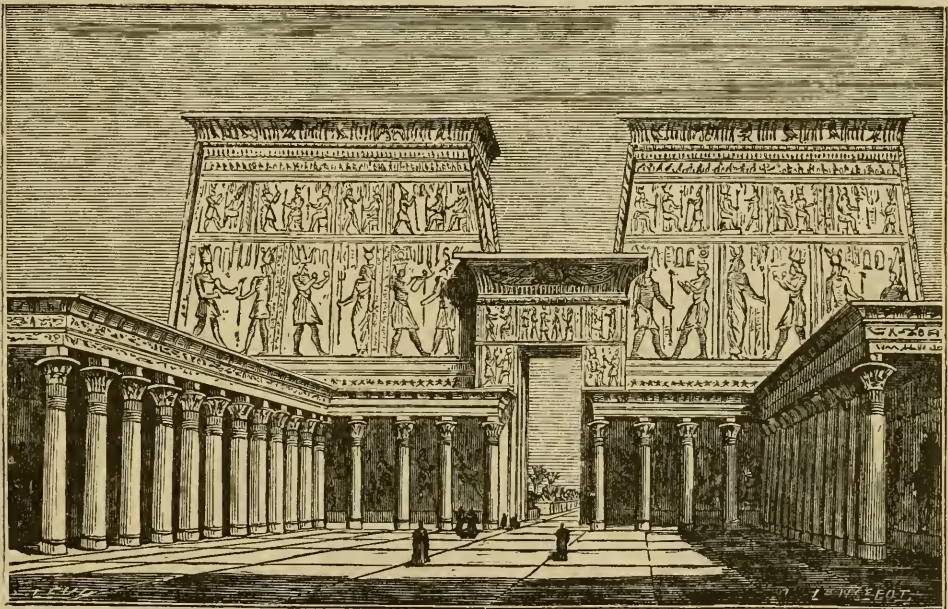
and the streets of Alexandria often flowed with the blood of Christians shed by Christian hands. "As soon as the quarrels with the pagans ceased," says Sharpe, "we find the Christians of Egypt and Alexandria divided into two parties, on the question whether the Son is of the *same substance*, or only a *similar substance*, with the Father."

The first of these disputes was the Arian controversy, which occurred before the building of Constantinople. Arius, a presbyter of the Alexandrian church, taught that the Father and the Son were not one, but that the Son was a separate being from, and inferior to, the Father, and that the Holy Spirit was created by the power of

* *History of Egypt*, by Samuel Sharpe, vol. ii., p. 241.

the Son. Alexander, the Bishop of Alexandria, denounced this doctrine, and maintained the doctrine of the Holy Trinity. A quarrel ensued between the two, which became so bitter, and so generally divided the people of Alexandria that Constantine felt bound to notice it. He rebuked both parties for their violence, and to settle authoritatively the doctrines of the Christian faith, summoned a council of the bishops and fathers of the church. This council met at Nicæa, in Bithynia, in A. D. 325. It condemned the doctrines of Arius and put forth the Nicæan Creed as the expression of the faith of the church. Arius and his followers were excommunicated by the

Paganism received a decided encouragement in Egypt during the short reign of Julian the Apostate. In A. D. 379 the Emperor Theodosius I. made an earnest effort to root it out. He issued a decree that the whole body of his subjects should adopt the Christian faith as settled by the Nicæan Creed, and ordered that the pagan temples should be closed. Alexandria at this time contained a large pagan population, among which were most of the learned and cultivated classes, and the students in the schools of philosophy. These bitterly resented the emperor's order. Theodosius went further, and ordered the destruction of the idols contained in the pagan temples.



ANCIENT EGYPTIAN TEMPLE.

council and banished by the emperor. Constantine II. reversed the policy of his father. Athanasius, the orthodox Archbishop of Alexandria, was removed and an Arian appointed in his place. This was followed by a cruel persecution of the orthodox Christians. When Julian the Apostate became emperor, his effort to revive the old worship of Rome caused an outbreak on the part of the pagan mob of Alexandria. The Arian archbishop was murdered, and Athanasius again became bishop. He was banished by Julian. He returned, and was banished by the Emperor Valens, who appointed an Arian to his see. The persecutions of the orthodox were renewed.

The Christians, aided by the imperial troops, broke into the heathen sanctuaries, threw down the idols, and desecrated the buildings. The great and superb temple of Serapis, which had for ages been the most famous shrine of paganism, was desecrated and plundered, and its invaluable library, consisting of 700,000 volumes, was destroyed by the Christian mob. The pagans flew to arms in defence of their faith, and several bloody battles were fought in the streets of Alexandria. The imperial troops, under the command of the prefect, at length succeeded in putting down the resistance, and the pagans were driven from the city.

Christianity was now supreme in Egypt.

Theodosius was a Trinitarian, and at once reversed the policy of his predecessor, and displaced all the Arian clergy and appointed Trinitarians in their place. The Arians were severely persecuted. This was particularly acceptable to the Christians of Egypt, a large majority of whom were Trinitarians. They gave the emperor a loyal support, and during this reign Egypt was regarded as one of the safest and most devoted of his provinces.

It will be interesting here to notice how

a dead body, besides burial, was forbidden by the Bible as wicked. St. Augustine, on the other hand, well understanding that the immortality of the soul without the body was little likely to be understood or valued by the ignorant, praises the Egyptians for that very practice, and says that they were the only Christians who really believed in the resurrection from the dead. The figures of the Virgin Mary standing on the new moon as she ascends up to heaven, seem to be borrowed from the goddess Isis, who, in



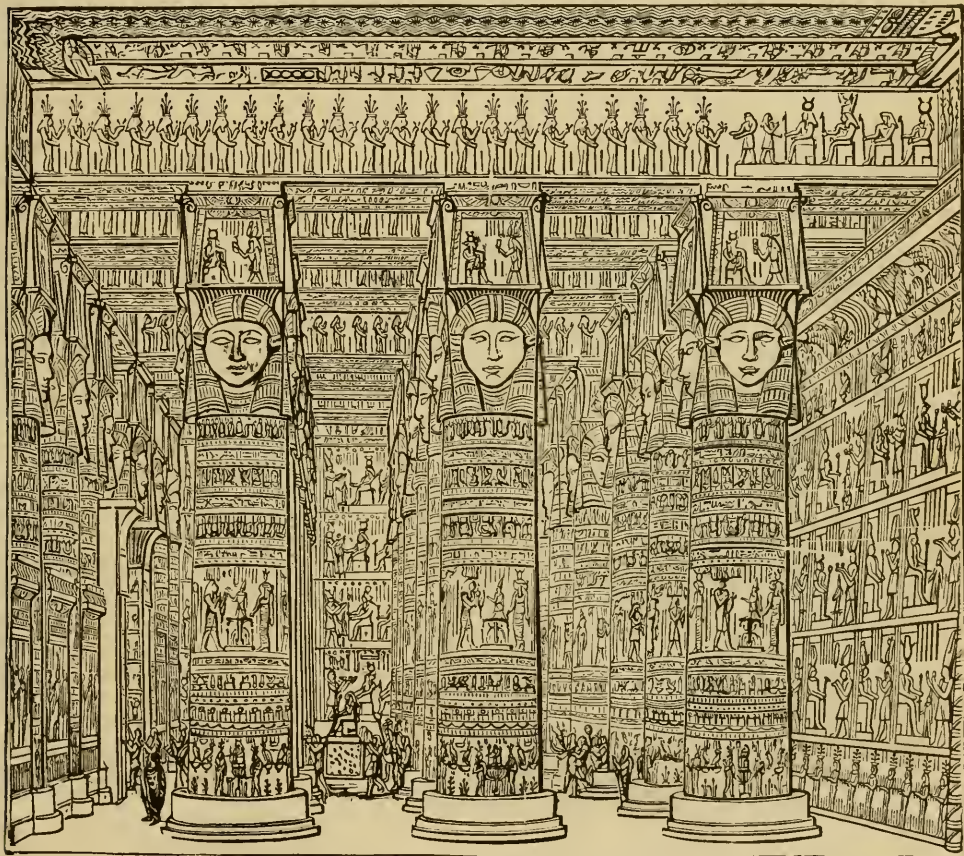
DESTRUCTION OF THE PAGAN TEMPLES AT ALEXANDRIA.

much Christianity, though triumphant over paganism, was affected by it, especially in Egypt. "It would be unreasonable," says Sharpe, "to suppose that the Egyptians, on embracing Christianity, at once threw off the whole of their pagan rites. Among other customs that they still clung to was that of making mummies of the bodies of the dead. St. Anthony had tried to dissuade the Christian converts from that practice; not because the mummy cases were covered with pagan inscriptions; but he boldly asserted, what a very little reading would have disproved, that every mode of treating

her character of the dog-star, rises heliacally in the same manner. The tapers even now burnt before the Roman Catholic altars had also from the earliest times been used to light up the splendors of the Egyptian altars, in the darkness of their temples, and had been burnt in still greater numbers in the yearly festival of the candles. The playful custom of giving away sugared cakes and sweetmeats on the 25th day of Tybi, our 20th of January, was then changed to be kept fourteen days earlier, and still marks with us the feast of Epiphany or Twelfth Night. The division of

the people into clergy and laity, which was unknown to Greeks and Romans, was introduced to Christianity in the fourth century by the Egyptians. While the rest of Christendom were clothed in woollen, linen, the common dress of the Egyptians, was universally adopted by the clergy, as more becoming to the purity of their manners; 'linen,' says the Book of Revelation, 'is what is appointed for the saints.*' At the same time the clergy copied the Egyptian

rather blots, upon Christianity, which seem to be of Egyptian growth; and the mud of the Nile, as Homer remarks, was as fruitful of poisons as it was of medicines. Thus was brought about what was called the spread of Christianity, but what was rather an union of the two religions, or a compromise between the two parties. Wise and good men have doubted whether it helped or hindered the cause of the religion taught and practised by Jesus.†



INTERIOR OF PORTICO OF THE TEMPLE AT DENDERAH, EGYPT.

priests in the custom of shaving the crown of the head bald. Two thousand years before the Bishop of Rome pretended to hold the keys of heaven and hell, there was an Egyptian priest with the high-sounding title of Appointed Keeper of the two doors of heaven in the city of Thebes. It would be easy to point out other improvements, or

* In the English Bible the expression is, "for the fine linen is the righteousness of the saints," Rev. xix. 8.

Under Theodosius II. Cyril was Archbishop of Alexandria. He was proud, haughty, bigoted and cruel. He had scarcely been installed when he headed a Christian mob and drove all the Jews from Alexandria, after a fierce struggle in the streets, and in spite of the efforts of the civil authorities to protect them, A. D. 414. The Christians next attacked the pagans.

† Sharpe's *History of Egypt*, vol. ii., pp. 299, 300.

One of the most popular and gifted of the pagan teachers was Hypatia, the beautiful and learned daughter of Theon, the mathematician. She taught philosophy publicly in the Platonic school which had been founded by Ammonius, and her modest and womanly behavior, as well as her great learning and rare eloquence, drew to her a large number of pupils. Being a pagan, she became particularly obnoxious to the ignorant followers of Cyril, who seized her one day in the street, dragged her from her chariot, hurried her off to the church called Cæsar's Temple, and there stripped and murdered her.



EGYPTIAN DANCING WOMEN.

The Christians, being supreme in Egypt, began to differ among themselves as to certain articles of faith. These controversies grew so bitter that at length a council was called at Chalcedon, in A. D. 451. This council denounced the doctrines held by the greater part of the Egyptian Christians as heretical. The decisions of the council, so far from settling the controversy, only embittered it, and the animosities to which it gave rise led to several conflicts between the Alexandrians and the imperial troops who were charged with the enforce-

ment of the decrees, and finally so alienated the Egyptians from Constantinople, that they came to regard the empire as only an oppressor.

During this time upper Egypt had been sinking into still greater decay. It was now largely overrun by the Nubians and the neighboring Arab tribes, and Christianity was almost driven from the Thebaid. Irrigation was neglected, the fields were half-tilled, the fertile strip along the Nile grew narrower year by year, the great buildings fell into decay, and the desert steadily encroached upon the valley of the Nile. The sand drifted in upon the temples, filling them up, burying the broken or overthrown statues, and blocking up the entrances to the tombs. Yet this desolation was not without its compensating benefits. The sand drifting over the ancient monuments of the country, preserved them from the future masters of that region, and saved them unharmed until the present age, when they are being gradually uncovered by learned explorers, and are yielding their authoritative testimony to the history of their land.

In the tenth year of the reign of the Emperor Anastasius, A. D. 501, the Persians, who had already made themselves masters of Syria, defeated the Roman armies, passed Pelusium, and, entering Egypt, laid waste the whole of the Delta to the gates of Alexandria. They were obliged to retire after a number of indecisive battles, but the destruction they wrought in the Delta caused great suffering to the Egyptians, and in Alexandria this distress produced formidable riots.

Under Justinian a change was made in the government of the country. He appointed an orthodox archbishop or patriarch of Alexandria, and made him also the prefect of Egypt—thus uniting the civil and ecclesiastical functions in one person. The Alexandrians stubbornly resisted this change, and attacked the patriarch in his church. He in his turn charged them with his soldiers, and inflicted such a severe loss upon them that they were compelled to submit.

In A. D. 616, in the reign of the Emperor Heraclius, the Persians, under their King Chosroes II., again entered Egypt, and this

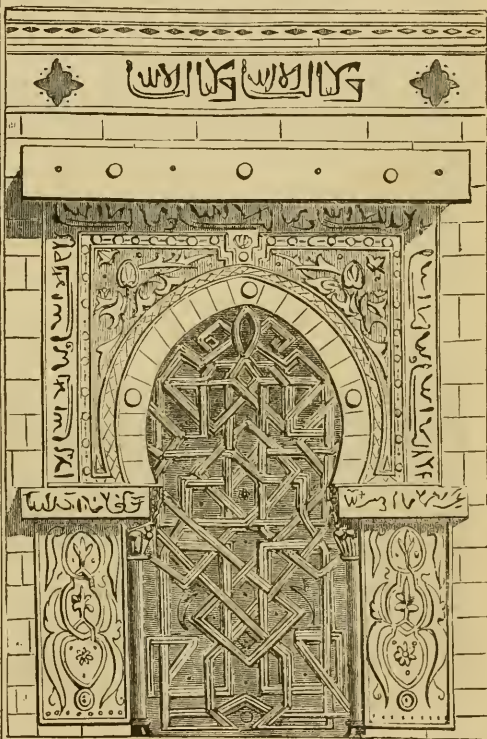
time conquered the country. The people of Egypt had been so thoroughly alienated from the Greek empire that they made no effort to resist the Persians, but readily submitted to their new masters.

The Persians did not interfere with the religious disputes of the Egyptians. Their conquest, however, destroyed the power of the orthodox or Greek church, and henceforth the Egyptian or Coptic church was supreme in the country. The separation was final. "The Christianity of the Egyptians was a superstition of the lowest and grossest kind; and as it spread over the land it embraced the whole nation within its pale, not so much by purifying the pagan opinions as by lowering itself to their level, and fitting itself to their corporeal notions of the Creator. This was not a little brought about by the custom of using the old temples for Christian churches; the form of worship was in part guided by the form of the building, and even the old traditions were engrafted on the new religion." Egypt was held by the Persians for ten years, and during this time the Egyptians were governed in civil affairs by a Persian governor, and in spiritual matters by a patriarch of the Coptic church, of their own choice. On the whole this was one of the quietest periods Egypt had known for centuries. Heraclius, however, at the end of this time drove the Persians out of Syria, invaded their own dominions, and recovered Egypt. The orthodox Greek church was restored to power, but the Coptic church remained unshaken and received the allegiance of the people.

A new power had now grown up in the desert. This was the Saracen or Mohammedan sect, which, commencing with the conquest of Arabia under its founder, was destined under the successors of Mohammed to extend its dominion and religion over the greater part of the eastern world. Having mastered Arabia, Syria was next attacked by the Arabs, or Saracens, the armies of Heraclius were defeated, and by A. D. 639 the whole of Syria was in the hands of the conquerors. Heraclius induced the khalif, as the successors of Mohammed were called, to refrain from the conquest of Egypt, by the annual payment of a large tribute. This was continued for eight years, but then the emperor found himself unable to make his payments. The tribute having ceased, the khalif considered himself freed from his engagements.

In A. D. 640 the Arab army under Amru, the general of the Khalif Omar, entered Egypt from Palestine. Pelusium was taken after a siege of thirty days, and Memphis fell after a siege of eight months, during which it was almost entirely destroyed. Struck with the advantages of the situation, Amru began the construction of a new city on the opposite, or eastern bank of the Nile, a mile or two lower down the river. This settlement now forms one of the suburbs of the city of Cairo.

Amru found a powerful ally in the Egyp-



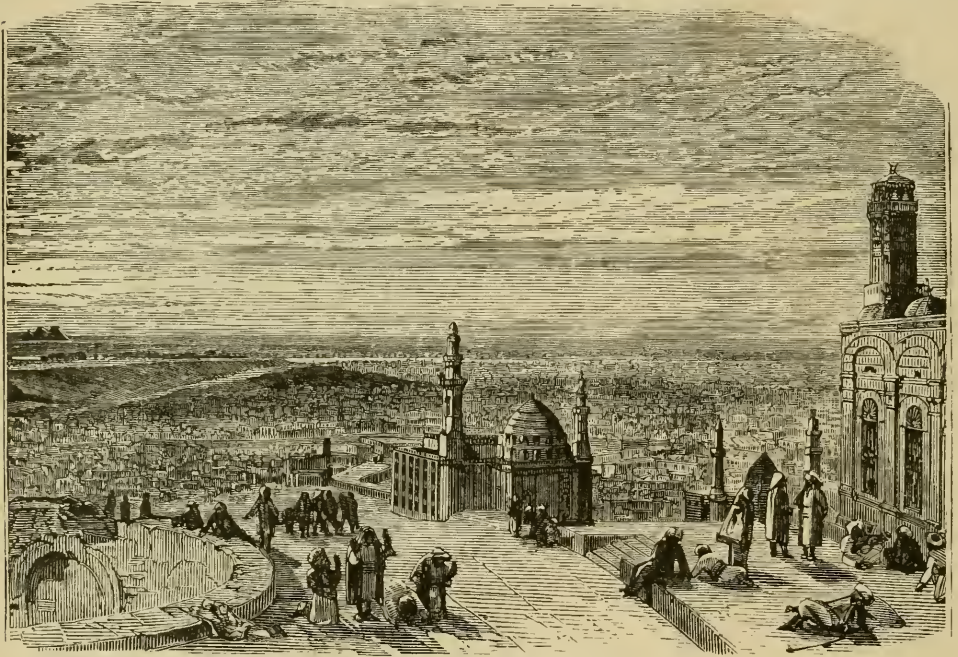
DOOR AT CAIRO INSCRIBED WITH PASSAGES FROM THE KORAN.

tian people, who had been rendered bitterly hostile to the empire by the persecutions to which they had been subjected on account of their religion. The Saracens were everywhere welcomed as the deliverers of the Coptic church. The Egyptians readily submitted to Amru, agreed to pay a stipulated tribute, and swore allegiance to the khalif. The Saracen army during its march was constantly supplied with provisions and trustworthy intelligence. Alexandria was besieged, but its numerous Greek population held out bravely for fourteen months, in-

flicting upon the Saracens a loss of 23,000 men. At length the city was taken, A. D. 641, and the Greeks embarked in great numbers and fled across the Mediterranean. During the next four years the imperial forces made several efforts to regain Alexandria, but were driven back by Amru. The conquest of Egypt was now complete. It was marked by an act of vandalism which has scarcely a parallel in history. The great library of Alexandria, which had been spared by Amru, was burned by order of the Khalif Omar. The precious manuscripts were distributed among the 4,000 baths of the city to heat their waters, and

khalif, and established an independent kingdom, which lasted thirty-seven years. It was subdued at length by the khalif, and a long period of anarchy followed.

During these centuries a new Arab state grew up in northern Africa. In A. D. 908, Mohammed, surnamed Al Mehdi, or the Leader, the chief of the Shiah sect of the Saracens, threw off the authority of the Khalif of Bagdad, and set up an independent state in northern Africa. He made himself khalif, or both the religious and civil ruler of his new kingdom, which he and his successors succeeded in extending over a considerable portion of Africa. This dynasty



VIEW OF CAIRO FROM THE CITADEL.

so great was their number that six months were required for their destruction.

For the next two centuries Egypt remained a province of the Saracen empire, governed by viceroys. Large numbers of Arabs settled in the country, and great accessions to the Mohammedan faith were made from the Egyptians. The Coptic faith declined, and Islamism took its place, so that Egypt gradually changed from a Christian to a Mohammedan country. This period was also marked by great disturbances. In addition to the usual riots and outbreaks, several general revolts occurred, but were suppressed. In A. D. 868, Ahmed, the viceroy, threw off his allegiance to the

became the formidable rivals of the khalifs of Bagdad, and assumed the name of Fatimites in honor of their great ancestress Fatima, the daughter of Mohammed, the Prophet of Islam.

In A. D. 970, Moez, or Muezzeddin, the fourth of the Fatimite khalifs, conquered Egypt. The time was well chosen, for the country was in a state of anarchy, and the people were suffering from a severe famine. The Fatimite army carried large stores of corn with them, and by distributing these to the starving people, obtained their submission to the spiritual and temporal claims of the African khalif. Al Muezzeddin made Egypt the seat of his power, built the city

of Cairo, and made it the capital of his dominions. Thus Egypt became once more an independent and powerful state. The Egyptian khalif denounced the Khalif of Bagdad as an impostor, and declared himself the only lawful successor of the prophet. His claims were diligently preached throughout the eastern world, and a serious division was thus made in the ranks of Islam. The Fatimite khalifs soon added Syria and Arabia to their conquests. Palestine became once more the great battle-field of the rival armies of Egypt and the east. The Fatimite Dynasty ruled Egypt for two centuries.

The most famous of these khalifs was Al Hakem, who reigned from A. D. 996 to 1021. He was either a madman like the Roman Emperor Caligula, or a monster of cruelty. At the outset of his reign he was a zealous Mohammedan, and inaugurated a severe persecution of both the Christians and the Jews within his dominion. He compelled the Christians to bear heavy wooden crosses through the streets, and bound to every Jew the head of a calf in memory of their idolatry at Sinai. He subsequently substituted a heavy wooden bell for the calf's head. In 1020 Hakem, who had fallen under the influence of Hamza, a wandering fanatic, proclaimed himself the incarnation of the Deity, and commanded his subjects to worship him. "At the name of Hakem, the lord of the living and the dead," says Gibbon, "every knee was bent in religious adoration; his mysteries were performed on a mountain near Cairo; 16,000 converts signed his profession of faith." Hakem now became a rigorous persecutor of the Mohammedans, as well as the Christians and the Jews. He destroyed the Christian Church of the Resurrection at Jerusalem, and a thousand other churches in Syria and Egypt. In a short while, however, he ceased his persecution of the Christians, and allowed them to rebuild their churches. In his civil administration, Hakem was a cruel and meddlesome tyrant. He was constantly interfering in the private affairs of his subjects, especially the women, and punished all infractions of his arbitrary decrees in the most barbarous manner. He condemned the women of Egypt to the most perfect seclusion, and forbade them to appear upon the streets. One day he saw what he supposed to be a woman standing in the streets of Cairo, in defiance of his edict; upon coming nearer, he found that it was only a lay figure, made of pasteboard.

It bore in its hand, however, a card on which was a writing accusing the khalif's sister of immorality. Hakem in a rage let loose his troops upon the inhabitants of Cairo, and massacred a large number of them. He then ordered an inquiry into the morals of his sister, who, alarmed for her own safety, caused him to be assassinated, A. D. 1021.

After the death of Hakem, Hamza fled to Syria and established in the fastnesses of Mount Lebanon the sect of the Druses, who still regard Hakem as their Messiah.

The Fatimite line ended with the Khalif Adhed, who died in A. D. 1171. The later khalifs were feeble princes, monarchs only in name. The real power was held by their viziers or chief ministers. The khalif was shut up either in the mosque or the seraglio, as his instincts inclined him, and the vizier ruled the state in his name. This led to frequent struggles for power which weakened the country very greatly. In the reign of the Khalif Adhed the contestants for the supremacy appealed to the Latin King of Jerusalem and to the Sultan of Damascus, respectively, for assistance. Both of these monarchs were hostile to the Egyptian khalifate, and each responded to the appeals made to him in the hope of overthrowing that power and adding Egypt to his own dominions. The Latin King Almeric headed his own army, but the forces of Noureddin, the Sultan of Damascus, were headed by the Emir Shiracouh, a Kurd by birth, and his nephew Saladin. Three successive expeditions made Shiracouh master of Egypt. The conqueror was then invested by the Khalif Adhed with the office of Grand Vizier of Egypt. He lived only two months after this, and, while he accepted the office conferred upon him by Adhed, always styled himself the subject of Noureddin and his lieutenant in Egypt. At his death he was succeeded by his nephew Saladin, who was generally supposed to be wanting in talent, and too much addicted to pleasure to have much authority in the army. Adhed hoped that Saladin's weakness would enable him to regain his lost power, and for a while it seemed that he would succeed. Saladin's true nature now awoke, however, and he soon made himself master of the Egyptian khalif.

Noureddin now ordered Saladin to put an end to the Fatimite khalifate; but Saladin hesitated, as he feared that so bold a

step would provoke an outbreak of the people. "However, one of his council ascended the oratory before the khatib or general reader, and offered the public prayer in the name of the Khalif of Bagdad. No cry of astonishment, no burst of rage and indignation at this offence to national principles, broke the solemn tranquillity of devotion. In a few days the will of the court spread through the country, and the people silently submitted to the subversion of their altars." Adhed was confined to his bed with his last illness during this revolution, and died in ignorance of it.

Saladin at once seized the treasures of the dead khalif, and shut up the children of the latter in the seraglio. He was confirmed in his office by the Sultan of Damascus. "The green silk on the pulpits in Egypt gave way to the black ensigns of the Abassides, and the schism of two hundred years in the Moslem church was ended."

As long as Nouredin lived, Saladin acknowledged his authority, but at the death of that monarch he proclaimed himself Sultan of Egypt and Syria, and this usurpation was ratified by the Khalif of Bagdad, the spiritual head of Islam, through gratitude to the destroyer of his rival.

The Christian kingdom of Jerusalem had owed its existence to the mutual enmity of the Saracens and the Turks. Now that Saladin's usurpation had made these people practically one, he began to cast longing eyes upon Palestine. A pretext for war was soon afforded him in the violation of the treaty between the Mohammedans and Christians by one of the Latin barons. Saladin rapidly assembled his army, crossed the Jordan, and defeated the Christians in the battle of Hatin, A. D. 1187, in which he took their king, Guy de Lusignan, and his principal commanders prisoners. He followed up this success by the capture of Tiberias, Acre, Jaffa, Casarea, and other towns. Tyre held out under the Marquis of Montferrat, but Jerusalem was compelled to surrender after a long and desperate defence.

This success of the Mohammedans roused Europe to undertake the Third Crusade. Saladin succeeded in holding the greater part of his conquests during the long war which ensued, but at length consented to a treaty by which he surrendered the sea-coast from Jaffa to Tyre to the Christians.

He was more successful in other quarters, and during his reign extended his power over Arabia and a large part of western Asia, so that "at the hour of his death his empire was spread from the African Tripoli to the Tigris, and from the Indian Ocean to the mountains of Armenia."

Saladin died in Palestine A. D. 1193. His dominions were divided among his three sons, who became Sultans of Aleppo, Damascus, and Egypt. Egypt fell to the share of Aziz, and thus became once more separated from Syria. During the next century Egypt was repeatedly harassed by the armies of the European powers which took part in the crusades. These were all successfully repulsed by the descendants of Saladin. The last of these attacks was made by Louis IX. of France, in 1248. The French king brought with him a large and splendid army, and laid siege to Damietta. After some unimportant successes, he was defeated with a loss of 30,000 men, and made prisoner.

Malek Sala, one of the successors of Saladin on the Egyptian throne, bought a large number of captives from Zenghis Khan, and organized them as his body-guard under the name of Mamelukes. To these were added from time to time other captives from the same region—the country around the Caspian Sea. The Mamelukes were the flower of the Egyptian army, and from the first appreciated their power. They dethroned the successor of Malek Sala, and made Ibeg, their leader, sultan in his place. For the next 130 years the Mamelukes ruled Egypt, making and unmaking sultans at their pleasure. Towards the close of the fourteenth century the Circassians, who now comprised the bulk of the Mameluke force, defeated the Turkish Mamelukes, and made their own leader sultan. For the next century anarchy reigned supreme in Egypt.

In 1485 the Ottoman Turks, who had established themselves in Europe, with Constantinople as their capital, turned their arms against Egypt. The war lasted five years, and resulted in the defeat of the Turks by the Mamelukes. Selim I. renewed the war in 1516, and on the 22d of January, 1517, defeated the Mamelukes at Ridania, a little village between the Syrian frontier and Egypt. The Mamelukes lost 25,000 men in this battle, and their power was completely broken. Seven days later Selim occupied Cairo without resistance,

and leaving a garrison there proceeded to overrun the rest of the country. Cairo had no regular fortifications, and a few days later a Mameluke force made a dash at it, captured the city, and exterminated the Turkish garrison. Selim now sent his best troops to retake the city. The Mamelukes barricaded the streets and occupied the houses. For three days they held the city against the Turks, but were at length induced by Selim's promises of amnesty to surrender. Eight hundred Mamelukes gave themselves up, and were at once put to death by the conqueror, who then ordered a general massacre of the citizens, in which 50,000 people are said to have perished. The Mameluke Sultan Touman Bey was soon after captured and put to death, and Egypt was completely in the power of the Turks.

In spite of the anarchy which had prevailed in the government, the period of the Mameluke dominion was not entirely unfavorable to Egypt. Some of the Mameluke sultans were wise and vigorous rulers, and Cairo bears witness in its mosques and tombs to the zeal with which the arts were cultivated during this period. Learning and intellectual pursuits also flourished in the Mameluke capital.

Selim I. made Egypt a province of the Turkish empire. "He resolved to divide authority among the variety of races in the country, and so to secure his imperial sovereignty. He did not extirpate the Mamelukes; nor did he provide for their gradual extinction by forbidding the beys to recruit their households with new slaves from Circassia. Twenty-four beys of the Mamelukes, chosen from those who had acted with the invaders, continued to preside over the departments of the province, and their chief was styled Governor of Egypt. . . . He formed a more effectual and lasting safeguard for the Turkish supremacy by placing a permanent force of 5,000 Spahis and 500 Janissaries in the capital, under the command of the Ottoman Aga Khairaddin, who had orders never to leave the fortifications. This force was recruited from among the inhabitants of Egypt, and formed gradually a provincial militia with high privileges and importance. Selim placed the greater part of the administrative functions of law and religion in the hands of the Arab sheiks, who possessed the greatest influence over the mass of the population, which, like themselves, was of

Arabic origin. The sheiks naturally attached themselves, through religious spirit and inclination, to Constantinople rather than to the Mamelukes, and drew the feelings of the other Arab inhabitants with them. Selim took no heed of the Copts, the aboriginal natives of Egypt; but it was from among this despised class and the Jews that the Mameluke beys generally selected their agents and tax gatherers, and the villages were commonly under the immediate government of Coptic local officers."*

For the next two centuries Egypt was governed by Turkish pashas. This was a period of decay. The country declined in population and wealth, and submitted to the rapacity and greed of its Turkish masters with a docility which showed how completely the ancient Egyptian and Saracenic spirit had been broken by tyranny.

In the eighteenth century the Mamelukes, who had been steadily regaining their power, and who had already attempted several rebellions against the authority of the Sultan of Turkey, threw off their allegiance, and under the leadership of Ali Bey, their ablest chief, proclaimed the independence of Egypt, A. D. 1768. In 1772 Ali Bey was betrayed and poisoned, and the authority of the Turkish sultan was nominally restored. This was followed by more than twenty years of confusion and civil war between the various factions of the Mamelukes.

In 1798 a French army under Napoleon Bonaparte invaded Egypt, with the deliberate intention of conquering the country. This danger united the Mameluke factions in a solid body. On the 21st of July, 1798, they attacked the French at the Pyramids, but were defeated. Their splendid cavalry was almost annihilated. Six days later Cairo submitted to the French, who within a year conquered the whole country.

Napoleon was recalled to France by the state of affairs there in the summer of 1799, and left General Kleber to hold the country he had won. Kleber proved an able successor, but was assassinated by a Turk. His successor, General Menou, was attacked by an English and Turkish army under General Abercrombie, at Canopus, and was defeated. He was soon compelled to surrender Alexandria to the English, and to

* *History of the Ottoman Turks*, by Sir Edward Creasy, p. 149.

consent to evacuate Egypt and return with his army to France, August, 1801.

Egypt was now restored to the sultan. A fresh war broke out between the Turks and the remnant of the Mamelukes, and resulted, in 1806, in the appointment to the pashalic of Egypt of Mehemet Ali, a native of Macedonia, who had served with great distinction in the Turkish armies, and who had recently been the leader of one of the contending factions in Egypt.

Mehemet Ali was a man of great ability. He addressed himself at once to the

in a narrow court, surrounded by high walls, the victims were unable to offer any resistance. This infamous massacre literally exterminated the Mamelukes.

Mehemet Ali was now free to carry out his scheme without interruption. He established his power firmly in Egypt, and his armies under his sons conquered the Wahabites, in Arabia, and brought that country under his sway. Nubia and Senaar were next conquered and added to the Egyptian dominions. Mehemet Ali organized a strong army and an efficient navy on the



LANDING OF THE FRENCH IN EGYPT.

task of restoring order in his province, and did not scruple to use any means to accomplish his object. His first effort was to free the country and himself from the tyranny of the Mamelukes. He accomplished this in 1811 by a stroke of treacherous cruelty. Pretending to be reconciled to the Mamelukes he invited those formidable warriors to meet him at Cairo. Five hundred accepted his invitation, and were lured by him within the citadel, where he fell upon them with his Albanian troops and massacred them to a man. Cooped up

European model, and officered each with European adventurers, chiefly Frenchmen. Harbors and docks were constructed, and manufactures of arms, clothing, and other articles were introduced into Egypt and carefully fostered by the pasha. Under him the country had once more a firm, if a despotic, government, and enjoyed a degree of internal peace and prosperity such as it had not known for centuries. In the Greek Revolution (1821-1827) the Egyptian army and fleet were sent to the assistance of the sultan, and did a considerable share of the

fighting. The fleet was almost destroyed in the battle of Navarino, in October, 1827.

Mehemet Ali's real design was to convert his viceroyalty into an independent hereditary kingdom. Immediately after the close of the Greek war he restored his fleet on a more formidable scale, and increased his army. The empire of the sultan had been seriously weakened by the losses it had sustained since the opening of the century, and the time seemed ripe for the execution of his design. As the price of his services against Greece, Mehemet Ali had been given the pashalic of Crete. He now demanded that of Syria, but was refused by the sultan. He therefore determined to conquer Syria, and a quarrel with the Pasha of Acre gave him a pretext for entering that country. He despatched an army of 40,000 men under Ibrahim Pasha, his son, an experienced and able general, into Palestine, and laid siege to Acre, which he also attacked with his fleet. Acre was captured on the 27th of May, 1832, and the Egyptian forces rapidly overran Palestine and Syria. The armies sent against Ibrahim by the sultan were defeated in succession at Ems, in upper Syria, on the 6th of July, 1832; at Beylan (in Cilicia, near the ancient battlefield of Issus) on the 29th of the same month; and at Konieh, in Asia Minor, on the 29th of October, 1832. Ibrahim was now master of almost the whole of Asia Minor, and was preparing to advance upon Constantinople, which must have fallen before him, when the European powers intervened and compelled Mehemet Ali to accept a settlement, which confirmed him in his pashalics of Egypt and Crete, and added to them those of Jerusalem, Tripoli, Aleppo, Damascus, and Adana, but which left him a vassal of the porte. The treaty was signed on the 8th of July, 1833. It was a great victory for Egypt, and a humiliation to the sultan, and was a virtual surrender of all the countries which the conquests of Selim I. had won for Turkey.

Mehemet Ali steadily pursued his design of converting his dominions into an independent monarchy, and thus aroused the anger of the Sultan Mahmoud II. Mehemet refused to continue the payment of tribute to the porte, and took the bold step of removing the Turkish guards from the Tomb of the Prophet and replacing them with his own Arab soldiers, an act which was an open repudiation of the

authority of the sultan as chief of Islam. This brought the quarrel to a crisis, and after some attempts at negotiation the sultan sent a peremptory order to the Egyptian ruler to restore the Turkish guards at the prophet's tomb; to make prompt payment of his annual tribute, and to acknowledge himself the vassal of the sultan. Mehemet bluntly refused to comply with these demands, and the sultan declared war upon his rebellious vassal A. D. 1839. A large and well-equipped Turkish army crossed the Euphrates, under Hafiz Pasha, and encountered the Egyptian force, under Ibrahim Pasha, at Nezib, on the 25th of June, 1839. Whole regiments of the Turkish army de-



IBRAHIM PASHA.

serted the sultan's standard and went over to the Egyptians. The force which remained firm was routed by Ibrahim with the loss of all its artillery, baggage, and stores. On the 6th of July, 1839, a fleet of thirty-six vessels was despatched from Constantinople to attack Alexandria. It reached Alexandria on the 13th, and was at once surrendered to the Egyptians by its traitorous commander.

Turkey was now once more at the mercy of Egypt, and Constantinople must have fallen had not the European powers again interfered. The English fleet expelled the Egyptian garrisons from the Syrian ports, and aided the sultan's forces to regain possession of that country. Mehemet Ali

was forced to restore the sultan's fleet, and to withdraw his troops from Crete and Asia Minor. A treaty was signed on the 13th of February, 1841, by which Egypt was confirmed to Mehemet Ali and his successors in the direct line, but all his conquests in the first war were restored to the sultan. The Egyptian pasha was to pay a certain annual tribute to the sultan, and to render him specified military and naval assistance on demand.

Mehemet Ali continued to govern Egypt until 1848, when, being eighty years old, his mind began to give way. His son Ibrahim was made pasha in his place, but died two months later, on the 9th of November, 1848.

Abbas Pasha, the nephew of Ibrahim, now became viceroy of Egypt. He had been governor of Cairo, under Mehemet Ali, and had been guilty of such cruelties that when Ibrahim became viceroy he was sent into exile at Hedjaz. Abbas was a true Mohammedan, and endeavored to undo all the work of civilization that had been accomplished by his predecessors. He erected palaces and fortresses in the desert, and would shut himself up in them for months at a time, neglecting his government during such absences. He abolished the educational institutions established by his predecessors, and disbanded the army on the ground of economy. He was a bitter enemy to Europeans, and discharged all who were in the service of the state, and endeavored to drive them out of the country. He refused all concessions to Europeans, with one exception, which consisted in granting leave to an English company to build a railway from Alexandria to Cairo and Suez. In 1852 the sultan ordered the pasha to introduce into Egypt the *Tanzimat*, or fundamental law of Turkey. This code not only gave greater liberties to the people than the Egyptians had yet enjoyed, but also curtailed the autocratic power of the pasha. Abbas at first refused to obey this order, but was at length obliged to do so. He narrowly escaped being called to account by the sultan for his cruelty to his relatives, and owed his immunity to his liberal use of money at Constantinople. He furnished a contingent of 15,000 men to the Turkish army during the Crimean war, and sent large sums of money to the porte. He died suddenly on the 12th of July, 1854. He had threatened the life of a princess of his family, and is believed to

have been assassinated by two Mamelukes in her service.

Said Pasha, the fourth son of Mehemet Ali, succeeded to the viceroyalty. He was a wiser and better ruler than his predecessor. He began his reign by curtailing the powers of the mudirs and sheiks el-beled. He organized a new army and introduced a better system of conscription, established a more equitable system of taxation, and permitted the sale of produce to other purchasers than the government. He also undertook several important internal improvements, among which were the cleansing of the Mahmoudieh canal, which had become a fruitful source of pestilence, and the continuation of the railway from Alexandria to Cairo and Suez. He also gave the first impetus to the construction of the Suez Canal, one of the termini of which appropriately bears his name. The close of the Crimean war found him with a large army, which he used to check the raids of the Bedawin and to invade that part of Nubia which had not yet been annexed, and which he now placed under his protectorate. He died January 18th, 1863.

Ismail Pasha succeeded his uncle Said, and continued in a more enlightened and more vigorous manner the reforms of that ruler. The civil war then in progress in America had produced a great scarcity of cotton, and Ismail took advantage of the demand for that article to introduce the cultivation of it into Egypt. He fostered this new industry with such care and discretion that Egypt is now one of the principal cotton markets of the world. He was the warm friend and patron of the Suez Canal, which was completed and opened on the 17th of November, 1869, in the presence of a large and brilliant assembly of guests from all parts of the world. By the payment of a large sum of money to the porte he obtained a reversal of the Mohammedan law of succession, by which the Egyptian viceroyalty is hereafter to descend from father to son. In 1866 he furnished a corps of 30,000 men to the porte for the suppression of the rebellion in Crete. Soon after this he voluntarily increased the amount of his tribute. In 1867 he obtained from the porte the right to make such laws as were needed for the internal administration of Egypt, and to conclude treaties with foreign powers respecting general transit and postal affairs. He asked the porte to confer upon him the title of "Sovereign of the Land of

Egypt," but was given instead the title of *Khedive* (substitute, or viceroy). He subsequently demanded for Egypt independent legislation and diplomatic representation abroad. The porte now began to see that his aim was absolute independence of Turkey, and refused his requests. Ismail threatened to withdraw his troops from Candia, or to take possession of that island, if his demands were not granted, and for a while a war between the sultan and his vassal was imminent. It was averted by the intervention of the foreign powers,

which he had contracted for in France, and to abstain in future from all diplomatic acts and making loans, and to submit his annual budget of expense for inspection and approval at Constantinople. The khedive refused to comply with these demands, and declared he would make loans whenever and wherever he saw fit. The sultan was about to send an ultimatum to Egypt, but was persuaded by England and France to wait until after the opening of the Suez Canal. The festivities were scarcely over when the khedive received the ultimatum



OPENING OF THE SUEZ CANAL.

which compelled the khedive to relinquish his ambitious designs and submit to the authority of the sultan.

In 1868 Ismail extended his authority over the countries of the upper Nile. In the same year he undertook to negotiate a foreign loan, and sent invitations to the sovereigns of Europe to attend the opening of the Suez Canal. These were the acts of an independent sovereign, and gave great offence to the porte, which ordered him to reduce his army to 30,000 men, to recall his order for iron-clads and improved arms,

of the sultan requiring him to choose between submission and war. Seeing that the European powers would oppose him in his efforts at independence, the khedive, on the 9th of December, 1869, announced his submission to the will of the sultan, and for a time laid by his plans for independence.

Ismail now devoted himself to an effort to bring the country south of Egypt, as far as the sources of the Nile, under his authority. He was in a large measure successful in this attempt. He was also obliged to undertake several wars with Abyssinia, in which

he was generally successful. "Through the other native territories he has drawn a military cordon and opened roads for traffic. His intention is to transform those regions into an agricultural district; he supplies the chiefs with seed and holds them under obligation to furnish certain quantities of produce. Thus he has made their stores of ivory, gums, hides, wax, gold, etc., more accessible; and the railways and telegraphs, which he is now rapidly building through Nubia, as well as his control over the Red Sea and the Suez Canal, enable him to secure the wealth of these districts for the benefit of the lower provinces."

These efforts to build up the prosperity of Egypt won back for the khedive the favor of the sultan, and on the 8th of June, 1873, a firman was granted by the latter confirming the privileges enjoyed by the predecessors of Ismail, and changing the position of Egypt from a province into an almost sovereign kingdom. "The firman authorizes the khedive to make laws and internal regulations; to organize every means of defence, and without restriction to augment or diminish the number of his

troops; to contract with foreign powers commercial treaties, and others regulating the position of foreigners, and their intercourse with the government and the population; and to contract loans abroad in the name of the Egyptian government, with complete and entire control of the financial affairs of the country. The khedive is forbidden to make treaties bearing on political matters; he can have no agents accredited at foreign courts; the money coined in Egypt must be coined in the name of the sultan; the colors of the Egyptian army and navy must be in no way different from those of the Turkish forces; iron-clad vessels must not be built without the permission of the sultan. The khedive retains the privilege of conferring military promotions up to the rank of colonel, and civil grades to that of *rutbeh-i-sanih* only. Finally, he is bound to remit every year, in full, and without delay, to the Turkish treasury, 150,000 purses of tribute."

Upon the commencement of hostilities between Russia and Turkey, in 1877, the khedive sent a strong contingent of troops to Europe for service in the Turkish army.

BOOK III.

THE HISTORY OF CHALDÆA.

CHAPTER I.

RISE AND FALL OF THE CHALDÆAN MONARCHY.

Chaldæa the most Ancient Asiatic Monarchy—Extent of the Country—Its Geographical Position—Physical Characteristics—The Tigris and the Euphrates—Climate—Fertility of Chaldæa—Vegetable Products—Animals—Foundation of the Chaldæan Monarchy by Nimrod—Character of Nimrod—His Successors—The Fourth and Fifth Dynasties—Relations with Assyria—Chaldæa Conquered by Assyria—The Civilization of Chaldæa—Its Cities—Temples—Commerce—Influence of Chaldæa upon the Ancient World—Religion—Food and Habits of the People.

THE most ancient of the monarchies of Asia was Chaldæa. The country occupied by this kingdom consisted of a portion of the fertile district which breaks about its centre the broad belt of desert which traverses the eastern hemisphere from

the Atlantic on the west, to the Yellow Sea on the east. This region is divided into a western plain, whose features bear a general resemblance to those of the Nile valley, though on a larger scale; and an eastern mountainous region "consisting for the most part of five or six parallel ranges, and mounting in many places far above the level of perpetual snow." The western plain, lying between the Syro-Arabian desert and the foot of the great mountain range of Kurdistan and Luristan, was in ancient times the seat of three of the great empires of the world, and was known to the Jews as *Aram-Nabarin*, or "Syria of the two rivers," and to the Greeks and Romans as *Mesopotamia*. It owes its distinctive features, its importance, and its fertility to the two great rivers which traverse it—the Euphrates and the Tigris. This is true to a greater extent of lower than of upper

Mesopotamia; "for of lower Mesopotamia," says Professor Rawlinson, "it may be said with more truth than of Egypt, that it is an 'acquired land,' the actual gift of the two streams which wash it on either side; being, as it is, entirely a recent formation—a deposit which the streams have made in the shallow waters of a gulf into which they have flowed for many ages."

Chaldæa occupied the southern portion of this great plain, and extended from the Persian Gulf on the south to the natural limit between upper and lower Mesopotamia on the north, and from the Tigris on the east to the Arabian desert on the west. It seems that the Persian Gulf at the period of the establishment of the Chaldæan monarchy extended about 120 or 130 miles farther north than it does at present, and that it has gradually receded to the southward to its present limits. Therefore a tract of land, 130 miles long, by some sixty or seventy miles wide, has been gained from the sea in the course of forty centuries. Primitive Chaldæa would thus be reduced to a district covering about 23,000 square miles.

This region was always monotonous and featureless. Its rivers are its chief geographical features—almost its only ones. At present it consists of a vast level, broken only by single solitary mounds, which mark the sites of its ancient cities and temples, and by lines of crumbling embankments which show the course of its now choked-up canals. The landscape, except in the early spring, is parched and dreary in color. The only verdure is found along the rivers and in the marshy tracts.

On the northeast of this region, and extending far beyond its northern limit to the main range of the Taurus, of which it forms the eastern prolongation, is the chain of the ancient Niphates mountains, the loftiest of the many parallel ranges which rise between the Mesopotamian plain and the Euxine Sea. In many places it passes the line of perpetual snow. The Tigris takes its rise on the southwestern and the Euphrates on the northeastern slopes of this range. The latter breaks through the mountain range near the source of the Tigris, and thence pursues a tortuous course to the Persian Gulf. Both are rivers of the first class, the Tigris being 1,146 miles, and the Euphrates 1,780 miles in length. Both are strong, full streams, and are navigable for a considerable distance. The Euphrates has few tribu-

aries after leaving the mountains, having none in the last 800 miles of its course; the Tigris is constantly receiving the waters of other streams along its entire course. The Tigris is therefore a larger and deeper stream in its lower part than the Euphrates. Both rivers rise many feet in the spring of the year, and overflow their banks in several places. The Tigris inundates the country along its lower course, between the 31st and 32d parallels of latitude. The flood of the Euphrates covers a more extensive region, spreading as high up as its junction with the Khabour. From Hit to the southward it overflows both banks. Its flood is variable according to the inclination of the plain and the nature of its banks. "If care is taken, the inundation may be pretty equally distributed on either side of the stream; but if the river banks are neglected, it is sure to flow mainly to the west, rendering the whole country on that side the river a swamp, and leaving the territory on the left bank almost without water." Though these overflows do not deposit a fresh soil, as is the case in the Nile valley, they are the cause of the fertility of the Mesopotamian plain, and in ancient times were conducted throughout its whole extent by a system of canals.

The climate of this region is moderate and pleasant in winter. Frost is known, but it is very slight; ice rarely forms in the marshes, and snow is unknown. Heavy rains fall in November and December. As the spring advances the rains become slighter. Summer begins about May, and until November there is scarcely any rain. For weeks and months the sky is cloudless. The summer is intensely hot. The heat is tempered only, at morning and evening, by a slight haze, which for a time breaks the force of the sun's rays. At this season the phenomenon of the mirage is very common, and is witnessed in its most beautiful form.

The fertility of the land is very great. In ancient times enormous crops were raised from it. Modern travellers agree that by a proper system of irrigation and careful cultivation this region might once more be made one of the most fruitful sections of the earth. The principal products were wheat and dates. "According to the native tradition, wheat was indigenous in Chaldæa. Its tendency to grow leaves was so great that the Babylonians used to mow it twice and then pasture their cattle on it for a while, to keep down the blade, and induce

the plant to run to ear." The ultimate return was from fifty to one hundred fold. The cultivation of the date-palm was extensively pursued; the date forming one of the principal articles of diet among the people. Barley, millet, vetches, sesame, and fruits of all kinds grew in profusion. Another product was the reed, which grew in dense thickets in the marshes, rising often to a height of fourteen or fifteen feet. The dwellings of the poorer class were constructed of reeds and mats made of leaves. Boats were also made of reed frames covered with leaves and a coating of bitumen.

Chaldæa was destitute of stone or minerals of any kind. The stone used in its buildings was brought from other countries. The country contained an inexhaustible supply of clay, from which excellent bricks were made. It abounded in bitumen, which made an admirable cement.

The wild animals indigenous in Chaldæa were the lion, the leopard, the hyæna, the lynx, the wild cat, the wolf, the jackal, the wild boar, the buffalo, the stag, the gazelle, the jerboa, the fox, the hare, the badger, and the porcupine. Domestic animals were also numerous, and were chiefly the camel, the horse, the buffalo, the cow, the ox, the goat, the sheep, and the dog.

The early history of Chaldæa is obscure and uncertain. It would seem that after the dispersion of the other descendants of Noah from the plains of Babel, Nimrod, a descendant of Ham, remained in the great plain and established a kingdom in the region lying at the head of the Persian Gulf. The unfinished tower was converted into a temple, and other buildings were erected around it made of bricks from the clay of the plain. Thus Babylon was founded by Nimrod, who is also regarded as the founder of the empire. The date assigned to this event, with which Chaldæan history opens, is one or two centuries anterior to the year B. C. 2286. Nimrod's kingdom extended from Babylon to the sea. Being a monarch of great personal prowess and ambition—a "mighty hunter before the Lord"—he extended his dominion over the neighboring tribes, and by the strength of his character and his great achievements succeeded in establishing a nation in lower Mesopotamia, which he governed with a firm hand from his capital, the city of Ur or Hur, situated on the right bank of the Euphrates, a short distance from its mouth. He built, in addition to Babylon, the cities of Erech or

Hurak, Accad, and Calneh. Of the other events of his reign we know nothing. The impression he made upon his country is remarkable. He was evidently one of the greatest men of the ancient world. By his own nation he was deified, and was, down to the latest times, one of the principal objects of worship, under the title of *Bilu-Nipru*, or Bel-Nimrod, "the god of the chase," or "the great hunter." Rawlinson thinks the name given by the Arabian astronomers to the constellation of Orion—*El Jabbar*, "the giant"—was in memory of Nimrod. Nor has he been forgotten by the ignorant people who dwell in his land to-day. He forms, with Solomon and Alexander the Great, one of the three heroes of ancient times who alone seem to have been remembered by them when all others have been forgotten.

We have no account of the immediate successors of Nimrod. It would seem that his conquests were followed, at some uncertain period, by an emigration of Semitic and Hamitic tribes to the northward. The Assyrians, a Semitic people, withdrew to upper Mesopotamia and laid the foundations of their monarchy along the middle Tigris; the Phœnicians, a Hamitic race, passed to the country of Canaan, and settled along the shores of the Mediterranean, where they founded a kingdom of their own. The race from which Abraham sprang passed into northern Mesopotamia.

One of the kings of this early dynasty was Urkham or Uruk. He is the earliest Chaldæan monarch of whom any traces have been found in the country. He began his reign about B. C. 2326. He built numerous gigantic structures, which seem to have been designed almost exclusively as temples. They are massive in size, but rude in execution. The bricks of which they are constructed are rough, and are put together in an awkward manner, moist mud or bitumen being used as mortar. "In his architecture," says Professor Rawlinson, "though there is much that is rude and simple, there is also a good deal which indicates knowledge and experience." Astronomy also seems to have been cultivated during the reign of this king. Ur was the capital of the kingdom in this reign; Babylon not yet being a place of importance. Uruk was succeeded by his son Elgi or Ilgi, who also styles himself "King of Ur." His signet-cylinder has been recovered, and is now in the British Museum.

After the reign of Elgi there is a blank in Chaldæan history, broken by the conquest of the country by an Elamitic dynasty from Susa, about B. C. 2286. The first of these kings was Kudur-Nakhunta, who appears to have governed Chaldæa by a viceroy, while he held his court at Susa. Another was Kudur-Lagamer, who also reigned at Susa and divided Chaldæa into several provinces which he governed by viceroys.

A third dynasty came to the throne about B. C. 2052, and numbered eleven kings, whose total reigns make up a period of only forty-eight years. This dynasty may be said to mark the transition between the period of national subjection to the Elamite kings and that of complete independence under the succeeding dynasty (the fourth), which was one of native Chaldæan kings. This dynasty came into power about B. C. 2004, and reigned until B. C. 1546. It consisted of about eight or ten monarchs; but little is known of the events of their reigns.

The Fifth Dynasty flourished from about B. C. 1546 to B. C. 1300. It was founded by Khammurabi, an Arab chief, who, taking advantage of the weakness and depression of Chaldæa under the last king of the Fourth Dynasty, succeeded in making himself master of the country. He appears to have reigned about twenty-six years, and left the crown to his son. He was a great and wise king, and seems to have been the first to comprehend the benefits to be derived by the country from a proper system of irrigation. He constructed a canal from one of the rivers of the country for this purpose, and he says in one of his inscriptions, that it "changed desert plains into well-watered fields; it spread around fertility and abundance." He constructed several important buildings. Babylon seems to have been the seat of his court. During the existence of this dynasty intimate relations were maintained with Assyria, which had now become an independent power. The two nations were sometimes bound together by treaties of alliance, and sometimes by royal marriages. Towards the close of the period Assyria once intervened in the affairs of Chaldæa to depose a usurping king and place on the throne the son of the monarch who had been murdered by the leader of the revolution. After this the friendly relations between the two countries appear to be interrupted; and finally, in about B. C. 1300, Tiglathi-Nin, King of

Assyria, invaded and conquered Chaldæa, which was merged into the Assyrian monarchy, and continued for centuries to form a part of that kingdom.

The early periods of Chaldæan history are marked by the advance made by the people in civilization and the arts. As early as the era of Nimrod, Babylon, Erech or Orchoë, Accad, Calneh, and Ur were flourishing cities. The plan of these cities was rectangular, and the walls and buildings were of brick cemented usually with bitumen. Many of the edifices of this period were colossal in size. The temples were usually pyramidal in shape, and were built in successive steps or stages to a considerable height. They were placed so as to face the cardinal points of the compass. Writing was in use, as is shown by the



CHALDÆAN PRIEST.

CHALDÆAN DIVINER.

legends stamped in the baked bricks of this period. Gems were cut, polished, and engraved with portraits. The art of working in metals was known, and arms, ornaments, and useful implements were constructed of various metals. Cloths and textile fabrics of a delicate tissue were manufactured. Astronomy was cultivated, and the results of observations of the heavenly bodies were carefully recorded. Commerce was also carried on by both land and sea with the neighboring nations. The "ships of Ur" navigated the Persian Gulf and traded with the people along its shores.

"The Chaldæan monarchy," says Professor Rawlinson, "is rather curious from its antiquity than illustrious from its great names, or admirable for the extent of its dominions. Less ancient than the Egyp-

tian, it claims the advantage of priority over every empire or kingdom which has grown up upon the soil of Asia. The Arian, Turanian, and even Semitic tribes, appear to have been in the nomadic condition, when the Cushite settlers of lower Babylonia betook themselves to agriculture, erected temples, built cities, and established a strong and settled government. The heaven which was to spread by degrees through the Asiatic peoples was first deposited on the shores of the Persian Gulf at the mouth of the 'Great River;' and hence civilization, science, letters, art, extended themselves northward and eastward and westward. Assyria, Media, Semitic Babylonia, Persia, as they derived from Chaldæa the character of their writing, so were they indebted to the same country for their general notions of government and administration, for their architecture, for their decorative art, and still more for their science and literature. Each people no doubt modified in some measure the boon received, adding more or less of its own to the common inheritance. But Chaldæa stands forth as the great parent and original inventress or Asiatic civilization, without any rival that can reasonably dispute her claim."

The religion of Chaldæa was from the earliest period of which we have any record a polytheism of the grossest kind. Fifteen or sixteen principal gods were worshipped, and a number of inferior or secondary divinities. Local gods abounded, every town being under the protection of its own particular divinity. Our knowledge of this system is still incomplete. The most important deities appear to have been: 1. Il, or Ra, the principal divinity, but of whom we know scarcely anything. 2. A triad, consisting of Ana, Bil or Belus, and Hea or Hoa. These correspond to the classical Pluto, Jupiter, and Neptune, and each is accompanied by a female principle or wife. The wife of Ana is Anat; of Bil or Bel, Mulita or Beltis; and of Hea, Davkina. 3. A second triad, consisting of Sin or Hurki, the moon god; San or Sansi, the sun; and Vul, the god of the atmosphere. Each of these has his female principle or wife. The wife of Sin or Hurki is a goddess commonly called "the great lady," whose name is uncertain; the wife of San or Sansi is Gula or Anunit; the wife of Vul is Shala or Tala. These gods and god-

esses stand at the head of the Chaldæan Pantheon. Following them is a group of five minor deities, who represented the five planets, viz.: Nin or Ninip (Saturn), Mero-dach (Jupiter), Nergal (Mars), Ishtar (Venus), and Nebo (Mercury). These, with the others already named, constituted the principal gods of the Chaldæans. The inferior deities are too numerous to be mentioned here.

"The striking resemblance of the Chaldæan system to that of classical mythology seems worthy of particular attention. This resemblance is too general, and too close in some respects, to allow of the supposition that mere accident has produced the coincidence. In the Pantheons of Greece and Rome, and in that of Chaldæa, the same general grouping is to be recognized; the same genealogical succession is not unfrequently to be traced; and in some cases even the familiar names and titles of classical divinities admit of the most curious illustrations and explanations from Chaldæan sources. We can scarcely doubt but that, in some way or other, there was a communication of beliefs—a passage in very early times from the shores of the Persian Gulf to the lands washed by the Mediterranean, of mythological notions and ideas. It is a probable conjecture that 'among the primitive tribes who dwelt on the Tigris and Euphrates, when the cuneiform alphabet was invented, and when such writing was first applied to the purposes of religion, a Scythic or Scytho-Arian race existed, who subsequently migrated to Europe and brought with them those mythical traditions which, as objects of popular belief, had been mixed up in the nascent literature of their native country,' and that these traditions were passed on to the classical nations, who were in part descended from this Scythic or Scytho-Arian people."

The food of the people consisted of the vegetable products of the country. The dates which abound here formed then, as now, the main sustenance of the inhabitants. Fish and chickens and the wild boar were also eaten, at least by the wealthier classes; though animal food would seem to have been rare. In the towns the houses were of brick; in the rural districts they were mere huts of reed plastered with slime. The dwellings of even the wealthy appear to have been rude and coarse.

BOOK IV.

THE HISTORY OF THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE.

CHAPTER I.

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE MONARCHY—
THE EARLY KINGS.

Description of Assyria—Its Geographical Position and Area—Eastern and Western Assyria—The Mountainous Region—Cities of Assyria—Climate—Fertility of the Country—Mineral Wealth—Animals—Character of the People—Foundation of the Assyrian Kingdom—Asshur—Relations with Chaldæa—Early Kings—Babylon Conquered—Conquests of Tiglath-Pileser I.—Character of the Civilization of Assyria—Use of Letters—Mode of Preserving Official Records—Assyrian Art—Sargon's Palace—The Bas-Reliefs—The Assyrian Military System—The Royal Dignity—Musical Instruments—Dress of the People—Religion of the Assyrians.

ASSYRIA, properly speaking, occupied the upper portion of the Mesopotamian valley. It was bounded on the north by Mount Masius, according to some writers, according to others by the course of the Tigris from Diarbekr to Til. On the east its limits were marked by the high and difficult chain of the Zagros mountains. Its western boundary was the Euphrates, and its southern the northern limit of Chaldæa. The Tigris divided it into two unequal sections, which may be termed Eastern and Western Assyria. The extreme length of the country, from Diarbekr, on the north, to the Chaldean border, on the south, was about 350 miles, and the width from the Zagros mountains to the Euphrates varied from 300 to 170 miles, giving to Assyria an area of about 75,000 square miles.

Eastern Assyria, though smaller than the section lying west of the Tigris, was the most densely inhabited and most important part of the kingdom. It contained three out of the four great cities of the country. It consists of a series of rich and productive plains, which are well watered by numerous streams which flow from the mountains into the Tigris. These plains are separated from each other by detached ranges of hills which run in a direction generally parallel

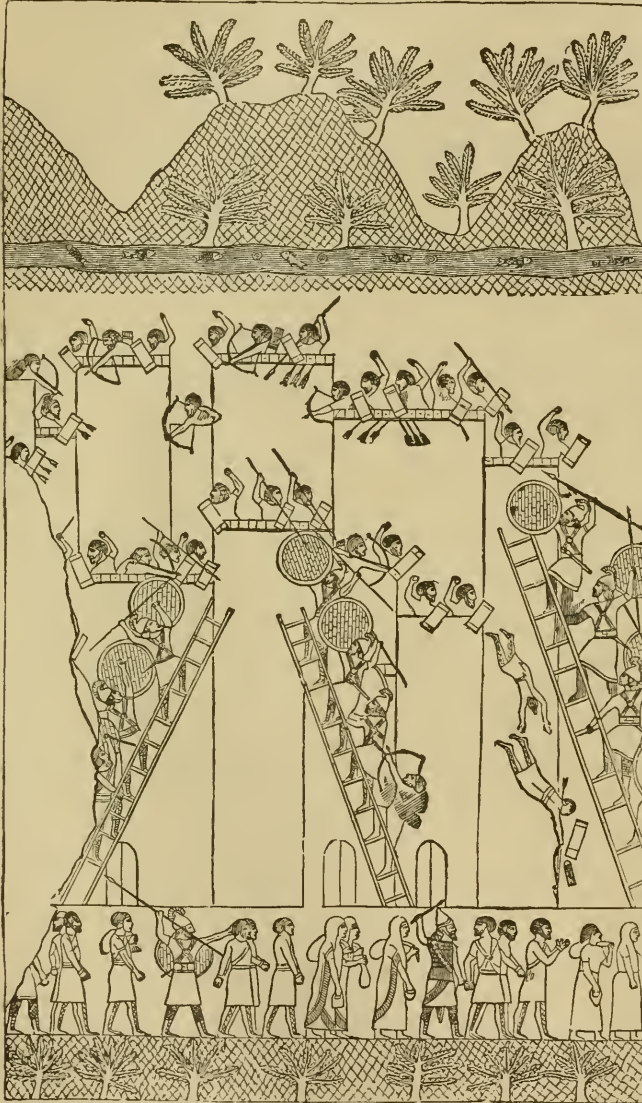
to the Zagros chain, and supply numerous brooks and small streams which traverse the country in addition to the rivers. All the streams generally flow through deep beds, which are concealed from view from the plains, except when swollen by the rains and melting snows, when they run with full banks, and even overflow the level country. Western Assyria is a less favored region. It is scantily supplied with water, and depends upon irrigation for its fertility. "The general character of the country is level, but not alluvial. A line of mountains, rocky and precipitous, but of no great elevation, stretches across the northern part of the region, running nearly due east and west, and extending from the Euphrates at Rum-kaleh to Til and Chelek upon the Tigris. Below this a vast, slightly undulating plain extends from the northern mountains to the Babylonian alluvium, only interrupted about midway by a range of low limestone hills called the Sinjar, which, leaving the Tigris near Mosul, runs nearly from east to west across central Mesopotamia, and strikes the Euphrates halfway between Rakkah and Kerkesiyeh, nearly in longitude 40°." The country north of the Sinjar range to Mount Masius is an undulating plain resembling the rolling prairies of North America. Water is scarce. Only small streams descend from the Sinjar range, and these are soon absorbed by the thirsty earth. Gypsum abounds in the soil, which is here naturally sterile and difficult of cultivation. Traces of volcanic action are numerous. Basaltic fragments lie thick over the plain, and near the confluence of the two chief branches of the Khaboor are found several old craters of extinct volcanoes. The Sinjar range is composed of a soft white limestone.

The true heart of Assyria was the region lying along the Tigris from latitude 30° to 36° 30'. Within these limits were gathered the great cities of the kingdom and the bulk of the population. One of these, Asshur, the primitive capital, now called

Kileh-Sherghat, stood on the west bank of the Tigris, but Nineveh, Calah (now Nimrud), and Dur-Sargina (city of Sargon) now called Khorsabad, lay on the east of that stream. Other cities, many of them places of note, studded the country east of the

miles below Calah, on the right bank of the Tigris. Dur-Sargina, or Khorsabad, was nine miles east of north from the northern angle of the wall of Nineveh.

The climate of Assyria differs in its various regions. That of eastern Assyria, owing to the proximity of the lofty, snow-capped range of Zagros, is cooler and moister than the climate of the region west of the Tigris. The mountain breezes moderate the summer heats. The winters are moderately severe. Rain falls heavily in the winter, and even in the spring. Heavy dews are also experienced after the rains have subsided. The most southern part of Assyria, west of the Tigris, from latitude 34° to the Chaldean border, possesses a climate similar to that of the last-named country. Central western Assyria is cooler than the district lying south of it. The summer heats are oppressive during the middle of the day, but the mornings and nights are pleasant. Considerable rain and snow fall in winter, but this season is brief and not very severe. The mountain region which forms the northern part of western Assyria possesses a colder and more rigorous climate than the central region. The temperature in winter falls eight or ten degrees below zero. The district has an average elevation of 1,300 feet, and lies near the great mountain range of Armenia, which is covered with perpetual snow. Hence the severe winters. Heavy snows fall, which lie on the



A CITY TAKEN BY ASSAULT, AND THE INHABITANTS LED AWAY CAPTIVE. FROM AN ASSYRIAN BAS-RELIEF.

Tigris. The western region also contained a number of important places. Nineveh lay opposite the modern Mosul. Calah was about twenty miles to the south of Nineveh by the direct route, and about thirty by the course of the Tigris. Asshur was forty

ground for several weeks. The spring is wet and stormy, but the summer and autumn are fine.

Taken as a whole, ancient Assyria was a region of great fertility. It did not possess as many actual advantages as its

southern neighbor, Chaldæa, but careful cultivation and irrigation drew rich returns from the soil. The citron flourished, and the mulberry gave nourishment to an unusually large silk-worm not found elsewhere. The most of the edible vegetables appear to have been cultivated in Assyria. In the south, the date palm, the orange, and the lemon were grown. The pomegranate, the olive, the vine, the apricot, and the fig flourished in all parts of the country.

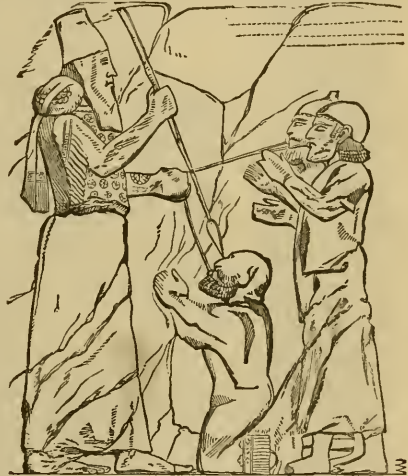
Assyria was better supplied with minerals than Babylon. Stone of a good quality abounded in all parts of the country. Iron, copper and lead still exist in great abundance in the Tiyari mountains, not far from Nineveh, and in other places. The Khurdish mountains supplied silver and antimony, and perhaps other metals. Bitumen, naphtha, petroleum, sulphur, alum, and salt were also among the mineral products of Assyria.

The wild animals of the country consisted of the lion, the leopard, the lynx, the wild cat, the hyæna, the wild ass, the bear, the deer, the gazelle, the ibex, the wild sheep, the wild boar, the jackall, the wolf, the fox, the beaver, the jerboa, the porcupine, the badger and the hare. The tiger is believed to have been found in Assyria at a very early period. The rivers abounded in fish, and the marshy thickets with wild fowl. The domestic animals were the camel, the horse, the ass, the mule, the sheep, the goat, the ox, the cow, and the dog.

The Assyrians were a strongly religious people, paying great attention to the worship of their gods. They were also a fierce, treacherous race, delighting in the dangers of the chase and in war. The Assyrian troops were notably among the most formidable of ancient warriors, but that they were not specially cruel is shown by the enormous number of male prisoners captured by them in war. They never kept faith when it was to their interest to break treaties, and were regarded with suspicion by their neighbors in consequence of this characteristic. In mental power they deserve to be ranked among the foremost of the Asiatic races.

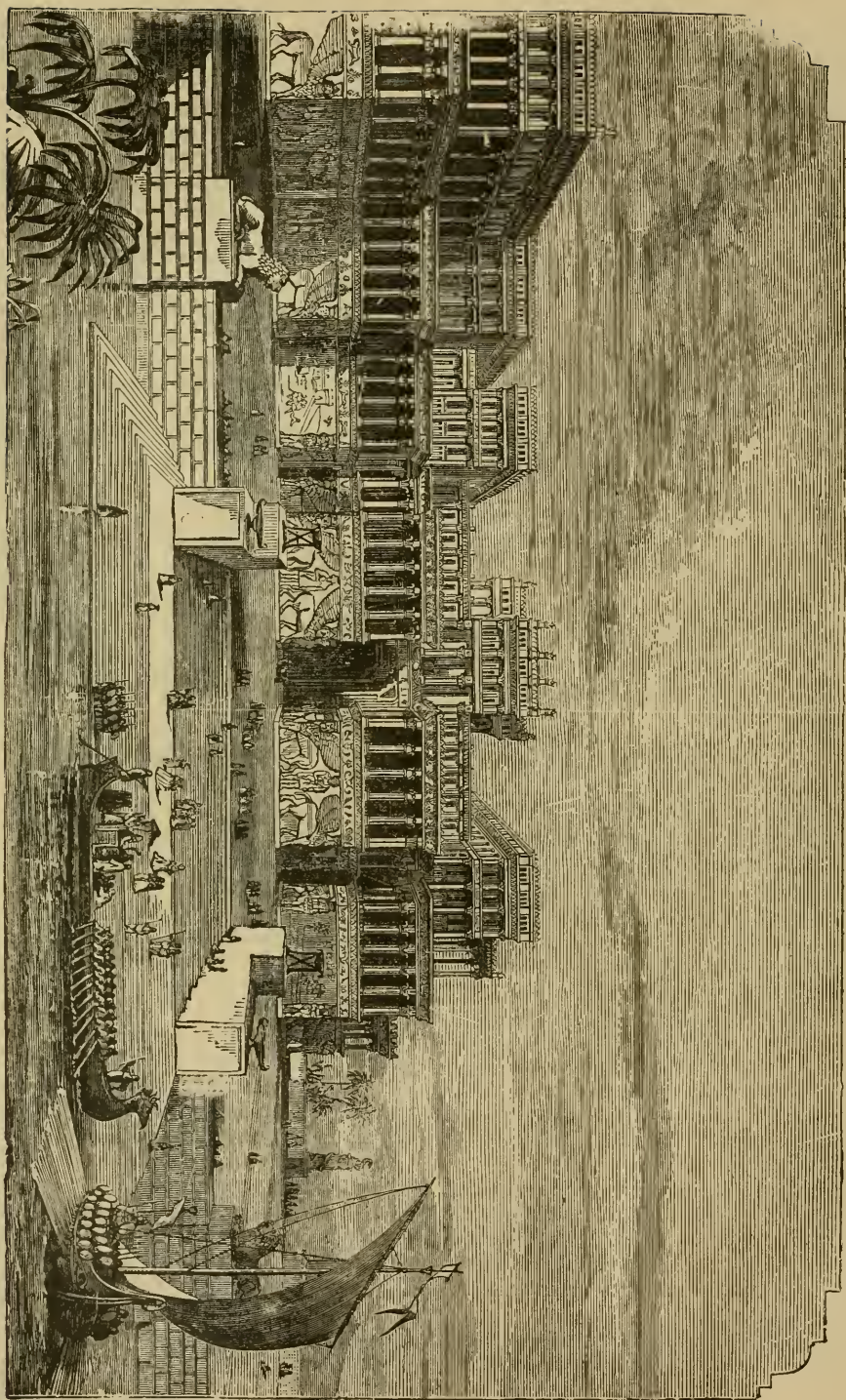
As has been stated in the account of the Chaldæan monarchy, the conquests of Nimrod were followed at some uncertain period by an emigration of the Semitic inhabitants of the lower country to the northward. The exact time of this removal is unknown, and

it is also uncertain whether it was a voluntary act on the part of the Assyrians, or an enforced colonization carried out by the Chaldæan kings. The tribe, or tribes, from which sprang the Assyrians, removed from Chaldæa to the upper country along the middle Tigris, and there erected a city to which they gave their own tribal name of Asshur. It seems certain that for some time after their removal the Assyrians were governed by rulers appointed by, or under the supremacy of, the Chaldæan kings. Gradually, however, they became stronger, and at length were able to gratify their natural longings for independence by throwing off the Chaldæan rule, and establishing a separate monarchy of their own. The seat of the empire was at Asshur. The date of



SHALMANESER PUTTING OUT THE EYES OF A CAPTIVE, WHO, WITH OTHERS, IS HELD PRISONER BY A HOOK IN THE LIPS.

the establishment of the monarchy is uncertain. Some of the early kings were connected by marriage with the Chaldæan sovereigns, and the two nations existed side by side for a considerable period, as friends. Assyria also took part in the struggles of the pretenders to the Chaldæan crown, and one of the kings, Asshur-upallit, interfered to place the crown on the head of the rightful heir, who was his relative. One of the kings of this period, Shalmaneser I. (about B. C. 1320), conducted successful wars in the Niphates mountains, and planted cities in that region. He also built Calah (now Nimrud), on the east bank of the Tigris, forty miles above Asshur. It is evident from this that the kingdom had grown far to the north, and had become stronger and



ROYAL PALACE AT NINEVEH.

more populous, and had fairly entered upon its remarkable career of conquest and internal prosperity. The arts of this period were rude, however; letters were used sparingly, and civilization was still in its infancy. The cities erected at this time were quadrangular in shape; the temples were pyramidal towers; and the royal palaces were built on lofty artificial mounds.

Shalmaneser was succeeded by his son Tiglath-Nin I., who was probably the original of the Greek Ninus. This monarch established the supremacy of his own nation by the conquest of Babylon (about B. C. 1300). It must not be supposed, however, that Chaldæa was from this time continuously a part of the Assyrian kingdom. It was probably thus subject for about a century, but then the yoke of Assyria seems to have been shaken off by a line of kings of apparently Assyrian descent, who were hostile to Assyria, and were engaged in frequent wars with that power. All that the latter appears to have been able to accomplish was to preserve her supremacy over Babylon, which was content to hold a secondary position in western Asia, acknowledging the suzerainty of the Ninivite kings.

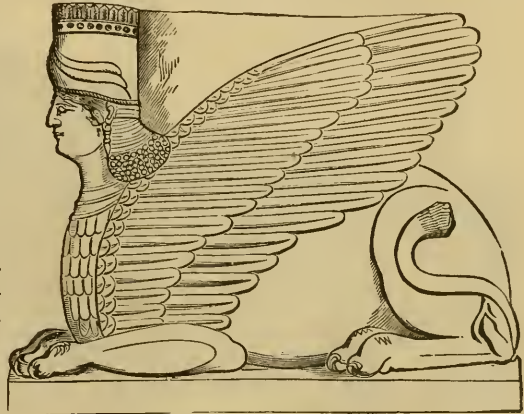
The immediate successors of Tiglath-Nin were unimportant. Asshur-ri-ilm, who reigned about B. C. 1150–1130, was a monarch of greater pretensions than his predecessors. He seems to have engaged extensively in foreign wars, and to have paved the way for the conquests of his greater son, Tiglath-Pileser I. He invaded Babylonia and carried on a war against a king named Nebuchadnezzar (Nabu-kudur-uzur), and by some writers it is believed that he carried his arms farther south into Palestine, and that he is the monarch mentioned in the Book of Judges as Chushan-ri-athaim, "King of Mesopotamia," who is said to have held the Israelites in subjection for eight years. This identification rests upon very uncertain grounds.

Tiglath-Pileser I. came to the throne about B. C. 1130. He subdued the tribes in the region of Mount Zagros, and conquered northern Syria. He also waged a successful war against Babylonia. He appears to have been a famous hunter. He erected several great temples, and palaces and castles for his own use, and improved the system of irrigation. He also introduced foreign cattle into Assyria, and un-

dertook the naturalization of foreign vegetable products in the kingdom. During his reign the strength of the army was increased, and the limits and power of the kingdom were extended. Assyria in this reign stands out as a compact and powerful kingdom, centralized under a single monarch, with a single great capital, in the midst of half-civilized and weak and divided nations.

Asshur-bil-kala succeeded his father, Tiglath-Pileser I. Nothing is known of him except that he waged war in lower Mesopotamia. He appears to have reigned from about B. C. 1110 to B. C. 1090.

Let us glance now at the civilization of the Assyrians as revealed by their monuments. This view will embrace the entire period of their history, and is introduced here for purposes of convenience.



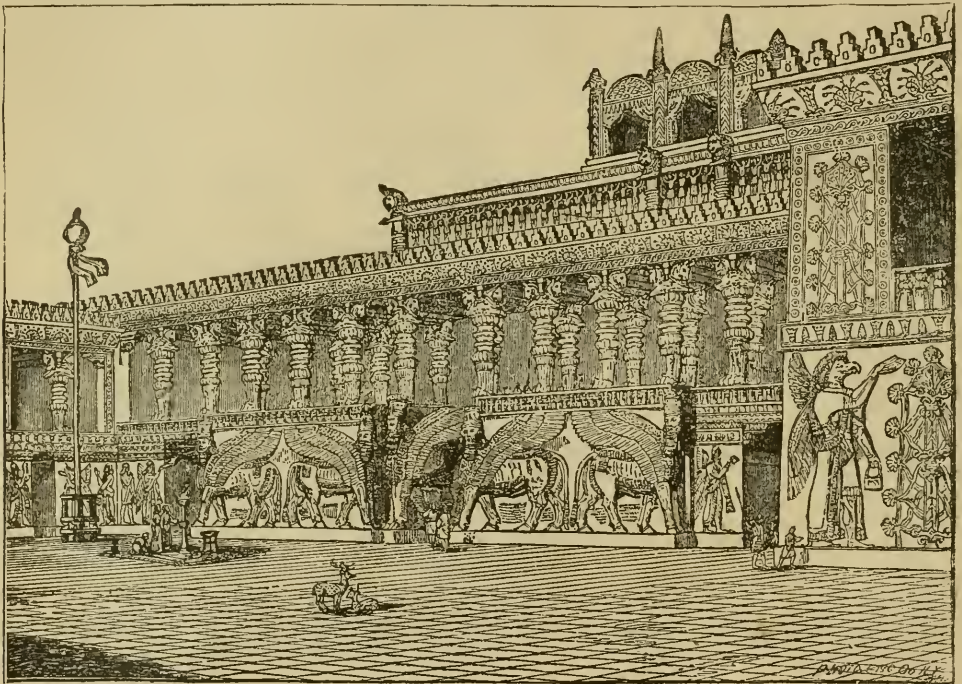
ASSYRIAN SPHYNX.

The Assyrians at an early period made use of letters, and kept a carefully prepared record of their history. These records were either engraved on stone, or were stamped on bricks. These bricks were of two kinds—sun-dried and kiln-burned. The former would simply be hardened by fire; the latter could not be affected by water. The records were stamped on both kinds of brick, and were thus preserved from the two great dangers of fire and flood, to which Assyria was subject. All the writings of this nation seem to have been upon materials of this description. Paper, such as was used in Egypt, may have been employed for some of the public documents, but very rarely. None has been found in any of the mounds opened by modern explorers.

As workers in metals and ivory, as

glass-blowers, as designers, as architects, engravers, sculptors and embroiderers of dresses, the Assyrians far surpassed all the nations of the East. Their architecture was less massive than that of the Egyptians. Although stone was plentiful in eastern Assyria, brick was preferred in the construction of their edifices. Their most magnificent buildings were their royal palaces. Less religious than the Egyptians and Greeks, they showed more attention to the king than to the gods, and their temples were insignificant compared with the royal residences. The most complete of the Assyrian palaces that has yet been uncov-

centre. "In the interior arrangements of the building there was neither regularity nor symmetry. Two-thirds of the north-west part was occupied by the grand reception hall and its large and sumptuous galleries, with walls cased with bas-reliefs; one-third, to the southeast, by the inhabited apartments, with smaller and less decorated rooms. Passages opened into two of the sides of the large court; one on the north-west led to a square esplanade, or court, occupying the northern angle of the artificial mound of the palace, in front of a building touching the northwest face of the seraglio, with which it had no internal com-

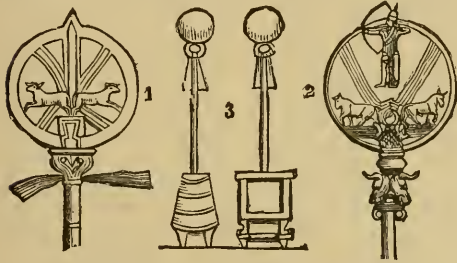


COURT OF SARGON'S PALACE.

ered is that of Sargon, at Khorsabad. It exhibits the architecture of this nation, and also its decorative art and sculpture, in their highest forms. Like all Assyrian palaces, it stands on the summit of an immense mound constructed of bricks. The mound was arranged in two platforms of unequal height, in the form of the letter T. The palace proper stood on the loftier mound, and consisted of a series of buildings ranged around immense courts. The main building, occupied by the king, stood at the bottom of the principal court, and possessed a perfectly regular façade, with a magnificently ornamented gateway in the

munication. This building was most lavishly ornamented; it comprised six immense halls decorated with sculpture, and some other smaller rooms. It was, we may almost say, a second palace grafted on to the first—a second selamlik, rivalling in splendor that of the seraglio. . . . The passage opening into the southeast side of the reception hall of the seraglio led to the lower platform, and to the great court of the offices. The lower platform of the artificial hill built up for the palace of Sargon was occupied by the khan and the barem. This portion of the edifice looked towards the city, and communicated directly with

it. In the midst was the khan, properly so called; that is, an immense square court, surrounded on all sides by buildings, stables, lodgings for grooms, and for the greater number of slaves. It was approached from the city by two enormous flights of steps in the middle of the south-east face of the terrace. An elaborately decorated passage led, as we have said,



ASSYRIAN ENSIGNS OR STANDARDS.

from this court of the khan into the reception hall of the seraglio; two small doors also gave direct communication with the inhabited rooms of the palace. To the right of the immense court we have just mentioned, the khan, was a building of some extent, with many courts and numerous chambers, forming part of the offices or common rooms of the palace. This was the khazneh, or treasury; for there were the stores of provisions and utensils for the use of the royal household, as well as places of custody for all the valuables that Sargon, in his dedicatory inscription, tells us he had acquired by force of arms and stored in his palace. The harem was adjoining the khazneh. It was a building of moderate extent, containing three courts, the walls of one of them covered with the richest decorations in enamelled bricks; many long galleries, intended no doubt for feasts or festivals; and lastly a large number of rooms for habitation. This harem was shut in as closely as possible; all communication with the outer world was intercepted, and the women must have found themselves in a real prison. One single vestibule, guarded by eunuchs, gave access to it; this had two issues; one communicating with the great court of the offices, was the entry by which people came in from the outside; the other opening on a long, narrow court leading to the inhabited apartments of the seraglio; through this the king had access to his harem without being seen by the public. Behind the harem was an enormous tower, or pyramid

in seven stages, nearly fifty yards high. The seven stages, equal in height, and each one smaller in area than the one beneath it, were covered with stucco of different colors, and thus presented to view the colors consecrated to the seven heavenly bodies, the least important being at the base. This was the Zikurat, or observatory, and on its summit the priestly astrologers, pupils of the Chaldeans, attempted to read the future in the stars."

In sculpture the Assyrians were behind many of the ancient nations. Their best works are their bas-reliefs. Their statues are comparatively rare, and are clumsy and coarse in design and execution. They never succeeded in modelling the human figure; their greatest successes are in the representation of animals, and these occur in their bas-reliefs. The low relief, says Rawlinson, "was to the Assyrians the practical mode in which artistic power found vent among them. They used it for almost every purpose to which mimetic art is applicable: to express their religious feelings and ideas; to glorify their kings; to hand down to posterity the nation's history and its deeds of prowess; to depict home scenes and domestic occupations; to represent landscape and architecture; to imitate animal and vegetable forms; even



ASSYRIAN KING PLACING HIS FOOT ON THE NECK OF AN ENEMY.

to illustrate the mechanical methods which they employed in the construction of those vast architectural works, of which the reliefs were the principal ornamentation. It is not too much to say that we know the Assyrians, not merely artistically, but historically and ethnologically, chiefly through their bas-reliefs, which seem to represent to us almost the entire life of the people." The reliefs, it will be understood, were

sculptured on stone slabs, which were set in the lower part of the walls they adorned.

In their ornamental metallurgy the Assyrians exhibited great skill. There were



NEBO. Assyrian Statue
in British Museum

three kinds of this work: entire figures, or parts of figures, cast solid; castings in low relief; and embossed work, wrought principally with the hammer, "but finished by a sparing use of the graving tool." The solid figures were small, and were confined to animal forms, principally lions. Castings in low relief were used chiefly for the ornamentation of thrones and chariots, and consisted of animal and human figures, winged deities, griffins, etc. The embossed work was very curious and beautiful, and was applied to weapons, ornaments

for the person, household utensils, and many other objects. The usual material used by the Assyrians for ornamental metallurgy was bronze, composed of one part of tin to ten of copper, which is still considered the best proportion. It seems that the Assyrians also understood how to inlay one metal with another. They also exhibited a high degree of skill in carving ivory and cutting gems.

They appear also to have understood the art of dyeing, and the use of the pulley, the lever, and the inclined plane. The last was constantly used by them in their attacks upon fortified places.

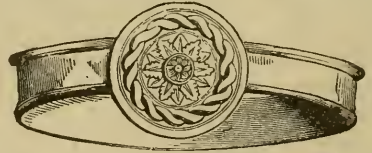
In the organization and equipment of their troops, and in their system of attack and defence and their method of reducing fortified places, the Assyrians manifested a superiority to the nations by which they were surrounded.

The king was separated from the orders below him by a rigid etiquette. No one was permitted to have access to him except through the proper officers of the court, who always accompanied him. Only the vizier and chief eunuch were privileged to

open conversation with him. When he received them he sat on his throne, and they stood before him. The throne was carried with the army when the king went to war. The Assyrian monarchs, as a rule, led hardy and active lives. In peace they engaged in superintending the public works, administered justice, etc., and sought relaxation in the dangerous pleasure of hunting the lion and the wild bull. In war the king usually rode in his chariot, but sometimes marched on foot, and went into battle in the same manner. The sovereign showed himself freely to the people, while maintaining his haughty dignity in all things, and was rarely the weak and effeminate voluptuary that the Greeks imagined him. The court ceremonial was elaborate and imposing. The dress of the king in peace and war was magnificent. He had also a special dress in which he engaged in the religious ceremonies prescribed for him.

The musical instruments of Assyria consisted of the harp, the lyre, the guitar, the pipe, the tambourine, the cymbal, the drum, the dulcimer, and the trumpet. Bands of music are represented in some of the bas-reliefs, showing that they were sometimes used in public ceremonials.

The ordinary dress of the common people was a plain tunic, reaching from the neck to a little above the knee, and confined at the waist by a broad belt or girdle. The sleeves were very short. The head and feet were without any covering. The king and



ASSYRIAN ARMLET. From Nineveh Marbles,
British Museum.

his great officers wore shoes and head dresses. Sandals were worn by laborers above the lowest grade. Soldiers and the better class of laborers wore a close-fitting trouser and a leather boot. Persons of the lower classes wore no ornaments. Armlets and bracelets were confined to persons of rank. Earrings were worn by the soldiers and musicians. Men of rank wore a long fringed robe, which reached nearly to the feet. The sleeves were short, and barely covered the shoulder. Down to the waist, where it was confined by a belt or girdle, it fitted closely; below the waist it was fuller, but still scant. Fillets, earrings, armlets, and bracelets con-

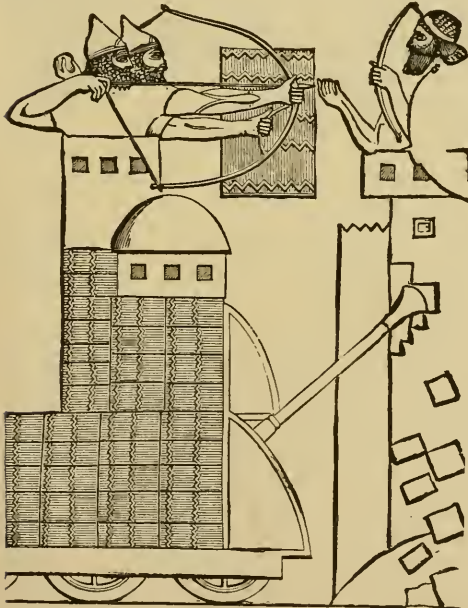
stituted the jewelry of the upper classes. Women of the better sort dressed in long fringed gowns, fuller than those of the men. The sleeves were long. Outside of this dress they often wore a short cloak of the same pattern, open in front and falling over the arms, which it covered nearly to the elbows. Their hair was either arranged in short crisp curls, "or carried back in waves to the ears, and then in part twisted into long pendent ringlets, in part curled, like that of the men, in three or four rows at the back of the neck." The head was sometimes encircled with a fillet. A girdle seems to have been worn around the waist; the feet were bare, or only protected by a sandal. Women of the lower class appear to have worn simply a gown reaching to the ankles; and a hood for a covering for the head. The ornaments and toilet articles of the Assyrian women of the better class indicate a high degree of luxury in their mode of life.

The religion of the Assyrians resembled that of the primitive Chaldæans so closely as to be almost identical with it in its higher

ens their power, lengthens their days and their reigns, and grants prosperity in peace, and victory in war. He is styled by the kings "Asshur, my lord." He had no prominent temple or shrine in any part of the country, and it is believed that all the



REPRESENTATIONS OF A WINGED DEITY, SUPPOSED TO BE THE GOD ASSHUR.



ASSYRIAN BATTERING-RAM.

temples were open to his worship, to whatever god they might be dedicated. The Assyrian religion is described as "the worship of Asshur." The kings represent themselves as passing their lives in his service, as fighting to extend his worship and exterminate his enemies. The emblem of Asshur was the winged circle or globe, from which a figure in a horned cap is frequently seen to issue, sometimes simply holding a bow, sometimes shooting his arrows against the Assyrians' enemies.

Next to Asshur the Assyrians worshipped, in early times, Anu and Vul; in the later periods of their history they adored Bel, Sin, Shamas, Vul, Nin or Ninip, and Nergal. Gula, Ishtar, and Beltis were the favorite goddesses. Hoa, Nebo, and Merodach were worshipped under the later empire. The idols of the gods were made of stone and of baked clay. Sacrifices of animals and birds were offered to them. The religion of the Assyrians was of a sensuous character; the ceremonies were imposing; and some of the rites practised were impure and disgusting, though the religious symbols are almost entirely free from the grossness which is found in classical works of art. Prayers to the gods were frequently offered in addition to the sacrifices.

divinities. Below these were the local gods, peculiar to Assyria. The principal divinity in the Assyrian mythology is the "great god" Asshur. He is the protecting god of both the country and the dynasty. He places monarchs on their thrones, strength-

CHAPTER II.

FROM THE REIGN OF ASSHUR BIL-KALA
TO THE FALL OF THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE.

Uncertain Period of Assyrian History—Reign of Asshur-izir-pal—Rapid Advance of Assyria Under him—His Conquests—Growth of Civilization—Shalmaneser II. Conquers Syria and Compels Israel to Pay Tribute—Shamas-Vul II. Extends the Boundaries of the Empire—Semiramis—Obscure Period in Assyrian History—Tiglath-Pileser II. Founds the New Assyrian Empire—Extent of his Dominions—Shalmaneser IV. Invades Phœnicia and Israel—Sargon's Successful Rebellion—His Brilliant Reign—He Conquers Egypt—Sennacherib King—He Conquers Babylon—Compels Judah to Become Tributary—Destruction of his Army by Visitation of God—Later Wars of Sennacherib—His Elamitic Expedition—The Babylonians Rebel and are Subdued—Conquest of Cilicia—Tarsus Founded—Murder of Sennacherib—Esar-haddon King—His Conquests—His Arabian Expedition—Conquers Egypt—Asshur-bani-pal Succeeds to the Throne—Crushes the Egyptian Revolt—Brilliant Reign of Asshur-bani-pal—His Closing Years—War with Media—Assyria Overrun by the Scythians—The Country Devastated—The Foundations of the Empire Undermined—Saracus King—Media Renews the War—Treachery of Nabopolassar, who Makes himself King of Babylon and Joins the Medes—Death of Saracus—Capture of Nineveh—Fall of the Assyrian Empire.

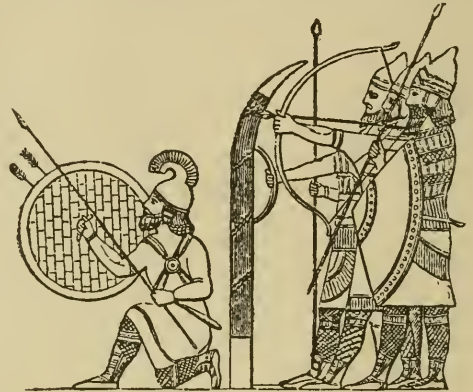
FROM the reign of Asshur-bil-kala to the middle of the tenth century B. C., Assyrian history is almost a blank. It is believed that for a time the kingdom had passed under a cloud, possibly because of the rapid growth of the Israelitish dominions under David, or possibly because Babylonia for a time eclipsed the power of Assyria.



ASSYRIAN SHIELDS.

ria. Whatever may have been the cause of this temporary decline, we know scarcely anything with certainty of Assyrian history during this period. All that can be asserted

with safety is that Asshur-bil-kala ceased to reign about B. C. 1090, and was succeeded by his younger brother Shamas-Vul, of whom we know nothing save that he built or repaired a temple at Nineveh. His reign probably ended about B. C. 1070. A dim light is shed upon Assyria about B. C. 909. The capital is still at Asshur, "where a new



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series of kings, bearing names which, for the most part, resemble those of the earlier period, are found employing themselves in the repair and enlargement of public buildings, in connection with which they obtain honorable mention in an inscription of a later monarch. Asshur-dayan, the first monarch of this group, probably ascended the throne about B. C. 930, shortly after the separation of the kingdoms of Israel and Judah. He appears to have reigned from about B. C. 930 to B. C. 911. He was succeeded by his son Vul-lush II., who held the throne until B. C. 889."

The uncertain period of Assyrian history closed in B. C. 889, when Tiglath-Nin II. ascended the throne. He reigned six years, and was succeeded, B. C. 883, by his son Asshur-izir-pal, a great and powerful monarch. Under him Assyria began its career of conquest. He subdued the surrounding nations, and carried his triumphant arms into the Zagros region, into Armenia, western Mesopotamia, and Babylonia, coming in contact, for the first time, with the Medes and Persians. The boundaries of the kingdom were greatly extended, and the influence of Assyria was all powerful in every direction. By a sudden leap the nation sprang from obscurity into greatness. In the short period of six years, Asshur-izir-pal conducted ten campaigns. The first seven and the tenth of these were in the

regions named. The ninth is to the modern student of history the most interesting. The march of the Assyrian king was direct to Carchemish, across the Euphrates, which he passed by means of rafts. Having received the submission of Carchemish, he entered the territory of the Patena (the region about Antioch and Aleppo), the cities of which submitted to him, and passing around the northern flank of Lebanon, he reached the Mediterranean. Here he erected altars and offered sacrifices to the gods. The Phœnician states, from Aradus southward, sent in their submission, as they were unable to resist his advance. Laden with spoil, he returned to his own country.

The reign of Asshur-izir-pal was not only an era of conquest. Assyria advanced rapidly in wealth and in the arts. Its pro-

fect history of the country was preserved. Engraved *stelæ* were set up in all the countries under Assyrian rule. Foreign nations were, through the medium of the Assyrian power, brought into a more constant communication with each other. Bactrian camels, elephants, etc., were imported into Assyria. During this reign, Asshur, the ancient capital, became unsuited to the needs of the empire, and the seat of government was transferred to Calah, which the king enlarged and beautified with magnificent edifices and noble public works.

Shalmaneser II. succeeded his father, Asshur-izir-pal, B. C. 858, and reigned thirty-five years. During the first twenty-seven years of his reign he conducted twenty-three campaigns. Babylonia, Chaldæa, Media, the Zimri, Armenia, upper Mesopota-



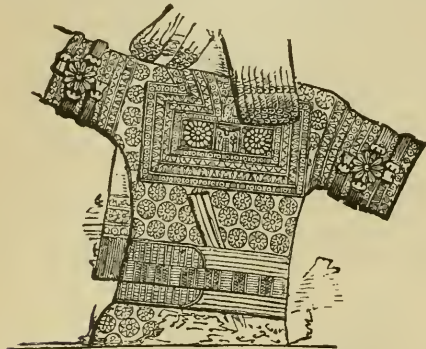
PROCESSION OF ASSYRIAN MUSICIANS.

gress in the latter was simply wonderful. During this reign magnificent buildings were erected, and were decorated for the first time with bas-reliefs, enamelled bricks, and frescoes, painted on plaster. "The evidence of the sculptures alone," says Rawlinson, "is enough to show that in the time of Asshur-izir-pal, the Assyrians were already a great and luxurious people, that most of the useful arts not only existed among them, but were cultivated to a high pitch, and that in dress, furniture, jewelry, etc., they were not very much behind the moderns."

During this period and the reigns of the successors of this great king, literature was cultivated. The records of each reign were carefully cut in stone, or impressed on cylinders of baked clay. In this way a per-

fect history of the country was preserved. Engraved *stelæ* were set up in all the countries under Assyrian rule. Foreign nations were, through the medium of the Assyrian power, brought into a more constant communication with each other. Bactrian camels, elephants, etc., were imported into Assyria. During this reign, Asshur, the ancient capital, became unsuited to the needs of the empire, and the seat of government was transferred to Calah, which the king enlarged and beautified with magnificent edifices and noble public works. Shalmaneser II. succeeded his father, Asshur-izir-pal, B. C. 858, and reigned thirty-five years. During the first twenty-seven years of his reign he conducted twenty-three campaigns. Babylonia, Chaldæa, Media, the Zimri, Armenia, upper Mesopota-

members submitting to the conqueror, except Damascus, which was left to face him single-handed. A fourth campaign, the next year, resulted in the defeat of the Syrians under Hazael. Three years later the Assyrians invaded Syria. Hazael, thoroughly cowed by his misfortunes, attempted no resistance. He made his sub-



EMBROIDERED DRESS OF AN ASSYRIAN KING.

mission to the Assyrian king, and even the distant kingdom of Israel was glad to purchase an exemption from punishment by the payment of tribute.

In the last years of the reign of Shalmaneser, a dangerous rebellion broke out under the lead of his son, the heir apparent, Asshur-danin-pal. It was crushed by the king's second son, Shamas-Vul, and the heir apparent was either killed in the struggle or put to death. Shalmaneser died B. C. 823, and was succeeded by his son Shamas-Vul II., who reigned thirteen years. Assyria was now the predominant power of Asia. Although Armenia, on the north, remained unconquered, the authority of the empire was extended on the west to the confines of the kingdom of Judah; Syria, Phœnicia, Hamath, and Israel, becoming tributaries of the Assyrian crown. On the south the frontier was unchanged, for Babylonia, though sometimes tributary, managed on the whole to maintain its position. Some territory had been gained on the east. The Medes and Persians were at this time mere wandering tribes, without a civilization or a government. Shalmaneser won some important successes over the former, and received tribute from the latter. Shamas-Vul II. conducted successful wars against the Medes and Persians, and the Babylonians, but added nothing to the territory of his empire. He was succeeded by his son Vul-lush III., B. C. 810.

Vul-lush III. extended his dominions eastward and westward in twenty-six campaigns. His supremacy was established over Babylon, and the Assyrian empire stretched from the Persian Gulf to the Mediterranean. His wife was Sammuramit, the heiress of Babylonia. She is better known as Semiramis. The Greeks and Romans preserved a legendary history of her which made her one of the greatest, as well as one of the most infamous personages of history; and she was believed to be the wife of Ninus, the mythical founder of Nineveh. It is now admitted that the acts attributed to her were fabulous, and that she was, at the most, simply joint ruler with Vul-lush III., her husband.

With the death of Vul-lush III. a change came over the policy and history of Assyria. He ceased to reign B. C. 781, and until B. C. 745 the history of Assyria is obscure. A weak, peaceful policy was pursued, conquests were discontinued, and the empire appears to have entered upon a decline in every respect. Three monarchs bore sway during this interval. Shalmaneser III., B. C. 781-771; Asshur-dayan III., B. C. 771-753; and Asshur-lush, B. C. 753-745. During this period Babylon revolted under Nabonassar. Other revolutions shook the kingdom of Assyria proper, and at length the dynasty was overthrown in



ASSYRIAN CUIRASS.

the great outbreak which placed Tiglath-Pileser II. on the throne, and ushered in the more glorious era of the new or lower Assyrian empire. It was during the last days of the elder empire that the Prophet Jonah was sent to Nineveh to warn the inhabitants of their doom, which was averted by their repentance.

The New or Lower Assyrian Empire began with the accession of Tiglath-Pileser II., B. C. 745. The circumstances by which

he acquired the crown are unknown to us; but he was a usurper, and it appears of humble origin. By a series of vigorously prosecuted wars he regained all that his predecessors had lost, and even extended his dominions. He conquered Damascus, Samaria, Tyre, the Philistines, and the Arabians of the Peninsula of Sinai. He also overran the northern territory of Israel and ravaged the trans-Jordan territory of that kingdom, carrying away the inhabitants into captivity in Assyria. Judah was made tributary to him. He was succeeded by Shalmaneser IV., B. C. 727.

Soon after the accession of Shalmaneser IV., Hoshea, King of Israel, refused tribute, but was compelled to submit. In spite of this submission, however, Hoshea revolted again a few years later, and allied himself with the kingdom of Egypt, which had

also subdued. This accomplished, Sargon turned his arms against Egypt, the ally of Israel, and the only remaining great power unsubdued by Assyria. The two armies met at Raphia, south of Gaza, and the Egyptians were decisively defeated, although aided by the Philistines. This victory made Sargon master of Philistia and the Delta. In the latter the supremacy of the Assyrians was firmly established. The Egyptian king, confined to the limits of upper Egypt, became tributary, and even the Ethiopian King of Meroë sent in his submission to the conqueror. Sargon next turned his attention to Babylonia, conquered it, and became master of Babylonia and Chaldæa. This success was followed by the conquest of the Aramæan tribes and at least a portion of Susiania, B. C. 709. In the next year Cyprus sent in



SHALMANESER II. RECEIVING TRIBUTE FROM JEHU OF ISRAEL.

passed under the sway of the Ethiopian Sabaco. Shalmaneser invaded Palestine, and, dividing his forces, attacked Phœnicia, which had revolted on the death of Tiglath-Pileser II., and Israel. Siege was laid to both Tyre and Samaria. His operations against Tyre were unsuccessful. The fleet which he collected to attack the city from the sea was beaten and destroyed by the Tyrians. Samaria held out for two years. During these operations a revolt broke out in Assyria, and its leader, Sargon, seized the throne and brought Shalmaneser's reign to an end, B. C. 721.

Sargon proved himself a great king. He quickly established his authority over the whole empire of Assyria, crushing all opposition with a firm hand. Samaria surrendered to his generals in the first year of his reign. The city was destroyed, the country depopulated, and the Israelites transported to Gānzānītis and Media, which he had just conquered. Syria was

its submission and paid tribute. Sargon, now master of the ancient world, illustrated his glorious reign by the construction of a magnificent palace and a city at Dur-Sargina, or Khorsabad. The former was one of the most splendid and beautifully adorned edifices ever erected in Assyria, and has been described in the preceding chapter.

Sargon's reign was terminated by his death, B. C. 705. He was succeeded by his son, Sennacherib, the most famous of all the Assyrian monarchs, in whose reign the empire reached a high degree of glory and power. Soon after his accession Babylon revolted under Merodach Baladan. Sennacherib defeated him, B. C. 703, and seated an Assyrian viceroy on the Babylonian throne, replacing him a year or two later with his own eldest son, Asshur-inadi-su. Phœnicia having revolted, Sennacherib marched against it and compelled its submission. He then continued southward,

conquered the rebellious Philistines, and terrified Egypt and Ethiopia into submission by a great victory over their forces at Altaku, or Eltekeh. Then, marching against Jerusalem, he forced Hezekiah to become tributary, and took an immense sum from him as tribute. Returning home, he put down a new outbreak in Babylon.

The opening of the seventh century B. C. was marked by one of the most terrible disasters ever suffered by Assyria. Heze-



TIGLATH-PILESER II.

kiah, King of Judah, undaunted by his bitter lesson of two years previous, entered again into an alliance with Egypt, and threw off his allegiance to Assyria. Sennacherib resolved to punish him, and in B. C. 699 marched from Nineveh into Palestine, with a powerful army, to crush the rebellion. Well knowing that Egypt, not Judah, was the true foe of Assyria in this quarter, he marched along the sea-coast towards the Egyptian frontier, intending to

crush Egypt before punishing Judah. His progress was barred by the fortresses of Libnah and Lachish, on the extreme verge of Palestine, and which seem to have been subject at this time to Egypt. He at once laid siege to Lachish, which appears to have fallen soon, after which he besieged Libnah. In the meantime, however, finding that Hezekiah still maintained his defiant attitude, he sent a detachment of his army, under the Rabshakeh, or chief cup-bearer, and the Rab-Saris, or chief eunuch, to summon Jerusalem to surrender, accompanying his demand with a message grossly insulting to the God of Israel, and which drew upon him the divine vengeance. The demand was refused by Hezekiah, and the Assyrian commanders, finding their detachment unequal to the capture of so strong a city, rejoined Sennacherib, who, having taken Lachish, was now engaged in the siege of Libnah. The Assyrian monarch despatched fresh messengers to Hezekiah, with a letter in his own hand, in which he renewed his demand for the submission of Judah, warned Hezekiah of the fate of the princes who had resisted Assyria, and blasphemously told him that his God, in whom he trusted, was not able to deliver him from the Assyrians. Hezekiah took this letter into the temple and, spreading it out before the Lord, implored his help against Sennacherib, who had sent to him "to reproach the living God." The Prophet Isaiah was commanded to declare to Hezekiah that the King of Assyria should not come near Jerusalem, nor molest it, but should return at once to his own country.

Meanwhile, Libnah having surrendered, Sennacherib had marched towards Pelusium, on the Egyptian frontier, where the Egyptian army, under Sethos, awaited him. On the day when Hezekiah spread his letter before the Lord, Sennacherib encamped in front of the Egyptian army, intending to attack it the next morning. That night, by the direct interposition of the power of God, 185,000 men of the Assyrian army died in their sleep. Horror-struck by this fearful calamity, and too greatly weakened by it to think of continuing the war, Sennacherib abandoned his camp at once, and began a hurried retreat. The Egyptians, seeing his confusion and flight, pursued him, harassed his march, and cut off his stragglers. The Assyrian monarch returned to Nineveh with

the remnant of his proud hosts, and for a while there seems to have been a pause in Assyrian affairs. So powerful a nation, however, was not to be ruined even by so great a loss, and although Sennacherib carefully refrained from repeating his attempts upon Palestine during the remainder of his reign, he won great successes in other quarters.

He conducted a successful campaign, which was more a raiding expedition than an attempt at conquest, in the northern portion of the Zagros range. After this he waged a severe war with the Babylonians and Susianians. The Babylonians appear to have taken advantage of the disaster at Pelusium to throw off the Assyrian yoke, and the Susianians, or Elamites, had given mortal offence to Assyria by receiving and protecting the Chaldæans of Beth-Yakin, who had fled from Sennacherib's dominions. These, taking with them their gods and treasures, had crossed the Persian Gulf in their ships, and had landed on the Elamitic coast, where they were kindly received by the Susianian kings and allowed to take up their abode. Sennacherib resolved, after reducing Babylonia to subjection, to take vengeance upon the Elamites. Having compelled the submission of Babylonia, he brought a number of Phœnician shipbuilders and sailors from the Mediterranean coast, over which his supremacy extended, and built a fleet of Phœnician war-galleys in the lower Tigris. Embarking his army in these, the largest and most formidable vessels that had ever been seen in these waters, he crossed the Persian Gulf, landed on the portion of the Elamite coast occupied by the emigrant Chaldæans, destroyed the city they had built, ravaged the country, burnt a number of Elamite towns, and, re-embarking his army and his captives, returned to the Tigris, without having encountered any serious resistance from the Elamites, who, expecting an attack from the land, had massed their army along their northwestern frontier. The sudden descent of the Assyrians upon their coast took them completely by surprise, and found them utterly unprepared to resist it.

But though successful in this expedition, Sennacherib found trouble awaiting him on his return. His expedition was popularly regarded as venturesome in the extreme, and as certain of destruction by the sea. The Babylonians, acting upon this hope, rose in rebellion immediately after the

sailing of the fleet from the Tigris. To their surprise the Assyrians returned from Susiania flushed with victory. Landing upon the Babylonian coast, they at once proceeded to reduce the province to subjection. A great battle was fought, and the Babylonian king, Susub, was captured. The Susianians entered Babylonia a little later in aid of their allies, but were routed by the Assyrians with great loss. Babylonia was obliged to submit, and Sennacherib returned in triumph to Assyria. In order to break the power of Susiania, Sennacherib now invaded that country with a strong army, penetrated to the heart of it, de-



SARGON.

stroyed thirty-four large cities and a number of villages, and captured Badaca, the second city of the kingdom. He reannexed to the Assyrian empire the cities of Beth-Kahiri and Raza, which had been conquered by the Susianians in the reign of Sargon, and returned to Nineveh loaded with spoils, leaving Susiania greatly crippled. Soon after this, war again broke out in Babylonia. Susub, the king who had been taken prisoner by Sennacherib in the year of the naval expedition, managed to escape from captivity, and, returning to Babylonia, was hailed by the people as

king. By stripping the treasury and temple of the god Bel, at Babylon, of its wealth and ornaments, he managed to raise funds enough to purchase the alliance of the Sussians, who marched to his aid. The Babylonians were also joined by a number of revolted Aramaean tribes from the middle Euphrates. Sennacherib encountered the allied army at Khaluli, on the lower Tigris. After a long and bloody battle, he defeated it, broke up the alliance, compelled the surrender of Babylon, and obliged the allied

queror. Sennacherib signalized his conquest by the erection of a new city on the model of Babylon, and called it Tarsus. It subsequently became a noted city, and was the birthplace of the Apostle Paul.

Sennacherib was a great builder and a wise patron of the arts. He built a palace at Nineveh, which in size and splendor eclipsed all the earlier edifices of Assyria, and was only excelled in beauty of ornamentation by one Assyrian edifice—the palace built on the same platform by his



HEZEKIAH LAYS SENNACHERIB'S LETTER BEFORE THE LORD.

kings to seek safety in flight. Babylon was severely punished. The fortifications were destroyed; the temples were plundered and burnt; and the images of the gods were broken to pieces. An Assyrian viceroy was again placed over Chaldea.

Somewhat later, Sennacherib undertook an expedition against Cilicia, in which the Assyrians encountered the Greeks for the first time. A Greek fleet guarded the Cilician shore, and was defeated by the ships of Sennacherib. It appears that the Greeks were also defeated on land in Cilicia, and that country submitted to the con-

grandson, Asshur-bani-pal. The art of sculpture made a remarkable advance in this reign. Other great edifices were also constructed in other parts of the country, canals and aqueducts were built for the purpose of bringing good water to the capital, and the Tigris was confined to its channel by an embankment of brick. Sennacherib's reign was brought to a close by his murder by two of his sons, B. C. 681. The murderers also slew their brother, Nergilus, who claimed the crown, and were themselves overthrown in the course of a few months by Esar-haddon, their youngest

brother, who was supported by the army, and who was engaged in guarding the Armenian frontier at the time of the murder of his father.

Esar-haddon came to the throne in B. C. 681, and reigned for thirteen years. His court was held alternately at Nineveh and Babylon. He compelled the submission of the Babylonians in the first year of his reign. Then, marching into Phœnicia, he put down a revolt of the Sidonians, and conquered the King of the Lebanon region, who had aided them, and put to death the Kings of Sidon and the Lebanon. His next campaign was in Armenia, in which he gained some important successes. He also subdued the Cilicians, who had revolted at the death of Sennacherib. About B. C. 675 he made an expedition into the southern part of Chaldea, where Nebozirsi-sidi, a son of Merodach-Baladan, had established himself with the help of the Susianians. He deposed this prince and gave the control of the region to another son of Merodach-Baladan, named Nahid-Marduk, who had sought his aid. He then conquered Edom and made it tributary to Assyria. His next expedition was into the heart of Arabia. He crossed the desert with a large army and reached the more fertile and settled region beyond. He captured and plundered several towns, and returned to his own country in safety. "Considering the physical perils of the desert itself, and the warlike character of its inhabitants, whom no conqueror has ever really subdued, this was a most remarkable success. . . . Arabia has been deeply penetrated three only in the history of the world; and Esar-haddon is the sole monarch who ever ventured to conduct in person such an attack." He also subdued the Aramæan tribes along the Euphrates, and gained some important successes in the remoter regions of Media. These wars consumed the first ten years of his reign.

The most important event of Esar-haddon's reign was the conquest of Egypt, which was accomplished about B. C. 670. He defeated the Egyptian forces under Tirhakah in a great battle, and captured Memphis. Then proceeding southward, he took Thebes, drove the Egyptian king into Ethiopia, and established his authority over the kingdom, which he divided into twenty petty states, over each of which he placed a king. All these petty kings were made to a certain extent subordinate to

the prince who reigned at Memphis. This prince was Nechoh, the father of Psammetichus, and a native Egyptian. The revolt of Manasseh, King of Judah, occurred about this time, but was put down by the Assyrian generals, who sent the Jewish king in chains to Babylon, where Esar-haddon was then holding his court. The Assyrian monarch at first treated his captive severely, but subsequently released him and restored him to his throne on condition of his paying an increased tribute. Having thus pacified the kingdom of Judah, Esar-haddon, in order to strengthen the Assyrian influence in Palestine, colonized the territory of the kingdom of Israel with families from the distant regions of his empire.

In B. C. 669 Esar-haddon appears to have fallen ill. Tirhakah at once made his appearance in Egypt, and soon re-established his authority over the entire valley of the Nile, driving out the petty kings set up by the Assyrians. Esar-haddon, unable to meet this outbreak in person, associated his eldest son, Asshur-bani-pal, with him in the government of the empire. He resigned the crown of Assyria to his son, and retained that of Babylon, to which city he retired, and died there about B. C. 667, in the early part of that year.

Immediately upon the death of his father, Asshur-bani-pal appointed his younger brother, Saül-Mugina, Viceroy of Babylon, and collecting his forces, invaded Egypt. Tirhakah sent a powerful army to meet him, remaining at Memphis to await the issue of the conflict. The Egyptians were defeated in a great battle near the city of Kar-banit, and Tirhakah withdrew to Thebes, from which he was driven by the Assyrians. He fled to Ethiopia, and the Assyrian authority was re-established over Egypt. Asshur-bani-pal restored the petty kings established by his father, and having quieted the country, returned to Nineveh. Almost immediately after his withdrawal from Egypt the country was again thrown into confusion by the efforts of the Ethiopians. Nechoh, who had been placed over Memphis, deserted the Assyrians and joined the Ethiopians. The kings who remained faithful seized Nechoh and some of his associates and sent them in chains to Nineveh, and endeavored to suppress the revolt; but Tirhakah succeeded in regaining Thebes, from which he threatened to reconquer all Egypt. The Assyrian king, seeing the danger, forgave Nechoh for his defection,

restored his throne to him, and sent him back to Egypt with a strong Assyrian force, with which he drove Tirhakah once more into Ethiopia, where that monarch died, leaving his cause to his stepson Urdamané, who soon afterwards descended the Nile valley, defeated the Assyrians near Memphis, took that city by assault, and reconquered lower Egypt. Asshur-bani-pal at once took the field in person, and entering Egypt at the head of a powerful force, drove the Ethiopians out of the kingdom. In this campaign the Assyrians took Thebes by assault and sacked it, plundering it of an immense booty, which they carried off to Nineveh. The country was once more arranged on the plan established by Esarhaddon.

Asshur-bani-pal's next war was in Asia Minor, which he conquered. Gyges, King



ASSYRIAN RIDING HORSE.

of Lydia, alarmed at his progress, paid him tribute. A large part of Armenia was conquered in this reign; Susiana was completely subjugated and attached to Babylonia as a province, and many of the outlying Arabian tribes were subdued. Assyria was now at the height of her prosperity and power, without an enemy in the world either willing or able to oppose her. Asshur-bani-pal built the most magnificent of all the Assyrian palaces by the side of the palace of his grandfather Sennacherib, at Nineveh. He was devoted to the arts and to music, and established a sort of royal library at Nineveh. He was unquestionably one of Assyria's greatest kings. "In his reign the Assyrian dominions reached their greatest extent, Assyrian art culminated, and the empire seemed likely to extend itself over the whole of the East." This period of glory constituted the first part of Asshur-bani-pal's reign.

It has been generally supposed that Asshur-bani-pal died about B. C. 647; but recent discoveries have made it probable that he lived twenty years longer, and died about B. C. 626. This view is adopted by Professor Rawlinson, one of the most eminent authorities in this department of history. This period furnishes a striking contrast to the first twenty-two years of this great king's reign. The first part witnessed the culmination of the glory and power of Assyria; the last, upon which we now enter, was to witness the beginning of the decline of the great empire, in which Assyria passed from the supremacy in the ancient world to a doubtful and precarious position. The first of the causes of this decline was the rapid growth of the Median kingdom into a strong military power on the very borders of Assyria. So rapid was this growth that the Medes felt strong enough to invade Assyria about B. C. 634. They were unsuccessful, but the fact of their invasion was significant. They were defeated near Nineveh, and their leader, who is called Phraortes, was killed. The aged Asshur-bani-pal had lost the vigor of his youthful spirit, and contented himself with defeating the invaders, but made no effort to follow them into their own country. Profiting by this, Cyaxeres, who succeeded to the Median crown, spent the next two years in preparing an army, and in B. C. 632 invaded Assyria, defeated the Assyrian army in the field, and closely invested Nineveh. He was suddenly obliged to raise the siege and return in haste to his own country, in consequence of an invasion of Media by the Scythian hordes of the north of Asia.

These daring and barbarous people swarmed over the Caucasus into southern Asia, appearing first in Media, which they subdued, but not entirely, owing to its mountainous character, and then spread themselves westward over Asia towards the Mediterranean. Assyria, already weakened by the revolt of Egypt under Psammetichus, was quickly overrun by the Scythians, who passed on into Syria, where the tide was checked by Psammetichus, then engaged in the siege of Ashdod, in Palestine. He bribed the barbarians to spare Egypt, and they turned aside into other countries, and finally disappeared; some, it is believed, returning to their original homes in the steppe country beyond the Caucasus, and others taking service under

the native rulers of Asia, who in the course of a few years regained sufficient strength to throw off the barbarian yoke and re-establish their authority. The first country to accomplish this was Media, under the wise guidance of Cyaxeres.

Assyria suffered fearfully from the ravages of the Scyths, whose numbers made the attempt to resist them hopeless. Many of the old cities were taken, despoiled of their treasures, and their palaces wantonly burned. The country was ravaged and depopulated, for the barbarians pursued a policy of extermination. "Assyria, when the Scythians quitted her," says Rawlinson, "was but the shadow of her former self. Weak and exhausted, she seemed to invite a permanent conqueror. If her limits had not much shrunk, if the provinces still acknowledged her authority, it was from habit rather than from fear, or because they too had suffered greatly from the northern barbarians." Thus, though it was weak and exhausted, Assyria was still an empire, and it is possible that the last efforts of Asshur-bani-pal were devoted to reorganizing his dominions and repairing the damages inflicted by the Scythians. He was cut short in this work by his death early in B. C. 626, after a reign of forty-two years.

He was succeeded by his son Asshur-med-ilin, better known by the name of Saracus, given to him by the Greeks. Scarcely anything is known of him, except that his reign was one of continued misfortune. Under him the empire grew weaker. The treasury was exhausted, and the country was on the verge of ruin in consequence of the ravages of the Scythians. It is not known whether he had the ability to repair these evils, but it is certain that he had not the means of doing so. Before anything could be accomplished the Medes and Susianians, having formed an alliance, invaded Assyria—the former from the east and the latter from the south. Saracus, in order to meet this double danger, divided his forces into two armies. He advanced with one to meet the Median invasion, and sent the other, under Nabopolassar, his ablest general, to drive back the Susianians, who were marching from the sea upon Babylon. This disposition of his forces, though wise and prudent in itself, proved the ruin of Assyria in consequence of the treachery of Nabopolassar, who, seeing his own opportunity in his country's weakness, deserted the Assyrian cause and made terms with

the enemy. By this arrangement he secured the throne of Babylon for himself, and the daughter of Cyaxeres as a bride for his eldest son Nebuchadnezzar. Then uniting his forces with those of Cyaxeres, they marched upon Nineveh and closely invested it. Seeing the city on the point of capture, Saracus, in despair, burned himself in his palace, and Nineveh was taken by the conquerors, who divided Assyria between them, B. C. 625.

Thus fell the Assyrian empire, not so much from any inherent weakness, or from the effect of gradual decay, as by an unfortunate combination of circumstances—the invasion of the Medes, a strong nation of warriors, at a time when the empire had been brought to its lowest state by the



DAGON.

irruption of the Scythians; and the treachery of its most trusted lieutenant.

The independent kingdom of Assyria lasted about one thousand years. The empire covered about seven centuries of this period, from B. C. 1300 to B. C. 625; or perhaps, to be more accurate, we must limit this duration to five centuries, commencing with the reign of Assur-ris-ilim, about B. C. 1150. The first twenty-two years of the reign of Asshur-bani-pal saw the empire at the height of its power and dominion. "In the middle part of this prince's reign Assyria was paramount over the portion of western Asia included between the Mediterranean and the Halys on the one hand, the Caspian Sea and the

great Persian desert on the other. Southwards the boundary was formed by Arabia and the Persian Gulf; northwards it seems at no time to have advanced to the Euxine or to the Caucasus, but to have been formed by a fluctuating line, which did not in the most flourishing period extend so far as the northern frontier of Armenia. Besides her Asiatic dominions, Assyria possessed also at this time a portion of Africa, her authority being acknowledged by Egypt as far as the latitude of Thebes. The countries included within the limits thus indicated, and subject during the period in question to Assyrian influence, were chiefly the following: Susiana, Chaldaea, Babylonia, Media, Matiene or the Zagros range, Mesopotamia; parts of Armenia, Cappadocia, and Cilicia; Syria, Phœnicia, Palestine, Idumæa, a portion of Arabia, and almost the whole of Egypt. The island of Cyprus was also, it is probable, a dependency. On the other hand, Persia proper, Bactria, and Sogdiana, even Hyrcania, were beyond the eastern limit of the Assyrian sway, which towards the north did not on this side reach farther than about the neighborhood of Kasoin, and towards the south was confined within the mountain barrier of Zagros. Similarly, on the west, Phrygia, Lydia, Lycia, and even Pamphylia, were independent, the Assyrian arms having never, so far as appears, penetrated westward beyond Cilicia, or crossed the river Halys.

“The nature of the dominion established by the great Mesopotamian monarchy over the countries included within the limits above indicated, will perhaps be best understood if we compare it with the empire of Solomon. Solomon ‘reigned over *all the kingdoms* from the river (Euphrates) unto the land of the Philistines and unto the borders of Egypt; they brought presents and served Solomon all the days of his life.’ The first and most striking features of the earliest empires is that they are a mere congeries of kingdoms. The countries over which the dominant state acquires an influence not only retain their direct individuality, as is the case in some modern empires, but remain in all respects such as they were before, with the simple addition of certain obligations contracted towards the paramount authority. They keep their old laws, their old religion, their line of kings, their law of succession, their whole

internal organization and machinery; they only acknowledge an external suzerainty which binds them to the performance of certain duties towards the head of the empire. These duties, as understood in the earliest times, may be summed up in the two words, ‘homage’ and ‘tribute;’ the subject kings ‘serve’ and ‘bring presents.’ They are bound to acts of submission; must attend the court of their suzerain when summoned, unless they have a reasonable excuse; must there salute him as a superior, and otherwise acknowledge his rank; above all, they must pay him regularly the fixed tribute which has been imposed upon them at the time of their submission or subjection, the unauthorized withholding of which is open and avowed rebellion. Finally, they must allow his troops free passage through their dominions, and must oppose any attempt at invasion by way of their country on the part of his enemies.” In return, the empire guaranteed to its dependents protection against their foreign foes. It is evident that such an empire contained within itself the elements of constant disorder and of its own destruction. Rawlinson well says, that “it exhibits in a marked way both the strength and weakness of this class of monarchies—their strength in the extraordinary magnificence, grandeur, wealth, and refinement of the capital; their weakness in the impoverishment, the exhaustion, and the consequent disaffection of the subject states. Ever falling to pieces, it was perpetually reconstructed by the genius and prowess of a long succession of warrior princes, seconded by the skill and bravery of the people. Fortunate in possessing for a long time no very powerful neighbor, it found little difficulty in extending itself throughout regions divided and subdivided among hundreds of petty chiefs, incapable of union, and singly quite unable to contend with the forces of a large and populous country. Frequently endangered by revolts, yet always triumphing over them, it maintained itself for five centuries, gradually advancing its influence, and was only overthrown after a fierce struggle by a new kingdom formed upon its borders, which, taking advantage of a time of exhaustion, and leagued with the most powerful of the subject states, was enabled to accomplish the destruction of the long dominant people.”

BOOK V.

THE HISTORY OF BABYLONIA.

CHAPTER I.

RISE AND FALL OF THE BABYLONIAN KINGDOM.

Geographical Position of Babylonia—Almost Identical with Chaldaea—Babylon under Assyrian Rule—Frequent Revolts—Sarcus Places Nabopolassar over Babylon—The Latter Revolts and Makes Himself King of Babylonia—The Median Alliance—Fall of Assyria—The Babylonian Empire Formed—Reign of Nabopolassar—War with Egypt—Nebuchadnezzar Defeats Nechoh at Carchemish—Nebuchadnezzar King—Phoenicia and Judah Subdued—Jerusalem Taken and Destroyed—Conquest of Egypt—Brilliant Reign of Nebuchadnezzar—His Great Works—The Hanging Gardens—The Walls of Babylon—Commercial Wealth—Character of the King—His Madness—His Recovery and Closing Years—His Successors—Nabonadius King—Associates his Son with him—The War with Persia—Belshazzar's Feast—Cyrus Captures Babylon—Fall of the Babylonian Empire—Babylon Becomes the Second Capital of the Persian Empire.

BABYLONIA proper was almost identical in its territorial area with the ancient kingdom of Chaldaea, and need not be described here. It lay entirely west of the Tigris, and consisted of two "vast plains, or flats, one situated between the two rivers (the Tigris and Euphrates), and thus forming the lower portion of the Mesopotamia of the Greeks and Romans—the other interposed between the Euphrates and Arabia, a long but narrow strip along the right bank of that abounding river." It comprised an area of about 27,000 square miles—being smaller than Scotland or Ireland. The country east of the Tigris formed no part of Babylonia proper, but was Cissia, or Susiania—a distinct region known to the Jews as Elam—and was inhabited by a people distinct from the Babylonians. At the height of its power the Babylonian empire embraced, as we shall see, a large part of the eastern world.

After the conquest of Chaldaea by Tiglath-Nin I., in B. C. 1300, and its absorption in the Assyrian monarchy, the people of that region were more or less discontented, and from time to time efforts were made to throw off the Assyrian yoke, but without success. In B. C. 747, however, Nabonassar

made a successful revolt, and established an independent monarchy in Babylonia. He reigned fourteen years, and destroyed the records of the Assyrian viceroys who had preceded him in order to blot out the record of his country's slavery. He was succeeded by Nadius, who reigned from B. C. 733 to 731. Two kings next came to the throne, Chinzinus and Porus, B. C. 731 to 726. Their successor was Elulæus, B. C. 726 to 721, who was, in his turn, succeeded by Merodach-Baladan. This king, about B. C. 713, sent an embassy to Hezekiah, King of Judah, congratulating him upon his recovery from a dangerous illness. In B. C. 709 he was attacked and dethroned by Sargon, and Babylon was once more ruled by an Assyrian viceroy. This state of affairs lasted until B. C. 704, and was followed by an interregnum of a little more than a year. Merodach-Baladan, who had escaped from captivity, then regained his throne and reigned six months, when he was attacked and defeated by Sennacherib, who placed an Assyrian viceroy named Belibus on the throne, about B. C. 702. In B. C. 700, Sennacherib had cause to suspect Belibus of treason, and removed him from the government of Babylonia, which he bestowed upon his own eldest son Asshurinadi-su, or Assaranadius, who reigned until B. C. 693. During this reign Babylon twice revolted from Assyria, and was twice reduced to submission. A troubled period of about thirteen years followed this reign, and was brought to a close only by the conquest of Babylon, in B. C. 680, by Esarhaddon, who added to his other titles that of King of Babylon, built himself a palace in that city, and reigned alternately there and at Nineveh. He held the crown until B. C. 667, when his son, Saos-duchinus, was made viceroy. This prince governed Babylon for twenty years, and was succeeded in B. C. 647 by Cinneladanus, who reigned for twenty-two years.

In B. C. 625 Nabopolassar was placed in command of the province by Sarcus, the last Assyrian king, with orders to stay the march of the Susianians, who were approach-



JEWISH CAPTIVES IN BABYLONIA.

ing from the Persian Gulf. He was probably made viceroy. The people of Babylonia were already rising in rebellion when he entered the capital, and he saw that by placing himself at the head of the popular movement he could effect the ruin of his master and advance his own interests. He accordingly entered into an alliance with Cyaxeres, who had invaded Assyria from Media, arranged a marriage between his eldest son Nebuchadnezzar and the daughter of Cyaxeres, and by the terms of the alliance secured to himself the crown of Babylonia as an independent sovereign. These matters being arranged, Nabopolassar at once united his forces with those of Cyaxeres, and took part with him in the war which resulted, as we have seen, in the capture and destruction of Nineveh and the overthrow of the empire of Assyria.

In the division of the Assyrian dominions, Nabopolassar was given the province of Susiania and the valley of the Euphrates, Syria, and Palestine, Assyria proper and the countries dependent upon Assyria to the north and northwest going to Cyaxeres. Thus Babylon became the head of a powerful empire. The countries named above submitted to the change without any effort at resistance. They had doubtless become so accustomed to seeing an Assyrian king hold his court alternately at Nineveh and Babylon that they may not have appreciated the full force of the change at first. For some years the Babylonian king devoted himself to the consolidation of his government, and his dominions were at peace. From B. C. 615 to B. C. 610 there was almost constant war between Media and Lydia. Nabopolassar, or sometimes his son Nebuchadnezzar, took part in these wars as the ally of Cyaxeres. In the last-named year, as the hostile armies were about to engage each other, an eclipse of the sun took place, which terrified both. Nabopolassar took advantage of this to mediate between Cyaxeres and the Lydians, and succeeded in bringing about a peace which gave to western Asia nearly half a century of uninterrupted tranquillity.

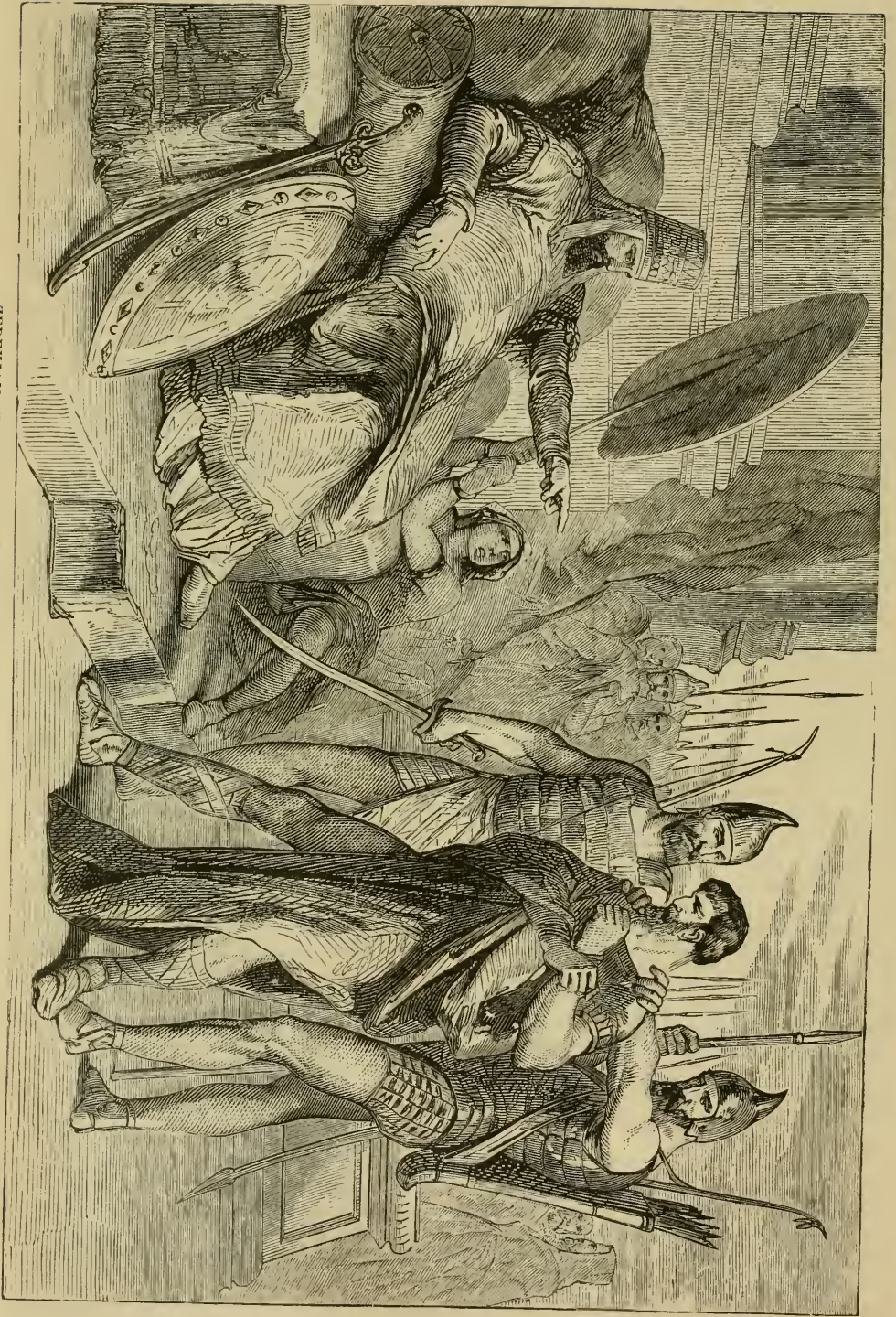
In B. C. 608, Nechoh, having succeeded his father Psammetichus on the throne of Egypt, invaded the dominions of Babylon, and having defeated Josiah, King of Judah, who sought to stay his march, at Megiddo, overran all the country between Egypt and the river Euphrates. Three months later, in returning to Egypt, he visited Jerusalem,

deposed Jehoahaz, a younger son of Josiah who had been made king by the people, and gave the crown to Jehoiakim, his elder brother. About the same time he laid siege to the important Philistine city of Gaza.

Nabopolassar made no effort for fully three years to recover his lost territory, but allowed Nechoh to enjoy his conquests. In B. C. 605, however, he assembled a vast army and placed it under the command of his son Nebuchadnezzar, who advanced rapidly to the Euphrates. He attacked the Egyptian army near Carchemish, routed it, and continued the pursuit to the frontier of Egypt, recovering on the march all the lost territory, and receiving the submission of Jehoiakim, King of Judah. It was his intention to invade Egypt, and crush that power, but he was compelled to desist upon reaching the frontier by news of the death of his father. He made peace with Nechoh, hastened back to Babylon, and assumed the crown, B. C. 604. The remaining years of the seventh century B. C. appear to have been peaceful, and were employed by Nebuchadnezzar in improving his capital, and in consolidating his dominions.

The opening of the sixth century B. C. called the Babylonian king once more to the field to suppress the revolts of Phœnicia and Judah, the latter of which was encouraged by Egypt. In B. C. 598, at the head of an allied Babylonian and Median army, he invaded Phœnicia and laid siege to Tyre. This city was strong enough to resist him for thirteen years. During this period he deposed Jehoiakim, King of Judah, and put him to death, set up Jehoiachin and replaced him with Zedekiah, and crushed the final revolt of the Jews by the capture of Jerusalem, and the destruction of their Temple and city, and the transportation of the nation into Babylonia, as has already been related. In the same period he defeated the effort of the Egyptian king to raise the siege of Jerusalem, but was not able to punish that monarch until after the capture of Tyre. Tyre was taken and destroyed B. C. 585, after a siege of thirteen years, and all Phœnicia was compelled to submit to the conqueror.

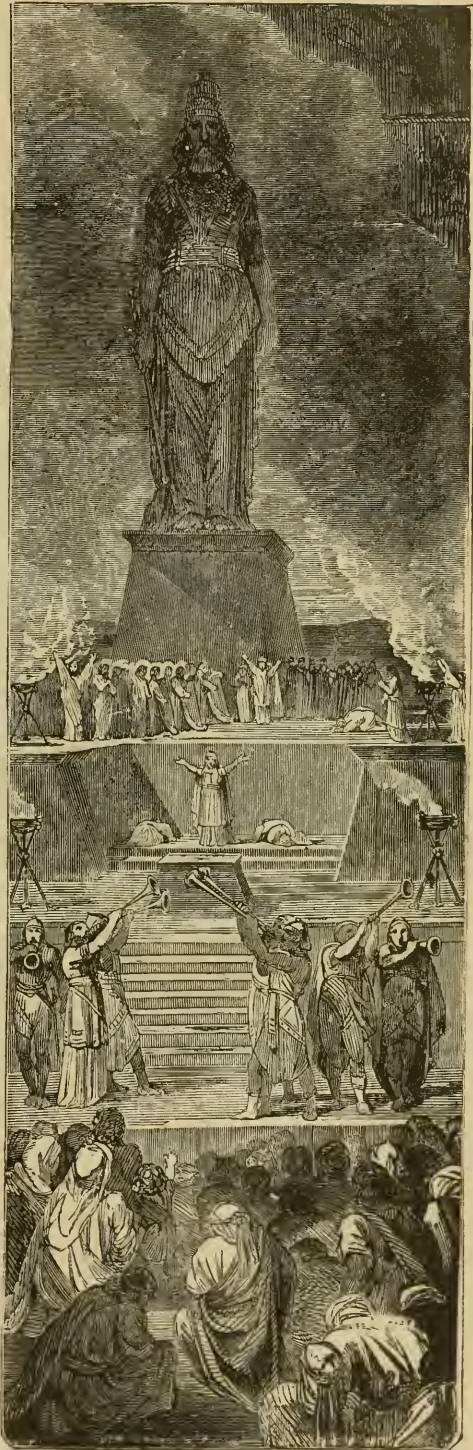
Nebuchadnezzar now addressed himself to the task of punishing Egypt, and in B. C. 581 invaded that country, and gained some unimportant successes. He does not appear to have prosecuted the war with much vigor, and for a while Egypt escaped the punish-



ZEDEKIAH, KING OF JUDAH, BEFORE NERTCHADNEZZAR KING OF BABYLON.

ment it had drawn upon itself by its interference in the affairs of Babylon. In B. C. 570, however, he invaded the kingdom a second time, conquered it, and placed a new king named Amasis on the throne as his vassal.

The reign of Nebuchadnezzar constitutes the most illustrious period of Babylonian history. He was not only a great conqueror, but a ruler of unusual wisdom and strength of character. He covered the country with useful works, such as canals, reservoirs, sluices for the improvement of irrigation, and a system of piers in the harbors of the Persian Gulf—and he made Babylon the most magnificent city of the east. In order to gratify his queen Amyitis, who pined for the mountains of her native Media, he built the celebrated "Hanging Gardens of Babylon," which were considered among the seven wonders of the world. They consisted of a series of terraces built on arches, rising high above the walls of Babylon. Earth was laid on this structure and planted with trees and shrubbery, and hydraulic engines raised water to the highest levels for fountains and cascades, and for the nourishment of the plants. "Art strove to emulate nature with a certain measure of success, and the lofty rocks and various trees of this wonderful Paradise, if they were not a very close imitation of the Median mountain scenery, were at any rate a pleasant change from the natural monotony of the Babylonian plain, and must have formed a grateful retreat for the Babylonian queen, whom they reminded at once of her husband's love and of the beauty of her native country." The city was surrounded with walls of baked bricks, 335 feet high, and 85 feet thick. Their total circuit was 41 miles, making the area of the city enclosed by them a little more than 100 square miles. Under the wise policy of this great king, and in consequence of its admirable position, half-way between the Indus and the Mediterranean, with the Euphrates and the Tigris affording communication with the Persian Gulf and the more northern regions, Babylon became the leading commercial city of the east. Merchants from all the known countries were to be found in her markets. The looms of Babylon produced the finest carpets known, and the towns along the Tigris and Euphrates were noted for the fineness of quality and beauty of color of their cotton fabrics. Nor was Babylon the only city improved

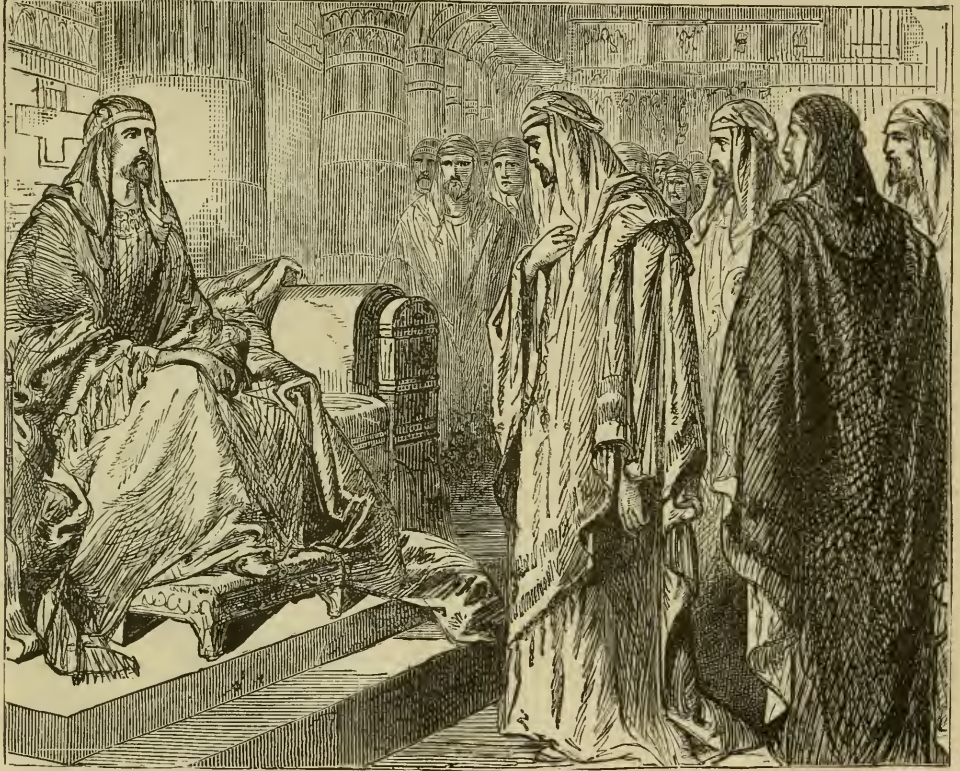


NEBUCHADNEZZAR'S IMAGE OF GOLD.

by the king. All the principal Babylonian towns were adorned with noble buildings and temples, and protected with strong walls, and there was scarcely any part of the kingdom to which the genius of the king did not extend.

Nebuchadnezzar is one of the most remarkable personages of ancient history. He is also one of the most striking figures of the Bible narrative, from which we obtain perhaps the clearest view of his character. The Book of Daniel pictures him at

his absolute power could be given than his placing Daniel, a foreigner, over the heads of the entire priestly class. His wealth is so great that he can make an image of pure gold, ninety feet high and nine feet broad. In his religious views he has none of the exclusiveness of his race. He worships, sometimes his own deities, and then suddenly transfers his allegiance to the God of the captive Hebrews, and compels all his people to follow his example. His temper is violent and hasty, but not obstinate. "His



DANIEL INTERPRETING NEBUCHADNEZZAR'S DREAM.

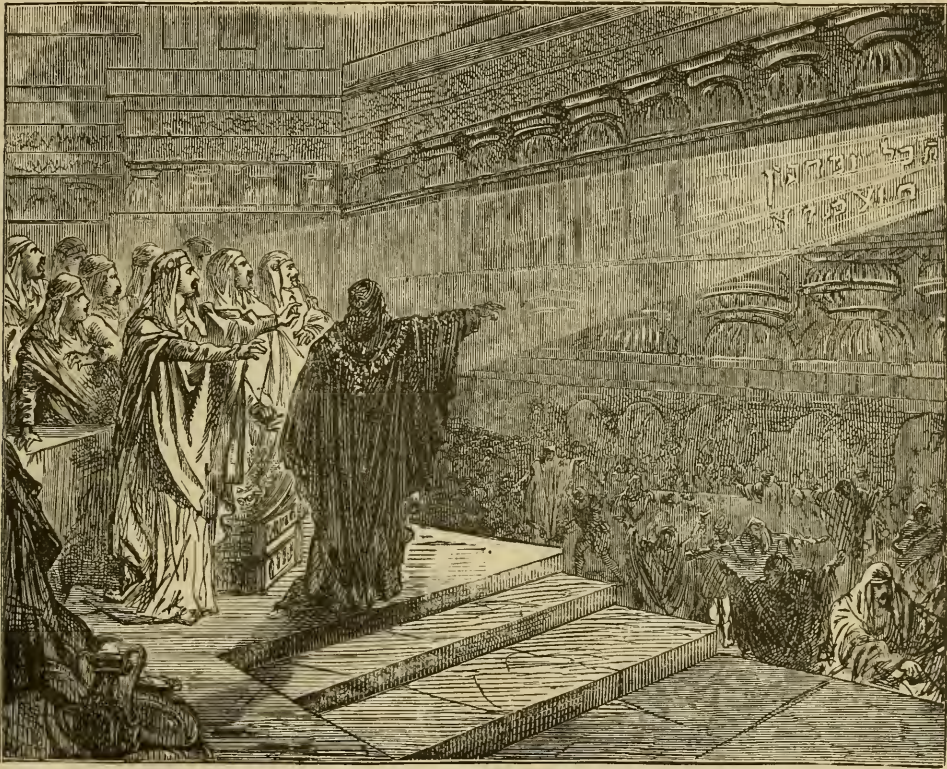
the head of a magnificent court, surrounded by "princes, governors and captains, judges, treasurers, councillors, and sheriffs;" waited on by eunuchs who were "well favored," and highly educated; and attended, when he wished it, by a multitude of astrologers and "wise men," who sought to interpret for him the will of his gods. He is shown to us as an absolute monarch, who can, at a word, make or unmake kings and princes, and upon whose nod depend the lives and fortunes of the people of the vast domain over which he reigns. No better proof of

fierce resolves are taken suddenly and as suddenly repented of; he is, moreover, capable of bursts of gratitude and devotion, no less than of excesses of fury; like most orientals, he is vainglorious; but he can humble himself before the chastening hand of the Almighty; in his better moods he shows a spirit astonishing in one of his country and time—a spirit of real piety, self-condemnation, and self-abasement, which renders him one of the most remarkable characters in Scripture." On the other hand, he was at times ferociously cruel, not

always because reasons of state demanded severity on his part, but because he seemed occasionally to delight in inflicting suffering upon his vanquished enemies. He was devotedly attached to his wife, who had been chosen for him by his father for political reasons, and built for her the Hanging Gardens, as has been stated.

Towards the close of Nebuchadnezzar's reign, probably at a time when his great conquests and public works were completed, and when he was enjoying the repose and

It consists in the belief that one is not a man, but a beast, in the disuse of language, the rejection of all ordinary food, and sometimes in the loss of the erect posture and a preference for walking on all-fours." Within a year of the time that the warning was given, Nebuchadnezzar was seized with the malady, and became a helpless lunatic. Imagining himself a beast, he shunned human society, lived in the open air day and night, cast away all clothing, and lived on herbs. His body became covered with



BELSHAZZAR'S FEAST.

prosperity which had been won for his empire, the king suddenly received a warning from heaven. He dreamed a dream which troubled him very much, and related it to the prophet Daniel, who, by divine inspiration, interpreted its meaning to him. He told the king that God would send upon him an unusual kind of madness as a punishment for his sins; that the malady would last seven years, and that during that time he would be incapable of holding his throne. "This malady, which is not unknown to physicians, has been termed 'Lycanthropy.'

a rough coating of hair, and his condition was pitiable indeed. During the madness of the king it is probable that his subjects were not permitted to see him, and that he was kept within bounds by watchful attendants. The queen most probably carried on the government. The fidelity and devotion of the Babylonian courtiers to their unfortunate sovereign must have been drawn out by the nobler qualities of his nature which had attached them to him in his prosperity. They were sustained by the hope inspired by the prediction of Daniel

that the duration of the malady would be "seven times," which they probably believed to mean "seven years." At the end of these seven years the king's reason suddenly returned to him, and, amid the rejoicings of his court, he once more assumed the government. He was now an old man, and doubtless took to heart the lesson of his terrible punishment. His closing years were as brilliant and prosperous as his first, and he died, after a reign of forty-four years, B. C. 561, leaving the kingdom to his son, Evil-Merodach, who reigned two years, and was slain in a revolt of his subjects, headed by his brother-in-law, Neriglissar.

Neriglissar began to reign B. C. 559, and reigned four years. His reign was one of peace, and was employed chiefly in building the Western Palace at Babylon. He died in B. C. 556, and left his crown to his son, Laborosoarchod, or Labossoracus, a mere boy, who was deposed and put to death after a reign of a few months, by a conspiracy. The conspirators chose Nabonadius to be king. Not being of royal birth, he sought to strengthen his position by marrying a daughter of Nebuchadnezzar, most likely the widow of Neriglissar.

As soon as his son by this marriage, Belshar-uzzar, or Belshazzar, was old enough, he associated him with him on the throne. Alarmed by the growing power of Persia, he entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with Croesus, King of Lydia, to check the Persian advance. All to no purpose, however, for, in the spring of B. C. 538, Cyrus, the Persian monarch, invaded Babylonia, defeated Nabonadius in a pitched battle, and shut him up in Borsippa. Then, advancing upon Babylon, he captured that city by entering it by the course of the Euphrates, the waters of which he had diverted from their bed, leaving the way into the city open. The Babylonians were engaged in a revel in honor of one of their gods, and were unconscious of the movement of Cyrus until the city was taken. Belshazzar was slain in his banquet hall. Borsippa surrendered upon the fall of Babylon. Nabonadius was kindly treated by Cyrus, and was given the government of the important province of Carmania. Babylon became the second city of the Persian empire, and was the residence of the court for half of the year.

With the conquest of Cyrus the Babylonian kingdom came to an end.

BOOK VI.

THE HISTORY OF PHŒNICIA.

CHAPTER I.

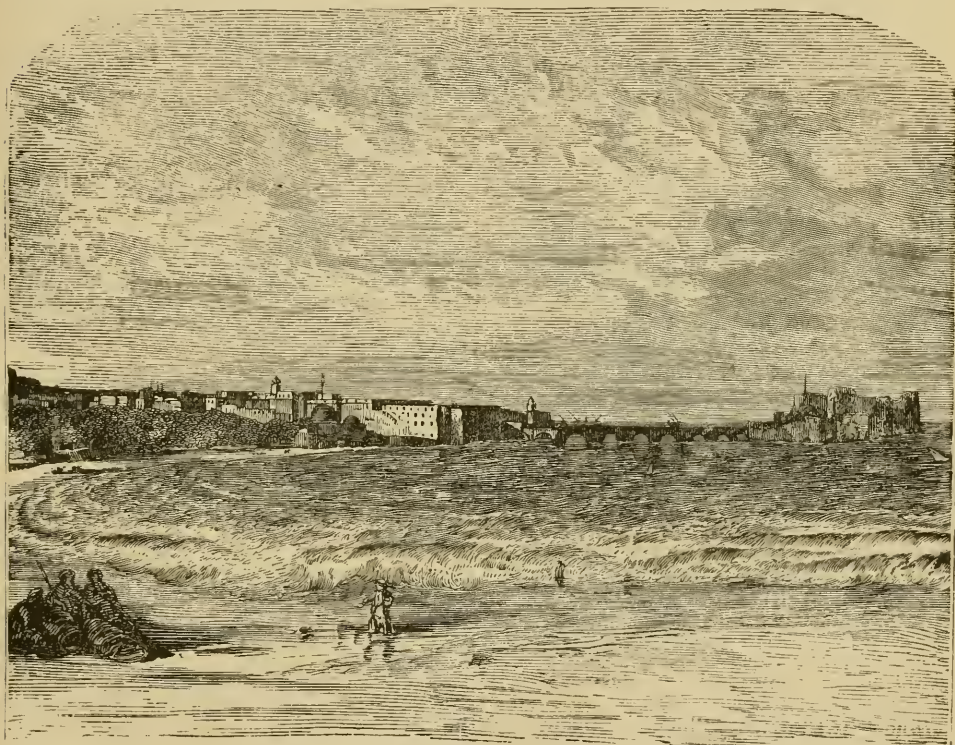
FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE CONQUEST OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

Description of Phœnicia—Its Cities—Origin of the Phœnician People—Sidon, the Oldest City—Its Colonies—Tyre—The Old and New Cities—First Commercial Ventures of the Phœnicians—The Tin Trade—Dangers of the Land Traffic—The Phœnicians Take to the Sea—Extent and Character of their Commerce—The Phœnician Colonies—The Art of Dyeing—Glass-blowing—Pottery—Bronze Work—Agriculture—The Phœnician Alphabet and Their Use of Letters—Language of the Phœnicians—Their Literary Works—Architecture—Art—Religion of the Phœnicians—Character of the People—Rise of Tyre—Hiram King—His Alliance with David and Solomon of Israel—Organization of the Phœnician Confederacy—Hiram's Successors—Pygmalion King—Flight of Dido and the Aristocratic Party—Carthage Founded—Phœnicia Tributary to Assyria—Siege of Tyre—Sennacherib takes Tyre—End of the Tyrian Supremacy—Esar-haddon Destroys Sidon—Capture of Tyre by Nebuchadnezzar—Phœnicia Becomes a Persian Province—Conquered by Alexander the Great—Its Subsequent History.

ANCIENT Phœnicia consisted of a narrow strip of land extending along the Mediterranean, from the Ladder of Tyre, on the south, to the island of Aradus, the Arvad of the Bible, on the north. The length of the country was about 120 miles. Its width from the base of the Lebanon range to the sea never exceeded twenty miles, and was often much less. Near Sidon the mountains are but two miles from the sea, and at Tyre the Phœnician plain is five miles wide. The entire Phœnician plain was a region of great fertility. It was abundantly watered and was provided with a number of well-sheltered harbors, suitable to the requirements of ancient commerce. Several important cities stood along the coast. The most southern of these was Tyre; about twenty miles to the northward was Sidon; sixteen miles north of Sidon was Berytus,

which has in modern times become the principal seaport of Syria; still farther north was Byblus, the Gebal of the Bible, inhabited by seamen and caulkers; north of this was Tripolis, now known as Tarabulus; and last of all was Aradus, the Arvad of Genesis (x. 18) and Ezekiel (xxvii. 8). The Lebanon range, which shuts in the country on the east, besides supplying an abundance of pure water, was well wooded, and afforded an inexhaustible supply of timber for ship-building.

commercial enterprises, by land and sea, with the neighboring nations, and was the first to engage in the system of founding colonies, which subsequently became a distinctive feature of the Phœnician policy. Tyre was the first of these colonies. Sidon enjoyed the supremacy over the other cities until about B. C. 1050, when it was captured and destroyed by the Philistines from the southern part of Palestine. The inhabitants took refuge in Tyre, which became the principal Phœnician city.



MODERN SIDON.

The Phœnicians were a branch of the Hamitic race, and were descended from Canaan. They came into the country from the Chaldean plains about the era of Nimrod, and built a number of independent cities, which were subsequently united in a confederacy. One of these cities was usually recognized as the leader of the confederacy. This supremacy was exercised only in war, the other cities being free to manage their internal affairs in their own way.

Sidon appears to have been the oldest of the Phœnician cities, and the first to attain wealth and power. It early embarked in

The exact date of the founding of Tyre is unknown. The original city stood on the mainland, but at a later period a new city was built on an island about half a mile from the shore. It soon surpassed old Tyre in wealth and splendor, and its name became the synonym for commercial greatness.

The sea was the great field of action, and the inexhaustible mine of riches for the Phœnicians. For many centuries they had no rivals, and the commerce of the ancient world was exclusively in their hands. It is most probable that their first trading

ventures were made with Egypt, which was reached by land. Bronze implements have been found in the tombs of Egypt contemporary with the pyramids. Bronze is composed in part of tin, and tin is not found in Egypt, or nearer than the Caucasus, or India, or Spain. It must, therefore, have been brought into Egypt from the regions in which it is produced. The Phœnicians are believed to have been the medium of its introduction, and their earliest traffic is thus seen to have been the tin trade. The land traffic in this metal with Egypt, however, was attended with great difficulties. It required long and laborious journeys, and the routes pursued led through regions frequented by marauding tribes. Moreover, the route of the tin traders was controlled by ambitious monarchies which desired to monopolize the trade. The Phœnicians were thus driven to seek a source of supply for this metal free from these drawbacks, and a route safe from the violence of the marauders. Spain afforded such a source of supply, and the sea furnished a safe and open route. Consequently the Phœnician ships steered for the Spanish coast, from which, loaded with Spanish tin, they sailed for Egypt. Nor did they relinquish this, their earliest commerce, when they had acquired the wealth and power of their later history. Until a very late period the Phœnicians retained the exclusive privilege of furnishing Italy and Greece, as they had formerly supplied Egypt, with tin. When the mines of Spain were exhausted, the pillars of Hercules were passed, and voyages were made to the coast of Cornwall for the metal which had been the basis of commerce.

The growth of the Phœnician commerce was rapid. Theirs was a carrying trade almost exclusively. In order to extend their trade, colonies, or trading stations, were established in distant countries, and many of these became in later times important cities. The position of these colonies indicates to a certain degree the extent of the trade of Phœnicia; but it must be borne in mind that the colonies were generally centres from which ventures were pushed into more remote regions. In the eastern Mediterranean the Phœnician colonies were Paphos, Amathus, Tamisus, Ammochosta, in Cyprus; Ialysus and Camarius, in Rhodes; Thera and most of the Cyclades; and Thasos. In the western Mediterranean they were Lillybeum and

Panormus (Mahaneth), in Sicily; Gaulos, Milite, Utica, Carthage, and Hadrumentum, in north Africa; Carteia, Malaca, in Spain. On the Atlantic coast, beyond the Pillars of Hercules, they were Tartessus on the Bœtis (Gaudalquiver), and Gadez (now Cadiz) on an island close to the Spanish coast. In the Persian Gulf, Tylos and Aradus (perhaps Bahrein).

From Gades and Tartessus voyages were made to the west coast of Africa for apes, and to the Scilly Isles and Cornwall for tin. From Tylos and Aradus the Phœnician vessels descended the Persian Gulf and traded with India and Ceylon, bringing back diamonds and pearls. Elath, at the head of the Red Sea, was the starting-point for voyages to Ophir on the southeast coast of Arabia, where gold was obtained. The Black Sea was also penetrated, and commercial relations were established with Thrace, Scythia, and Colchis. The stations in the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf necessitated a land traffic between them and the Phœnician cities, and it seems likely that this land traffic extended to the neighboring nations.

In addition to their carrying trade the Phœnicians derived great wealth from their manufactures. Their principal production was the famous dye known as the "Tyrian purple," which they obtained in minute drops from two shell-fish, the *buccinum* and the *murex*. This purple was of a dark red-violet, of various shades, according to the species of mussel employed. Cotton, linen, and silk fabrics were dyed with this hue, but the most beautiful effects were obtained with woollen goods. As the dye was very costly, it was used only for stuffs of the best quality. Its manufacture and the process of dyeing were not confined to Tyre, but were common to all the Phœnician cities. Homer arrays his heroes in Sidonian robes dyed with this gorgeous purple.

The Phœnicians claimed the invention of the art of glass blowing. Whether they originated it or not, they were the first to attain a high degree of skill in its exercise. Sidon and Sarepta were the principal seats of this industry. The sand used was obtained from the banks of the little river Belus, near the promontory of Carmel. Many specimens of their glass-ware still exist, and attest their skilful workmanship. They were also skilled in pottery. The Greeks learned from them the art of mak-

ing painted vases, which they afterwards carried to such perfection. Pottery was largely exported. The Tyrians used it to exchange for tin in their voyages to Cornwall and the Scilly Isles.

The Phœnicians also excelled in their bronze work and in working the precious metals. They were skilful jewellers, and the specimens of this branch of their work which have been recovered by modern explorers give us a high opinion of the skill and taste displayed by the ancient jewellers of Canaan. They were equally noted for their beautiful carvings in ivory.

They were also skilful cultivators of the soil. Excellent wines were produced in the neighborhood of Tyre, Berytus, and Gebal, and in the Lebanon. Silk formed then, as it does now, an important production. The fruits of this region were noted for their excellence and profusion.

It was once believed that the Phœnicians were the inventors of letters. The discoveries of late years have raised great doubts concerning this claim. It seems certain, however, that while the writing of other ancient Eastern nations was ideographic, that is, an attempt to depict ideas—a characteristic which clung even to the highest development of the Egyptian system—the Phœnicians used an alphabet of twenty-two letters which seem to have been selected from the characters of the Egyptian hieratic writing. Each letter of this alphabet was the invariable representative of one articulation. We know of no such system in use anterior to that of the Phœnicians. It is believed that the Phœnician alphabet was invented about the time of Avaris, one of the Shepherd kings of Egypt, several centuries prior to the exodus of the Israelites. It is the first *true* alphabet we find in use, so that whether the Phœnicians invented letters or not, they were the first to use them in their proper manner, as a system distinct from hieroglyphic or ideographic writing. Wherever they carried their commercial enterprises they established their alphabet also, and thus taught the use of letters to other nations. As M. Renan happily observes, the alphabet was one of their exports.

It is one of the contradictions of history that the Phœnicians, though they were descendants of Ham, spoke a purely Semitic language. "It is certain that the Phœnician idiom differed but slightly, and in no important point, from that of the Hebrews.

The identity of grammatical forms and of the vocabulary are so complete between the Hebrew and the Phœnician, that they cannot be considered as two distinct languages, but merely as two slightly differing dialects of the same language."

The Phœnicians appear to have been a literary people at a very early period of their history. The principles of their religion, and their social and political organizations, constituted a written law. Among their books were treatises on religion, agriculture, and the useful arts, and the various cities possessed regular records or archives in writing, extending back to very ancient times, and preserved with great care. In the sciences great progress was made. The Sidonian architects were considered the best in Syria. Astronomy, arithmetic, geometry, navigation, and philosophy flourished in Phœnicia, especially in Sidon, which sought to atone for her lost supremacy by her intellectual splendor.

The few remaining buildings of the Phœnicians show the character of their architecture. M. Renan says that its distinguishing feature "is its massive and imposing strength—a want, indeed, of finish in details, but a general effect of power and grandeur. In short it is a monolithic art." Their buildings were constructed of immense stones, such as may still be seen in the lower walls of the Temple platform at Jerusalem, which were built by Phœnician architects and masons, and in the sea-wall of the ruins of Tyre. Their tombs were constructed with grandeur and originality of design. All their edifices were erected to *last*. In spite of the hard fate that has befallen them, this characteristic has preserved to us some of the most interesting monuments of the past in a state sufficiently perfect to enable us to study them with success.

The statuary of the Phœnicians presents a mixture of the Egyptian and Assyrian styles, the general form being Egyptian and the execution Asiatic. Large statues were comparatively rare; statuettes, on the other hand, were numerous. Some of these exhibit great artistic skill, and are of stone; others are of baked clay and bronze, and are rough and coarse in design and execution. It seems that both classes were designed as idols, of which every Phœnician had one or more in his own house. Those of the rich constitute the first class, while the latter is made up of the gods of the poor, executed hastily and cheaply.

The religion of Phœnicia evidently sprang from the source from which those of Chaldaea and Assyria were derived. It was founded on the conception of one universal divine being, "whose person was hardly to be distinguished from the material world, which had emanated from his substance without any distinct act of creation." He was usually termed Baal, "the Lord." He represented the sun, the great agent of creative power. He was subdivided into a number of secondary divinities, called Baalim, emanating from his substance, and who were merely personifications of his attributes. "The supreme god, considered as the progenitor of different beings, became Baal-Thammuz, called also Adon, 'the Lord,' whence the Grecian Adonis.



MOLOCH.

As a preserver, he was Baal-Chon; as a destroyer, Baal-Moloch; as presiding over the decomposition of those destroyed beings whence new life was again to spring, Baal-Zebub." Each divinity had his female principle or wife: to each secondary Baal there was a corresponding Baalath, who represented the same god under a different aspect. The female principle of the great god Baal at Sidon was Ashtoreth or Astarte, who represented the moon. The planets were worshipped under the generic name of Cabirim or "powerful ones." Fire was also venerated, and the solar and sidereal deities were emphatically "fire gods." The learned Movers has well summed up the Phœnician religion as "an apotheosis of the forces and laws of nature; an adoration of

the objects in which these forces were seen, and where they appeared most active."

The worship of the Phœnician deities was accompanied by the most licentious and horrible rites. Children were burnt alive to appease the anger of Baal-Moloch. In Carthage this was carried to a frightful excess. "This religion silenced all the best feelings of human nature, degraded men's minds by a superstition alternately cruel and profligate, and we may seek in vain for any influence for good it could have exercised on the nation." The moral character of the people is well illustrated by their religion. They were unusually unruly and at the same time servile, gloomy, and cruel, corrupt and ferocious, selfish and covetous, implacable and faithless. They were traders in all things, and seem to have been dead to every generous emotion and elevated sentiment.

The situation of Phœnicia colored its whole history. The country was exposed to all the great conquerors who made Syria their battle-ground for ages, and its wealth constantly invited attack from them. Consequently the period of Phœnician independence was very brief, and is to be found in the infancy of the nation. At an early day it was obliged to submit to the supremacy of Egypt, and from this time passed successively to the powers that held the dominion of the ancient world.

The eleventh century before the Christian era witnessed the rapid growth of Tyre, which became the leading city of Phœnicia. Under the rule of its own kings it advanced swiftly in commercial wealth and internal magnificence. The first of its kings known to us was Abibaal, who was partly contemporary with David. He was succeeded about B. C. 1025 by his son Hiram, who reigned during the remainder of the century. Hiram made an important commercial alliance with David and with Solomon of Israel, and supplied a large part of the materials for the Jewish Temple and the workmen by which it was constructed. His reign marks a period of great prosperity in the Phœnician cities. It extended over a period of thirty-four years. The supremacy of Tyre was acknowledged throughout Phœnicia. Though each of the cities had its king, experience had taught them the necessity and advantages of a close confederation, and the kings of the various cities were all subject to the supremacy of their suzerain, the King of Tyre, "the true and only mon-

arch of the nation, who, in consequence, was called 'King of the Sidonians.' The reader must not confound this title with that of the King of Sidon, who was the local monarch of the ancient metropolis. The King of Tyre managed all business relating to the general interests of Phœnicia, its commerce and its colonies, concluded treaties with foreign nations, and disposed of the military and naval forces of the confederation. He was assisted by deputies from the other towns.

Hiram died in B. C. 991. He was succeeded by his son Baalcazar, who reigned seven years, and was succeeded by his son Abdastartus (or Abdastoreth), who reigned nine years, when he was murdered by a conspiracy, B. C. 975. The assassination of Abdastartus was followed by a long period of troubles and civil wars; various pretenders disputed the throne of Tyre one after another, in rapid succession. It was brought to an end about B. C. 941, by Eth-baal (or Ithobalus), the high priest of Astarte, who slew Phales, the last pretender, and established himself on the throne of Tyre as King of the Sidonians. He gave his daughter Jezebel in marriage to Ahab, King of Israel. The strong will of this princess made her supreme over her weak-minded husband, and through her Phœnician influence was paramount in Israel during Ahab's reign. Eth-baal was succeeded by his son Badezor, about B. C. 909. He reigned six years, and was succeeded by his son Matgen.

Matgen mounted the throne of Tyre B. C. 903. He reigned thirty-two years, and died B. C. 871, leaving two children, a son named Pygmalion, and a daughter named

to the exclusion of his sister, who married Zicharbaal, the Siehæus of Virgil. He was high priest of Melcarth, next in rank to the king, and the head of the aristocratic party. A short time afterwards, Zicharbaal was assassinated by order of Pygmalion, and Dido organized a conspiracy of the Phœnician nobles for the purpose of avenging



COIN OF SIDON.

her husband and dethroning her brother. Defeated by the vigilance of the popular party, the conspirators, to the number of several thousand, seized some ships lying in the harbor of Tyre ready for sea, and sailed away under the leadership of Elissar, whose name was in consequence changed to Dido, "the fugitive." They reached the northern coast of Africa and founded Carthage.

The departure of the aristocratic party removed the great check upon the power of the Tyrian king, who became from this time an absolute monarch. During this reign the Assyrians under Asshur-izir-pal made their appearance on the Mediterranean coast. The Phœnician cities made their submission as the price of exemption from conquest, and paid tribute. This condition of dependency seems to have lasted for nearly a century. Pygmalion's reign ended B. C. 824, but we have no account of any Phœnician monarch until after the middle of the next century. Native sovereigns, tributary to Assyria, reigned in the Phœnician cities, and were counted by the Assyrian monarchs among their dependents. Still, this dependency does not seem to have retarded the prosperity of Phœnicia, or injured its maritime power.

The Assyrian supremacy was patiently submitted to by the Phœnicians until the middle of the eighth century before the Christian era, when the people became restless under it. About B. C. 743, under a Hiram of Tyre, Phœnicia revolted from Tiglath-Pileser II., but was compelled to resume its tributary position by the advance of the conquerors into Palestine. In B. C. 727, under Elulæus, Phœnicia again re-



COIN OF TYRE.

Elissar or Elissa, better known as Dido. The latter was some years older than her brother, who had reached the age of eleven at his father's death. It was the wish of Matgen that his children should reign together. The populace, desirous of changing the aristocratic form of government, revolted and proclaimed Pygmalion king

volted, this time from Shalmaneser IV. The Assyrian king marched against the country, occupied old Tyre, which made no resistance, and laid siege to the island city. He was unable to assail it from the land, and was without a fleet, and the siege became a mere blockade, the most important feature of which was the cutting off of the water of insular Tyre, supplied by aqueducts from the mainland. The inhabitants are said to have drunk rain-water for five years, the period of the city's resistance.

Assyria, Tyre emerged from the siege sadly weakened. The other Phœnician cities had thrown off its supremacy and became tributary to Sargon, and its misfortunes were increased in B. C. 708 by the loss of its colony of Cyprus, which submitted to the Assyrians. In B. C. 704, just after the accession of Sennacherib, Elulæus re-established the supremacy of Tyre over Phœnicia, and proclaimed the independence of the country. In B. C. 700, Sennacherib invaded Phœnicia with a powerful force, and the



MODERN TYRE.

Shalmaneser was dethroned during the siege, which was continued by Sargon, his successor. The other Phœnician cities submitted previous to the commencement of the siege of Tyre and during its progress. Sargon collected a fleet of sixty ships from these cities, and endeavored to attack the island city from the sea; but the Tyrians sallied out with twelve ships, and defeated and destroyed Sargon's fleet. At last, after five years of fruitless efforts, the Assyrian generals raised the siege.

But though successful in its resistance to

other cities forsook Tyre, and submitted at the approach of the great king. Elulæus retired to insular Tyre, trusting to his usual good fortune, which, however, deserted him this time. Tyre was taken, and Elulæus sought safety in flight. Sennacherib spared the city, and made Tubal (or Ethbaal) king, as his vassal and tributary.

The capture of Tyre by Sennacherib destroyed the Tyrian supremacy, which for some time had borne very hard on the other cities. Tyre had retained for herself the chief profits of the Phœnician commerce,

and the other cities lent Sennacherib a hearty support in his war against her. All the cities were now placed on an equality as tributaries of Assyria. Sidon, upon the murder of Sennacherib, rebelled, and attempted to acquire the supremacy formerly held by Tyre. The revolt was signally punished by Esar-haddon, about B. C. 681, who destroyed Sidon, and enslaved its inhabitants. At the death of Esar-haddon the Phœnician cities threw off the Assyrian yoke, and made an alliance with Egypt. In B. C. 666, the Assyrian king, Assurbani-pal, having restored his authority in Egypt, put down the Phœnician revolt.

The punishment of the nation came at length, however. In B. C. 598, Nebuchadnezzar invaded Phœnicia, rapidly reduced the country, and laid siege to Tyre, which resisted him for thirteen years. At the end of this time he took the city by assault, and laid it in ruins. The greater part of the population fled to the fleet and sailed for Carthage, taking with them their wealth and industry; but a wretched remnant remained in the city under a king named Baal, whom the conqueror had set up as his vassal. Some years later Uaphris, King of Egypt, undertook to wrest Phœnicia from Babylon, but the Phœnicians remained



ANCIENT BERYTUS.

About B. C. 630, or 629, the great wave of the Scythian invasion swept over Phœnicia. The open country was ravaged, but none of the fortified cities were taken. The fall of the Assyrian empire gave the Phœnicians a momentary freedom. About B. C. 608, however, they submitted to Nechoh, King of Egypt. The Egyptian dominion was brought to a close in B. C. 605 by the defeat of Nechoh by Nebuchadnezzar at Carehemish. The sudden death of the father of the conqueror recalled him to Babylon, and allowed the Phœnician cities a short period of respite before the appearance of their new master in their country.

faithful to Nebuchadnezzar, and with the aid of Cyprus defeated the Egyptian fleet, which was manned by Greek and Carian mercenaries. Uaphris was stopped in his career by this reverse, and after capturing and sacking Sidon and ravaging the Phœnician coast returned to Egypt, laden with plunder.

Phœnicia passed under the Persian sway at the downfall of the Babylonian kingdom, or more properly at the accession of Cambysses. The principal part of the naval forces used in the Egyptian expedition of that king consisted of Phœnician ships and sailors. The Persian dominion came to an

end with the conquests of Alexander the Great, and at the same time the national existence of Phœnicia terminated. The country was absorbed in the kingdoms erected by the successors of Alexander, being sometimes the prize of Egypt and sometimes of the Greek kingdom of Syria.

Later on it was numbered among the conquests of Rome, and later still was wrested from the empire by the Mohammedans, who still hold it. Its history from the time of Cambysses is related in our account of the countries to which it was subject.

BOOK VII.

HISTORY OF THE KINGDOMS OF ASIA MINOR.

CHAPTER I.

THE RISE AND FALL OF PHRYGIA, CILICIA, AND LYDIA.

Natural Formation of Asia Minor—The Reason why it never became the Seat of a Great Empire—History of Phrygia—Origin of the Phrygians—Their Character—Phrygia Conquered by Lydia—History of Cilicia—Tributary to Assyria—Tarsus Founded—Becomes a Persian Province—History of Lydia—Wealth and Refinement of the Nation—Character of the Lydians—Wars of the Heraclidae and Mermnadae—Gyges King—Conquers the Asiatic Greeks—Invasion of the Cimmerians—War with Media and Babylonia—Cresus becomes King of Lydia—His Wealth—Visit of Solon—The Sage's Answer—Lydia Conquered by Cyrus—He spares the Life of Cresus—Lydia a Persian Province.

THE Anatolian Peninsula, or Asia Minor, is divided by mountain chains into several distinct sections, isolated from each other. These regions were inhabited by several races—the Phrygians, the Lydians, the Carians, the Cilicians, the Paphlagonians, and the Cappadocians—which were nearly equal in strength. This equality, together with the natural division of the country, prevented the growth in Asia Minor of a powerful empire, and favored the growth of a number of parallel, independent kingdoms. It will be interesting as well as instructive to glance at the history of these kingdoms.

I. PHRYGIA. Phrygia was the first of the monarchies of Asia Minor to rise to importance, but its history is very obscure. The Phrygians are believed to have been the earliest settlers of Asia Minor, and it is probable that at one time they occupied the whole peninsula. Successive immigra-

tions of fresh tribes from the east and west drove them back from the coast, except in the region south of the Hellespont. They retained this region and the central portion of the peninsula, and thus had a large and fertile country, which abounded in pastures and contained a number of salt lakes. The people were brave, but brutal, and were occupied with agricultural pursuits, prominent among which was the culture of the vine. They came originally from Armenia, and in primitive times dwelt in caves or habitations which they hollowed out of the rocky hill-sides. They gradually abandoned these for regular and well-built cities. About B. C. 750, or perhaps earlier, the Phrygians are seen to have a well-organized monarchy, the capital of which was Gordiæum on the Sangarius. The line of kings lasted for about two centuries, but we know little about them. The monarchs were named alternately Gordias and Midas. As Lydia increased in power Phrygia began to decline, and about B. C. 560 was conquered by Lydia and became a province of that kingdom.

II. CILICIA. Cilicia occupied the south-eastern portion of the peninsula. It was a rich and fertile country, and its inhabitants were generally devoted to agricultural pursuits. We know nothing of its early history save that it existed as an independent monarchy during the period of the early Assyrian monarchy. It was compelled to submit to Sargon, who, about B. C. 711, gave the country to Ambris, King of Tubal, as a dowry with his daughter. It thus became a tributary of Assyria. About B. C. 701, having revolted from Assyria, Cilicia

was invaded and ravaged by Sennacherib. About B. C. 685 that monarch founded the city of Tarsus, which in after years became famous as the birth-place of the Apostle Paul. About B. C. 677 Esar-haddon ravaged Cilicia, which appears to have incurred his anger by a revolt. About B. C. 616 a king named Tyennesis came to the Cilician throne, and from this time all the kings bore that name. Cilicia successfully resisted the attempts of Lydia to conquer her, but was compelled to submit to the Persian arms, and became a province of the Persian empire some time during the reign of Cambysses.

III. LYDIA.

Lydia, which ultimately became the most important state of Asia Minor, was situated on the eastern coast of the peninsula. It ultimately embraced the whole peninsula except Lycia, Cilicia, and Cappadocia. The principal towns were Sardis, the capital; Magnesia, at the foot of Mount Sipylus; Thyatira, and Philadelphia. The original Lydian territory was exceedingly fertile. The Pactolus, a tributary of the Hermus, carried a rich supply

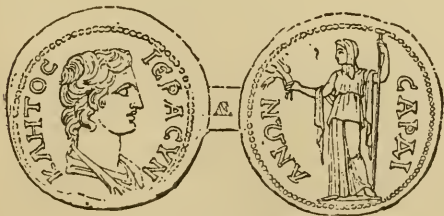
wealthy and cultivated people, and were the first to coin money. They "were one of the earliest commercial people on the Mediterranean, and their scented ointments, rich carpets, and skilled laborers or slaves were highly celebrated. The Greeks received from them the Lydian flute, and subsequently the cithara of three and of



MOUNT ARARAT.

twenty strings, and imitated their harmony. The Homeric poems describe the Lydians or Mæones as men on horseback, clad in armor, and speak of their commerce and wealth. It seems that the worship of the Lydians resembled that of the Syrians, and was polluted with its immoral practices. The ancient writers often mention the depravity of the Lydians, while admitting their skill and courage in war. When subdued they submitted quietly to their conquerors."

Lydia was organized as a monarchy at a very early period, and was governed until the seventh century before Christ by a dynasty called the Heraclidæ. The last portion of this early period was marked by the struggle between the Heraclidæ and the Mermnadæ, who appear to have been a branch of the royal family. The latter were obliged to seek safety in flight, but at length returned under the leadership of



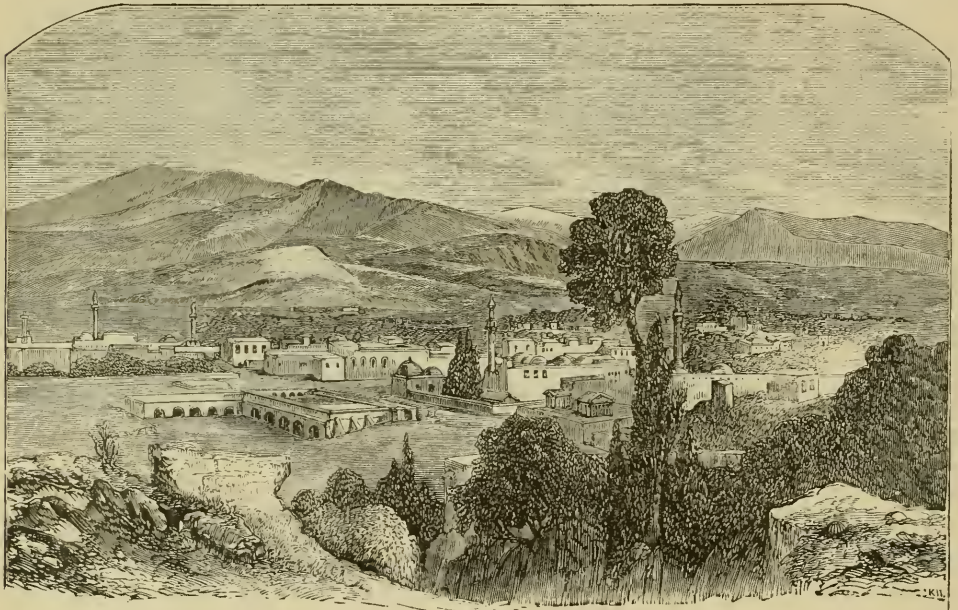
COIN OF SARDIS.

of gold from the slopes of Mount Tmolus, and the precious metal was washed from the sands in the streets of Sardis, the capital. Mounts Tmolus and Sipylus contained rich veins of gold. The Lydians were a

their chief, Gyges, who murdered Candaules, the reigning king, and mounted the throne about B. C. 700. Lydia was now a prosperous country, and the revenue of Gyges was so great that his wealth became proverbial. He changed the policy of his predecessors towards the Greeks of the Asiatic coast, and reduced them to submission to his rule. Towards the close of his reign, about B. C. 662, the Cimmerians, probably a Celtic people from beyond the Caucasus, burst through the mountain barrier and swept over Asia Minor. Gyges was slain in a battle with them, and Sardis, his capital, was taken and sacked. The citadel alone held out against the barbar-

Lydia and her allies became the fast friends of Media, and the peace was cemented by the marriage of the son of Cyaxeres to the princess of Lydia. Thus relieved from the fear of Media, Alyattes renewed the war against the Asiatic Greeks, in which the last years of his reign were passed. He captured Smyrna, and gained other important successes. He died B. C. 568, leaving his crown to his son Cræsus.

Cræsus continued the wars of his father, and conquered the Ionian, Æolian, and Dorian Greeks, and all Asia Minor west of the Halys, with the exception of Lycia and Cilicia. Under him Lydia reached the height of her glory and prosperity, but



TARSUS.

ians. In spite of this blow Lydia recovered rapidly, and under Alyattes, the great-grandson of Gyges, who came to the throne about B. C. 617, the Cimmerians were expelled from Asia Minor. It is likely that in consequence of this great service of Alyattes, the supremacy of Lydia was extended over the various nations that had suffered from the invasion.

About B. C. 615 Lydia became involved in a war with Media and Babylonia in her efforts to resist the advance of the former power into her territory. Peace was made at the end of five years through the mediation of the Babylonian king, B. C. 610.

only to be speedily overthrown in her turn Cræsus was famed throughout the ancient world for his enormous wealth, and considered himself the most fortunate of men. When only crown prince he had been associated with his father in the government of the kingdom, and while holding this position had received a visit from Solon of Athens. The sage paid but little heed to the magnificence of the court, and this indifference annoyed Cræsus very much. Hoping to elicit a compliment from Solon, the prince asked him to name the happiest man he had met in his travels. "One Tellus," promptly replied

the sage, "a citizen of Athens; a very honest and good man, who had lived all his days without indigence, had always seen his country in a flourishing condition, had children that were universally esteemed, with the satisfaction of seeing those children's children, and at last died gloriously, fighting for his country." Astounded at such an answer, Cræsus asked the sage to name the person whom he esteemed the next happiest, thinking that the sage would surely name him; but Solon mentioned two brothers of Argos, who had won the admiration of their countrymen by their devotion to their mother, and who had been rewarded by the gods with a pleasant and painless death. "What, then," exclaimed Cræsus, "do you not reckon me among the number of the happy?" "King of Lydia," replied the sage, earnestly, "no man can be esteemed happy but he whose happiness the gods continue to the end of his life."

Alarmed by the success of Cyrus, and foreseeing the inevitable conflict which must ensue for the mastery of Asia Minor, Cræsus formed a league with the Babylonians, Egyptians and Spartans against Persia. The war soon came. An indecisive battle was fought in Cappadocia. Cræsus withdrew to Sardis, intending to

winter there, but Cyrus pursued him, defeated his army, took the city, and made the king a prisoner.

According to the barbarous custom of the times, Cræsus was condemned by the conqueror to be burned alive. As the doomed king was laid upon the funeral pile he remembered the words of the Athenian sage, and exclaimed bitterly, "Solon! Solon! Solon!" Cyrus, who was standing by, demanded the reason of this singular appeal to Solon at such a moment. Cræsus



COIN OF TARSUS.

then related to him his conversation with the sage, and the conqueror, reflecting upon the uncertainty of all earthly things, was touched with compassion for the unfortunate king, spared his life, and treated him with honor and respect as long as he lived.

Lydia became a province of the Persian empire, and its independent existence ceased, B. C. 554.

BOOK VIII.

THE HISTORY OF THE KINGDOM OF MEDIA.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE FALL OF THE KINGDOM.

Description of Media—Geographical Position—Physical Characteristics—Mountainous Character—The Climate—Vegetable Products—Mineral Wealth—Animals—Origin of the Medes—Personal Appearance and Character of the People—Polygamy—Religion of the Medes—The Primitive Faith—Appearance and Gradual Growth of Magism—True Character of Magism—Worship of the Elements—Primitive History of Media Unknown—Tribal Organization of the People—Phraortes Founds the Median Kingdom—Makes War upon Assyria—Is Defeated and Slain—Cyaxeres King—Invades Assyria—Media Conquered by the Scythians—The Banquet of Cyaxeres—Median Independence Restored—The War with Assyria Renewed—Alliance with Babylonia—

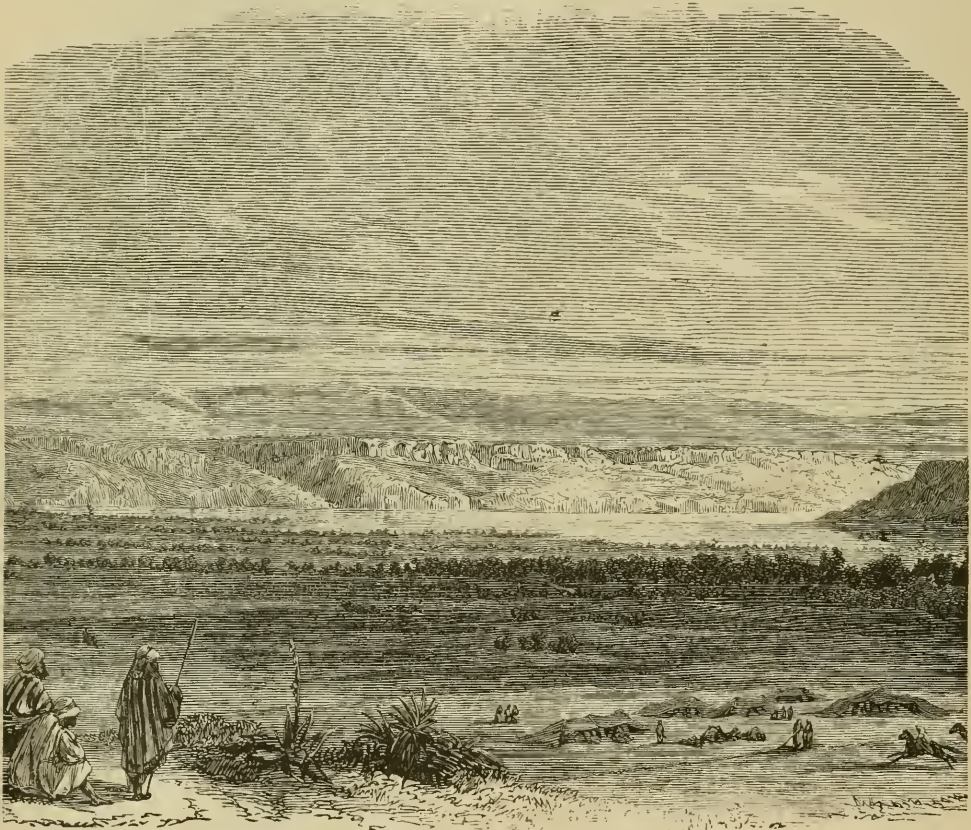
Fall of the Assyrian Empire—Media Receives a Part of the Assyrian Territories—Wars and Conquests of Cyaxeres—Peace with Lydia—Astyages King—Gradual Decline of the Median Monarchy—Media Succumbs to Persia and Becomes a Province of that Empire.

MEDIA, which was the third in importance of the ancient Asiatic monarchies, occupied a vast elevated region, with an average height of 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, lying south and west of the Caspian Sea, and between that sea and Assyria. Its length was about 600 miles, and its breadth about 250 miles, thus giving it an area of nearly 150,000 square miles, an extent greater than that of Assyria and

Chaldea combined. It lay in a single solid mass, "with no straggling or outlying portions; and it is strongly defended on almost every side by natural barriers offering great difficulties to an invader."

The Median territory may be divided into two tracts—a series of lofty mountain ridges, which form its northern and western portion; and a high flat table-land, extending from the foot of the mountain region southward to the Indian Ocean and

the Assyrians, Persians, Greeks, Parthians, or Turks, and remains to this day as independent of the great powers in its neighborhood, as it was when the Assyrian armies first penetrated its recesses. Nature seems to have constructed it to be a nursery of hardy and vigorous men, a stumbling-block to conquerors, a thorn in the side of every powerful empire which arises in this part of the great eastern continent." The northern part of the mountainous region is



SCENE ON THE UPPER TIGRIS.

eastward to the country of the Affghans. The western part of the mountain region was known to the ancients as the Zagros; modern geographers call it Kurdistan and Luristan. "Full of torrents, of deep ravines, of rocky summits, abrupt and almost inaccessible; containing but few passes, and those narrow and easily defensible; secure, moreover, owing to the rigor of its climate, from hostile invasion for more than half the year, it has defied all attempts to effect its permanent subjugation, whether made by

known to modern geographers as Elburz. It is of far less importance than the Zagros region, and is not as well watered, its streams being small, often dry in summer, and soon absorbed in the Caspian Sea or the desert. The chief feature of this range is the lofty, snow-covered peak of Demavend, which looks down upon Teheran, and is the highest part of Asia west of the great Himalaya chain.

"The elevated plateau which stretches from the foot of these two mountain regions

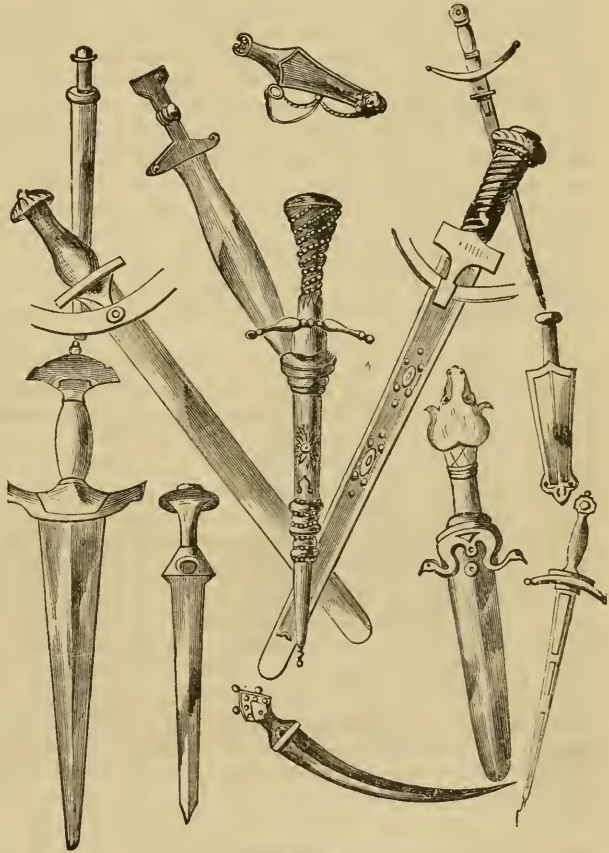
to the south and east, is, for the most part, a flat, sandy desert, incapable of sustaining more than a sparse and scanty population. The northern and western portions are, however, less arid than the east and south, being watered for some distance by the streams that descend from Zagros and Elburz, and deriving fertility also from the spring rains. Some of the rivers which flow from Zagros on this side are large and strong. One, the Kizil-Uzen, reaches the Caspian. Another, the Zenderud, fertilizes a large district near Isfahan. A third, the Bendamir, flows by Persepolis and terminates in a sheet of water of some size—Lake Bakhtigan. A tract thus intervenes between the mountain regions and the desert, which, though it cannot be called fertile, is fairly productive, and can support a large settled population. This forms the chief portion of the region which the ancients called Media.”

Media, as a general rule, was a sterile region, and, except in the early spring, was stern and uninviting in appearance. The climate in the mountain region is severe; in the plains it is more temperate, but the thermometer rarely reaches ninety degrees in the shade. The climate, on the whole, is regarded as healthy. By the help of irrigation the great plateau will produce “good crops of grain, rice, wheat, barley, Indian corn, *doura*, millet, and sesame. It will also bear cotton, tobacco, saffron, rhubarb, madder, poppies which give a good opium, senna, and assafetida. Its garden vegetables are excellent, and include potatoes, cabbages, lentils, kidney-beans, peas, turnips, carrots, spinnach, beet-root and cucumbers.”

The minerals of Media were numerous and valuable. Many varieties of excellent stone are still found throughout the country, the principal of which is the beautiful Tabriz marble. Iron, copper, and native steel are still mined. Gold and silver were found in the mountains in ancient times. Sulphur, alum, and gypsum are found in various parts of the country, and salt abounds.

The wild animals of Media were the lion, the tiger, the leopard, the bear, the beaver, the jackal, the wolf, the wild ass, the ibex, or wild goat, the wild sheep, the stag, the antelope, the wild boar, the fox, the hare, the rabbit, the ferret, the rat, the jerboa, the porcupine, the mole, and the marmot. The domestic animals were the camel, the horse, the mule, the ass, the cow, the goat, the sheep, the dog, the cat, and the buffalo.

The Medes were of Arian descent, and



ANCIENT SWORDS.

belonged to the same race as their neighbors, the Persians, from whom they differed but little. They were generally men of noble and graceful bearing, handsome in features, and strong and active. They wore full beards and moustaches; their hair was long and was curled in a mass of ringlets. The women are said by Xenophon to have been remarkable for their stature and beauty. Bravery and a capacity for endurance were striking characteristics of the Medes. After their absorption in the Per-

sian monarchy, the Medes were always reckoned as next to the Persian troops for steadiness and courage. They were cruel in war; "the Median conquests were accompanied by the worst atrocities which lust and hate combined are wont to commit when they obtain their full swing." The habits of the Medes were at first simple and manly; but their successes in war opened a way to luxury into which they plunged. The capture of Assyria was fatal to the hardy warriors; they adopted the luxurious habits of the conquered country; and their degeneracy followed quickly. Their dress was rich and highly ornamented, and showed at once their love of display. The Medes were originally a nation of horsemen. They were expert in the use of the bow, and fought as mounted archers. They doubtless used the sword and spear also, but it was as horse-archers that their greatest successes were won.

Polygamy was practised by the monarch and the wealthier classes. Letters received but little attention, and the arts were neglected.

The religion of the Medes underwent several changes. In its most ancient form it was a belief in a single great intelligence, Ahurô-Mazdâo, the creator, preserver, and governor of the universe. "It sets before the soul a single being as the source of all good, and the proper object of the highest worship. Ahurô-Mazdâo is 'the creator of life, the earthly and the spiritual;' he has made 'the celestial bodies,' 'earth, water, and trees,' 'all good creatures,' and 'all good, true things.' He is 'good, holy, pure, true,' 'the Holy God,' 'the Holiest, 'the essence of truth,' 'the father of all truth,' 'the best being of all,' 'the master of purity.' He is supremely 'happy,' possessing every blessing, 'health, wealth, virtue, wisdom, immortality.' From him comes all good to man; on the pious and the righteous he bestows not only earthly advantages, but precious spiritual gifts, truth, devotion, 'the good mind,' and everlasting happiness; and as he rewards the good so he punishes the bad, though this is an aspect in which he is but seldom represented." Thus it will be seen that Ahurô-Mazdâo, or Ahura-mazda, or Ormazd, approached more nearly to the Hebrew ideal of the True God, than any of the heathen deities. The Median religion was in no sense idolatrous. Its god was invisible, dwelling in the unseen realms

of the future, and no idol or image of him polluted his temples. Under this great being were a number of angels, some of which can scarcely be distinguished from the attributes of the divinity. These executed the purposes of Ormazd, and formed the channels of communication between him and men. In the older Median system but little importance is given to the evil spirits or intelligences, which in the Zoroastrian system were the constant antagonists of the good ones. In this form the Median religion was identical with that of the Persians.

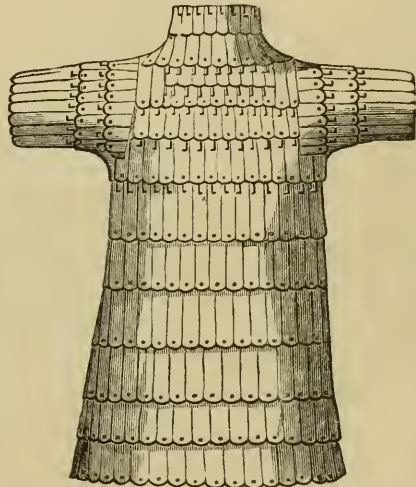
At a later period a change took place, and there was added to the old faith a belief "in two uncreated and independent principles, one a principle of good and the other a principle of evil," which constitutes dualism proper. These principles were constantly at war with each other. "It was natural," says Rawlinson, "that, as time went on, dualism should develop itself out of the primitive Zoroastrianism. Language exercises a tyranny over thought, and abstractions in the ancient world were ever becoming persons. The Iranian mind, moreover, had been struck, when it first turned to contemplate the world, with a certain antagonism; and, having once entered this track, it would be compelled to go on, and seek to discover the origin of the antagonism, the cause (or causes) to which it was to be ascribed. Evil seemed most easily accounted for by the supposition of an evil person; and the continuance of an equal struggle, without advantage to either side, which was what the Iranians thought they beheld in the world that lay around them, appeared to them to imply the equality of that evil person with the being whom they rightly regarded as the author of all good. Thus dualism had its birth. The Iranians came to believe in the existence of two co-eternal and co-equal persons, one good and the other evil, between whom there had been from all eternity a perpetual and never-ceasing conflict, and between whom the same conflict would continue to rage through all coming time." The good principle was represented by Ahura-mazda, or Ormazd; the evil by Angrô-mainyus. Whatever good work Ahura-mazda sought to do, Angrô-mainyus endeavored to blast. The latter introduced war, sickness, famine, poverty, and evil and suffering of all kinds into regions which the good being sought to render happy. The world was regarded as the battle-ground between the two pow-

ers. Each of the contending persons was believed to have his council, which was in each case composed of six members. The council of Ahura-mazda comprised the "Immortal Saints." The two principles of good and evil had also their respective armies. Ahura-mazda created thousands of blessed angels to do his will and fight against the evil one; and Angrô-mainyus, on his part, called into existence thousands of evil spirits to aid him in his attacks upon the blessed.

The Medians believed in the immortality of the soul, and held that after death the souls of good and bad proceeded along a designated path to "the bridge of the gatherer," a narrow road leading to heaven, or the abode of the blessed. The wicked fell from this bridge to the gulf below, where they were consigned to punishment; they were doomed to dwell forever in the kingdom of Angrô-mainyus, and feed upon poisoned banquets. The just were assisted over the bridge by the angel Serosh, who conducted them to the abode of the blessed and the presence of Ahura-mazda.

Later on, when the Iranian nations began to extend themselves beyond their own countries, which lay east and south of the Caspian Sea, they came in contact with various Scythic tribes inhabiting the mountain regions of Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kurdistan, and Luristan. The religion of these people is believed to have been Magism, which "was, essentially, the worship of the elements, the recognition of fire, air, earth, and water as the only proper objects of human reverence. The Magi held no personal gods, and therefore naturally rejected temples, shrines, and images, as tending to encourage the notion that gods existed of a like nature with man, *i. e.*, possessing personality—living and intelligent beings—Theirs was a nature worship, but a nature worship of a very peculiar kind. They did not place gods over the different parts of nature, like the Greeks; they did not even personify the powers of nature, like the Hindoos; they paid their devotions to the actual, material things themselves. Fire, as the most subtle and ethereal principle, and again as the most powerful agent, attracted their highest regards; and on their fire-altars the sacred flame, generally said to have been kindled from heaven, was kept burning uninterruptedly from year to year and from age to age by bands of priests, whose special duty it was to see

that the sacred spark was never extinguished. To defile the altar by blowing the flame with one's breath was a capital offence; and to burn a corpse was regarded as an act equally odious. When victims were offered to fire, nothing but a small portion of the fat was consumed in the flame. Next to fire, water was revered. Sacrifice was offered to rivers, lakes, and fountains, the victim being brought near to them, and then slain. While great care was taken that no drop of their blood should touch the water and pollute it. No refuse was allowed to be cast into a river, nor was it even lawful to wash one's hands in one. Reverence for earth was shown by sacrifice, and by abstention from the usual mode of burying the dead."

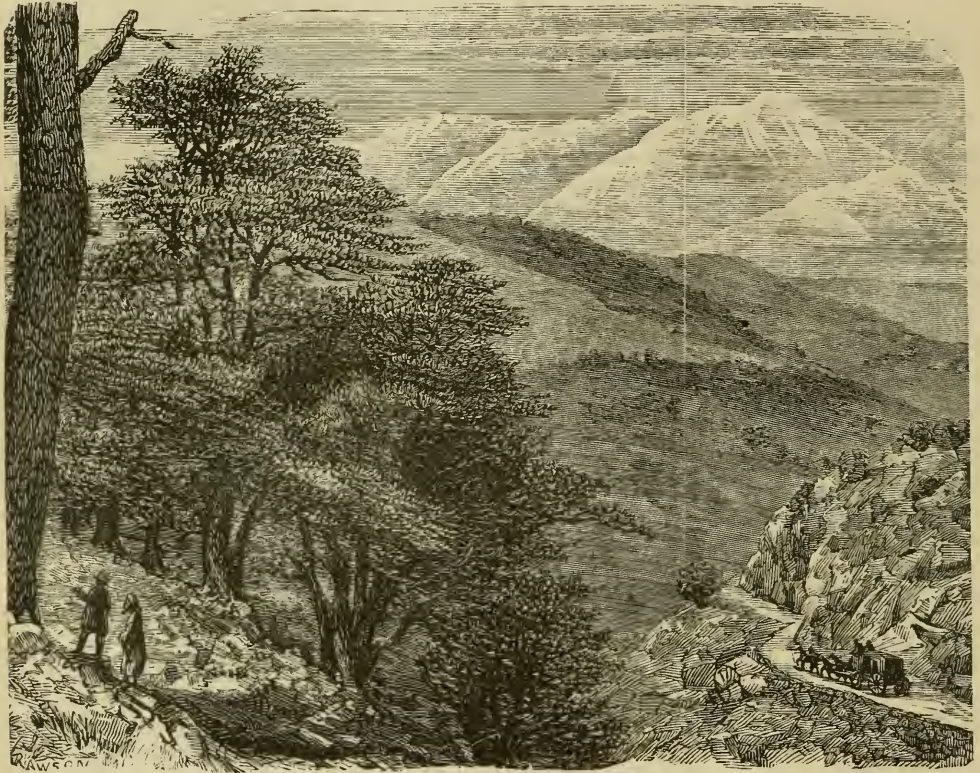


LEATHER CUIRASS.

The Magian religion was strictly sacerdotal. The worshipper was required in all things to accept the services of a Magus, or priest, who stood between him and the divinity as a mediator. The Magi held their offices by succession, were richly clad, haughty in bearing, mysterious in manner, and claimed supernatural and prophetic powers. They explained omens, interpreted dreams, and predicted future events. These pretensions, supported by their mystical incantations, not only imposed upon the credulous multitude, but won for them the reverence and willing homage of kings and chiefs. It seems certain that the first union between the Zoroastrian system, which we have described, and Magism took place in Media. From the time of this

union the priestly caste of the Magi was recognized as one of the six Median tribes. "It is not necessary," says Rawlinson, from whose account of the Median religion this summary is drawn, "to suppose that the Medes ever apostatized altogether from the worship of Ormazd, or formally surrendered their dualistic faith. But, practically, the Magian doctrines and the Magian usages—elementary worship, divination with the sacred rods, dream-expounding, incantations at the fire altars, sacrifices whereat a Magus officiated—seem to have prevailed;

mote antiquity; the ever-burning flame, believed to have been kindled from on high; the worship in the open air under the blue canopy of heaven; the long troops of Magians in their white robes, with their strange caps, and their mystic wands; the frequent prayers; the abundant sacrifices; the long incantations; the supposed prophetic powers of the priest-caste—all this together constituted an imposing whole at once to the eye and to the mind, and was calculated to give additional grandeur to the civil system that should be allied with



SCENE IN THE MOUNTAINS OF MEDIA.

the new predominated over the old; backed by the power of an organized hierarchy, Magism overlaid the primitive Arian creed, and, as time went on, tended more and more to become the real religion of the nation. . . . Upon the whole, Magism, though less elevated and less pure than the old Zoroastrian creed, must be pronounced to have possessed a certain loftiness and picturesqueness which suited it to become the religion of a great and splendid monarchy. The mysterious fire altars on the mountain tops, with their prestige of a re-

it. Pure Zoroastrianism was too spiritual to coalesce readily with oriental luxury and magnificence, or to lend strength to a government based on the ordinary principles of Asiatic despotism. Magism furnished a hierarchy to support the throne and add splendor and dignity to the court, while they overawed the subject-class by their supposed possession of supernatural powers, and of the right of mediating between heaven and man. It supplied a picturesque worship which at once gratified the senses and excited the fancy. It gave scope to

man's passion for the marvellous by its incantations, its divining rods, its omen-reading, and its dream-expounding. It gratified the religious scrupulosity which finds a pleasure in making to itself difficulties by the disallowance of a thousand natural acts, and the imposition of numberless rules for external purity. At the same time it gave no offence to the anti-idolatrous spirit in which the Arians had hitherto gloried, but rather encouraged the iconoclasm which they always upheld and practised. It thus blended easily with the

been an important tribe in very ancient times, from the fact that they are mentioned, under the name of Madai, in the Book of Genesis, and the statement of Berosus that they furnished an early dynasty to Babylon. About B. C. 830 the Assyrians invaded Media Magna, the proper country of the Medes, and with this invasion our definite knowledge of them begins. They were then divided into a number of tribes governed by petty chieftains. Though they offered but a feeble resistance to Shalmaneser II. on this occasion, no part of their



CYAXERES CALLS THE MEDES TO FREE THEIR COUNTRY FROM THE SCYTHIANS.

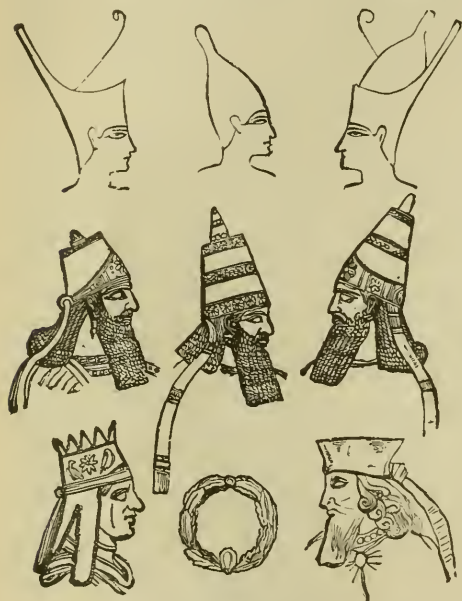
previous creed of the people, awaking no prejudices, clashing with no interests; winning its way by an apparent meekness and unassumingness, while it was quite prepared, when the fitting time came, to be as fierce and exclusive as if it had never worn the mask of humility and moderation." This last phase of the Median faith was the one that distinguished it at the time when the nation appeared in history as a compact and well-organized monarchy.

We know but little of the primitive history of the Medes. They appear to have

country was really subdued until its invasion by Sargon, about B. C. 710, who conquered a portion of it and planted it with cities, in which he settled his Israelite captives. The successors of Sargon made other conquests in Media. As late as B. C. 671, Esarhadon invaded and conquered its distant parts, and found it still divided among small chieftains.

About B. C. 660, however, a sudden change occurred in the organization and government of Media. The population of the country was largely increased by an

extensive Aryan emigration from the region east of the Zagros mountains, led by Phraortes, the father of Cyaxeres. This leader, having settled with his followers in Media, and appreciating the evils of the rule of a number of petty chiefs, set himself to work to organize a strong central kingdom, capable of resisting the Assyrians. He succeeded so well that, about B. C. 634, he conceived the design of attacking Assyria, now ruled by the aged Asshur-bani-pal. The Median army was promptly met by the Assyrians upon its entrance into their country. A great battle was fought, probably somewhere in Adiabéné. The Median



ANCIENT CROWNS.

army was utterly destroyed, and Phraortes himself was among the slain.

Cyaxeres succeeded his father as King of Media, and devoted the first years of his reign to a total reorganization of the military system of the country. He raised and equipped a large and powerful army, consisting of his Persian subjects as well as of Medes, and in B. C. 632 renewed the war by invading Assyria a second time. He defeated the Assyrian army in the field, and laid siege to Nineveh, which he pressed so hard that it must have fallen that year, had not he been summoned home in hot haste to resist the invasion of the Scythians, who had poured into his country from the north. He met the barbarians in a great battle almost immediately after returning to his

country, and was defeated by them and obliged to make peace. He retained his crown by acknowledging the supremacy of the Scythians and agreeing to pay them an annual tribute. Media does not appear to have suffered as much from the ravages of the Scythians as the other countries, but the presence and dominion of the barbarians were galling to the Medians, who were naturally a brave and high-spirited race.

As the time passed on, and the force of the invasion became weakened by the spreading out of the Scythians over the vast territory of western Asia, the Medians began to take heart. At length Cyaxeres, feeling that the time had come to strike for the independence of his country, resolved to destroy the Scythian leaders by treachery, which he regarded as justifiable under the circumstances. Inviting a number of Scythian chiefs to a banquet, he plied them with wine; and when they were rendered helpless by intoxication, caused them to be put to death. This was the signal for a general uprising of the Median nation. The people turned upon their oppressors with relentless fury, and a war of several years ensued, which resulted in the expulsion of the Scythians from Media and the adjacent countries, and their flight across the Caucasus to their own land.

Having freed his country, Cyaxeres devoted himself to the task of restoring to it the power and prosperity of which it had been stripped by the Scythians. He succeeded so well that in a few years he found himself in a condition to renew his designs upon his old enemy, Assyria, which was now fatally weakened by its losses at the hands of the barbarians. As a prelude to a new war, Cyaxeres endeavored to excite the Susianians and Chaldæans to throw off their allegiance to Assyria, and join him. He was successful, and it was agreed that the Susianians should invade Assyria from the south, while the Median army attacked it from the east. Saracus, the Assyrian monarch, being informed of this plan of campaign, sent Nabopolassar to Babylon to meet the danger in that quarter while he prepared to encounter the Medes in person. As has been related, Nabopolassar, seeing the advantages certain to accrue to himself from a betrayal of his sovereign, sent an embassy to Cyaxeres, offering to become the ally of the Mede, if the latter would guarantee to him the independent crown of Babylon, and bestow his daughter,

Amuhia, or Amyitis, upon Nebuchadnezzar, the son of Nabopolassar, as a wife. Cyaxeres readily accepted the offer; the young people were married; Nabopolassar joined his forces to those of the Medes; and siege was laid to Nineveh, which was finally taken and destroyed. The conquerors divided the fallen empire between them. The share of Nabopolassar has been described. Cyaxeres received Assyria proper and the dependent countries north and northwest of it. Thus Media became, like Babylon, a considerable empire. The two powers which thus arose upon the ruins of the Assyrian empire were friendly, their rulers being allied by ties of affinity as well as by treaties. Each was satisfied with its acquisitions, and seems to have been ready, at important periods, to assist the other.

After the conquest of Nineveh, Media, unlike Babylon, which enjoyed some years of peace, became involved in wars with the states of western Asia which had been tributary to Assyria, and which endeavored to make the downfall of that empire the occasion of recovering their independence. Cyaxeres conquered all of this part of Asia from the Caspian Sea to the river Halys. Armenia and Cappadocia, countries never really subject to Assyria, were included in these conquests. These wars involved Cyaxeres in a struggle with Lydia, which endeavored to turn back his conquests. In this war he was assisted by the Babylonians, commanded sometimes by the prince royal Nebuchadnezzar, and sometimes by Nabopolassar in person. At the close of five years, when the two armies were about to engage in battle, they were both terrified by an eclipse of the sun. Nabopolassar took advantage of this to mediate between Cyaxeres and Alyattes, the Lydian king. The result was the arrangement of a peace

between the two monarchs, the river Halys becoming the boundary between their dominions. The two kings swore an oath of friendship which was cemented by the marriage of Astyages, the son of Cyaxeres and Aryënis, the daughter of Alyattes. A peace of fifty years in western Asia was the fruit of these negotiations. The three kingdoms of Media, Lydia, and Babylonia remained fast friends during this period, pursuing their separate courses without quarrel or collision. The remainder of the century was passed by Cyaxeres in peacefully governing his extensive dominions.

Cyaxeres was succeeded by his son Astyages, B. C. 593. Astyages reigned thirty-five years. This period, though peaceful, and in one sense prosperous, was in reality an era of decline, owing to the luxurious habits which the Medians had adopted since the downfall of the Assyrian empire. The court of Ecbatana was one of the most elaborate and splendid in the East, and Astyages was fonder of the pleasures of his harem than of the dangers of the field. His chief pastime was hunting in a paradise or park near the capital. The courtiers, clad in "soft raiment," forgot their old warlike habits and became weak and effeminate. The priestly caste of the Magi also acquired great influence at the Median court.

This was the state of affairs when the Persian revolt—the events of which will be related in the history of that country—broke out. Though at first successful, the Medians, weakened by a long course of luxury, proved no match in the end for the hardy mountaineers, and the war resulted in the complete overthrow of the Median monarchy, B. C. 558. Media became the first and most important of the Persian provinces, and long maintained that position.



BOOK IX.

THE HISTORY OF THE PERSIAN EMPIRE.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE DEATH OF CYRUS THE GREAT.

Description of Persia—Geographical Position—The Mountain Region—Climate—Products—Minerals—Character of the Persian People—Their Loyalty to their Sovereigns—Religion of the Persians—The Persian Monarchy Founded—Persia Tributary to Media—Residence of Cyrus at the Median Court—His Escape—Raises the Standard of Revolt—Overthrows the Median Kingdom—Establishes the Persian Empire—His Conquests—Captures Babylon—Median Civilization Adopted—Death of Cyrus the Great.

PERSIA proper corresponded very nearly to the modern Persian province of Iran. It lay upon the gulf which bears its name, extending from the mouth of the Tab (Oroatis) to the point where the gulf joins the Indian Ocean. It was bounded on the north by Media Magna, on the east by Mycia, on the south by the sea, and on the west by Susiania. Its length was about 450 miles, and its width averaged about 250 miles, giving it an area of over 100,000 square miles.

Persia was divided into two distinct regions, which modern geographers term the "warm district" and the "cold region." The "warm district" occupied about one-eighth of the country, and was a tract of sandy plain, often impregnated with salt, extending between the mountains and the sea the whole length of the kingdom. The soil is poor and badly watered. The rest of the country was embraced in the "cold region." It was a mountainous region, "consisting of alternate mountain, plain, and narrow valley, curiously intermixed, and as yet very incompletely mapped." It has on the whole an aspect of sternness and sterility, but nevertheless abounds in spots of rare beauty and fertility. The water supply is scanty; scarcely any of the streams reach the sea. A number of lakes, some of them salt, are found in Persia, and receive the waters of most of the streams.

"The most remarkable feature of the country consists in the extraordinary gorges which pierce the great mountain chain, and render possible the establishment of routes across that tremendous barrier. Scarped rocks rise almost perpendicularly on either side of the mountain streams, which descend rapidly, with frequent cascades and falls. Along the slight irregularities of these rocks the roads are carried in zigzags, often crossing the streams from side to side by bridges of a single arch, which are thrown over profound chasms where the waters chafe and roar many hundred feet below. The roads have for the most part been artificially cut in the sides of the precipices, which rise from the streams sometimes to the height of 2,000 feet. In order to cross from the Persian Gulf to the high plateau of Iran, no fewer than three or four of these *kotuls*, or strange gorge passes, have to be traversed successively. Thus the country towards the edge of the plateau is peculiarly safe from attack, being defended on the north and east by vast deserts, and on the south by a mountain barrier of unusual strength and difficulty."

The climate of Persia proper was twofold: in the low country it was hot and enervating; in the mountain region it was cold in winter, but pleasant during the rest of the year. The vegetable products were neither numerous nor remarkable. The low country yielded dates in moderate quantities, and in a few places corn, the vine, and different kinds of fruit trees were cultivated. The mountain region furnished an abundance of rich pasture; grapes of an admirable quality grew there, and nearly all the fruits except the olive were abundant. The peach is believed to be a native of Persia, as is also the citron. Of the grains, wheat, barley, millet and rice were the principal products. In modern times Indian corn, introduced from America, has been successfully grown here. Pulse, beans, sesame, madder, henna, and cotton were cultivated by the ancients.

The wild animals of the country were the lion, the bear, the wild ass, the stag, the antelope, the ibex or wild goat, the wild boar, the hyæna, the jackal, the wolf, the fox, the hare, the porcupine, the otter, the jerboa, the ichneumon, and the marmot. The domestic animals were identical with those of Media, and need not be described here.

The minerals of Persia proper were numerous and valuable. They consisted of gold, silver, copper, iron, red lead, orpiment, salt, bitumen, naphtha, sulphur, and, as is supposed by some, common lead. Sulphur and salt abounded. Excellent building stone was also found.

The Persians were an Iranian race, sprung from the same stock as their neighbors, the Medes; the two nations being in reality one people. The Persians were quick and lively, very intelligent, and more far-sighted than most Oriental nations. They were brave, hardy, possessed of many manly virtues, and, in the earlier days, were noted for their regard for truth. Æschylus calls them a "valiant-minded people." They possessed a boldness, a dash, and a stubbornness which made them irresistible in battle. No nation could stand before them until they met the Greeks, and then they yielded only to the superior armor and discipline of the Hellenic troops. Herodotus says that the instructors of the Persian youth were required to teach them three main things, namely: "To ride, to draw the bow, and to speak the truth." In all ages, in fine, the Persians have been noted as an active, vigorous race, raised by these qualities far above the indolent people of the neighboring countries. They were an essentially military people, and among their most striking traits was devotion to their sovereign, which led them to submit absolutely to his will, and to endure any hardship or privation for his sake. This excessive loyalty on the part of the people paved the way for the grossest tyranny on the part of the kings, and in the end sapped the self-respect of the people and corrupted the entire nation. The Persian armies were composed of infantry and cavalry; chariots were regarded with disfavor and were not often used. The bow and the spear were the chief weapons. The bow was of unusual size, and was wielded with terrible effect by the Persian troops. The infantry bore shields, but the cavalry were without them. Unlike the Medes, the Persians readily

gave quarter when asked, and treated their prisoners of war with kindness. They were fond of luxury and display, and the Persian court during the flourishing period of the empire was one of the most magnificent known to history.

The religion of the Persians in the earlier periods of their history was identical with the Median belief in Dualism, consisting mainly in the worship of Ahuramazda, or Ormazd; the acknowledgment of the principle of evil—Angro-mainyus—and obedience to the teachings of Zoroaster. When the Medians adopted Magism, the Persians held sternly to their purer and simpler faith; but when the empire became great and powerful, Magism gradually overshadowed the earlier faith until it became the religion of the court and the nation. Perhaps it would be more correct to speak of the Persian religion at that period as a strange combination of Magism and Zoroastrianism. This union was so apparent to the later Greeks that they termed the Persian religion "the Magism of Zoroaster." As the two systems have been described in our account of Media, it is unnecessary to repeat the description here.

At the period of the establishment of the empire by Cyrus, Zoroastrianism was the national creed. That monarch found a strong bond of union between the captive Jews in Babylonia and his own people. He found them worshippers of one God, whom he evidently identified with Ormazd, his own deity; "and accepting as a divine command the prophecy of Isaiah (xlv. 28), undertook to rebuild their Temple for a people who, like his own, allowed no image of God to defile the sanctuary. Darius, similarly, encouraged the completion of the work after it had been interrupted by the troubles which followed the death of Cambysses. The foundation was thus laid for that friendly intimacy between the two peoples, of which we have abundant evidence in the books of Ezra, Nehemiah, and Esther; a friendly intimacy which caused the Jews to continue faithful to Persia to the last, and to brave the conqueror of Issus rather than desert masters who had shown them kindness and sympathy."

The region we have described as Persia proper was conquered about the middle of the seventh century before the Christian era by a brave, hardy, warlike people from the upland region east of the Caspian Sea. These were the founders of the Persian nation.

The nation was from the first divided into ten tribes. Four of these were nomadic, three cultivated the soil, and three bore arms for the common defence. The warrior tribes constituted the nobility of the country. The most illustrious of these tribes were the Pasargadae, who held almost all

dom of Media acquired an ascendancy over Persia, whose kings, until the accession of Cyrus the Great, held their crowns as feudatories of Media. Cambysses, the father of Cyrus, was king of Persia, but was the vassal of Astyages of Media, to whom he paid an annual tribute. He was also



CAMEL EQUIPPED FOR A JOURNEY.

the high offices, both civil and military. The reigning family of the Achæmenidæ belonged to this tribe. They derived their name from Achæmenes, the first chief who set up an Aryan monarchy in this region, and who is regarded as the founder of the Persian kingdom.

At an early period the neighboring king-

obliged to send his son and heir, Cyrus, to reside at the Median court as a hostage for his loyalty. The prince royal was held there in a sort of honorable captivity; he was treated with the respect befitting his rank, and with kindness, but was not allowed to leave the court without the permission of his sovereign.

During his residence at the Median court, Cyrus observed that the vigor of the Medes was being destroyed by their luxurious habits, and that they were physically as well as mentally inferior to his own vigorous countrymen. Influenced by this knowledge, he conceived the bold plan of throwing off the Median yoke and establishing his country's independence. It may be that his indignation at the encroachments of Magism upon the pure religion of his fathers furnished another incentive to this step. He resolved to put his plan into execution during the reign of the effeminate Astyages; and he therefore asked leave of the Median monarch to return home for a short time, pleading that his father was in weak health and needed his care; but Astyages, fearing to lose his hold upon Persia, returned to Cyrus the flattering answer that he loved him too well to lose sight of him even for a day. Cyrus appeared to be contented with the answer, and awaited a more favorable opportunity. After a considerable interval, he renewed his request, making it this time through a favorite of the king. The effort was successful, and Cyrus received leave of absence for five months. He at once left Ecbatana, the Median capital, by night, with a few chosen attendants, and took the road to Persia.

The next evening Astyages, while enjoying himself in his harem, was aroused to a sense of the imprudence of his act by the words of a song sung by one of his dancing girls. He at once summoned an officer into his presence, bade him take a body of horsemen, pursue the Persian prince, and bring him back either dead or alive. The Mede at once set out on his mission, overtook Cyrus, and informed him of the king's orders. Cyrus professed to be willing to obey, but proposed that, as it was late, they should encamp for the night, and start on their return the next day. The Medes consented to this, and were entertained at a feast by Cyrus, who succeeded in making all of them drunk. He then mounted his horse, and, with his attendants, rode with speed until they reached a Persian outpost, where, in accordance with a plan which he had concerted with his father, he found a strong force of Persian cavalry awaiting him. When the Medes recovered from their drunkenness, they set out in pursuit of Cyrus, and coming up with him at the head of his cavalry attacked him. They were defeated with great loss, and Cyrus

made his way rapidly to his father's court.

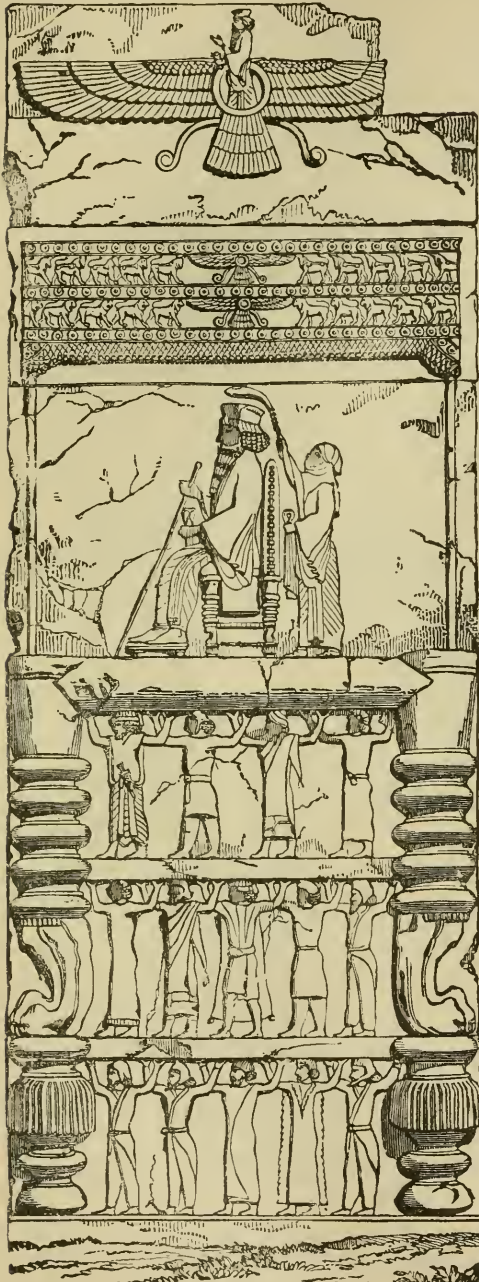
Persia now raised the standard of revolt, and Astyages collected a large army to reduce his rebellious vassal to submission. A bloody war ensued. In the first battle the Persians were defeated, and Cambyses, their king, was slain. Cyrus was now made King of Persia. Astyages won a second great victory near Pasargadae, the Persian capital; but in the third battle Cyrus inflicted a stinging defeat upon him. In a fifth battle, fought in the neighborhood of Pasargadae, the Medians were utterly routed. The Persian troops, elated by their victory, hailed Cyrus with deafening cheers as "King of Media and Persia." Cyrus followed up his victory by a vigorous pursuit of the Medes, in which he broke up their army, and took Astyages prisoner. This success made him master of Media, which quietly submitted to his rule, B. C. 558. Thus were laid the foundations of the Medo-Persian empire. The conquest of Media was followed by that of Lydia, which was incorporated into the Persian empire, B. C. 554. Harpagus, the lieutenant of Cyrus, reduced the Greek cities of Asia Minor to submission, B. C. 553.

Cyrus now entered upon an extensive career of conquest in the far east. In the thirteen years intervening between B. C. 553 and B. C. 540, he subdued Hyrcania, Parthia, Bactria, Sacia, Chorasmia, Sogdiana, Aria, Drangiana, Arachosia, Sattagydia, and Gandaria, the vast region lying between the Jaxartes, and the Caspian and Erythraean Seas, with the Indus for its eastern boundary.

Having accomplished this great undertaking, Cyrus next turned his arms against Babylon, captured that city, as has already been related, and added the Babylonian empire to his dominions. Egypt was now the only remaining great power that had not felt the weight of the vengeance of the Persian king. He intended to conquer that country, but never put this design into execution. The reason of this is unknown.

Upon the conquest of Babylon, Cyrus made it the second capital of his empire, Ecbatana being the principal capital. Pasargadae, the old Persian metropolis, was made a sacred city, and reserved for coronations and burials. The civilization of the Medes and their arts, architecture, dress, manners, and, to a certain extent, their luxurious habits, were adopted by the Persians. Cy-

rus did little towards consolidating his empire or establishing a definite system of



THE THRONE OF CYRUS.

government for it. That task was left to his successors.

The religion of the empire was the purer form of Zoroastrianism professed by the Per-

sians, but all creeds were tolerated. Cyrus, a Monotheist, was naturally drawn to the Jewish captives in Babylon, whose religion so closely resembled his own. He took them into especial favor, and restored them to their own country, where they were treated with equal kindness by his successors.

The close of his reign is involved in uncertainty. The traditional account received from Herodotus is, that his last campaign was against the Massagetae, who dwelt on the north of his empire, to the east of the Sea of Aral. He so thoroughly subdued these barbarian hordes and struck such terror into them that they did not venture to attack the Persian empire during its subsequent existence. He was slain in a battle with these people. His body was conveyed to Persia and buried at Pasargadae.

CHAPTER II.

FROM THE DEATH OF CYRUS THE GREAT TO THE FALL OF THE EMPIRE.

Accession of Cambyses—His Character—Conquers Egypt—Cruel Treatment of that Country—His Failures—The False Smerdis—Death of Cambyses—Darius I. Becomes King of Persia—He Reorganizes the Empire—His System—Conquers a Part of India—His Scythian Expedition—Beginning of the War with Greece—Failure of the Expedition of Mardonius—Defeat of the Persians at Marathon—Xerxes I. King of Persia—His Expedition into Greece—Battles of Thermopylae and Salamis—Failure of the Expedition—Return of Xerxes to Persia—Gives himself up to Luxury—Defeat of Mardonius at Plataea—Artaxerxes I. King of Persia—Revolt of Egypt—The Peace of Callias—Xerxes II.—His Murder—Darius II. King—His Weak Reign—Rapid Decline of Persia—Artaxerxes II.—Revolt of Cyrus—Battle of Cunaxa—Retreat of the Ten Thousand—Wars with the Greek States—Rapid Disintegration of the Empire—Plans of Artaxerxes for the Conquest of Greece—Internal Troubles of the Empire—Ochus—His Vigorous Reign—Is Assassinated—Darius III.—The Macedonian War—Alexander the Great Enters Asia—Battle of the Granicus—Loss of Asia Minor—Battle of Issus—Capture of the Royal Family—Alexander Conquers the Mediterranean Provinces of Persia—Battle of Arbela—Flight and Death of Darius—Fall of the Persian Empire.

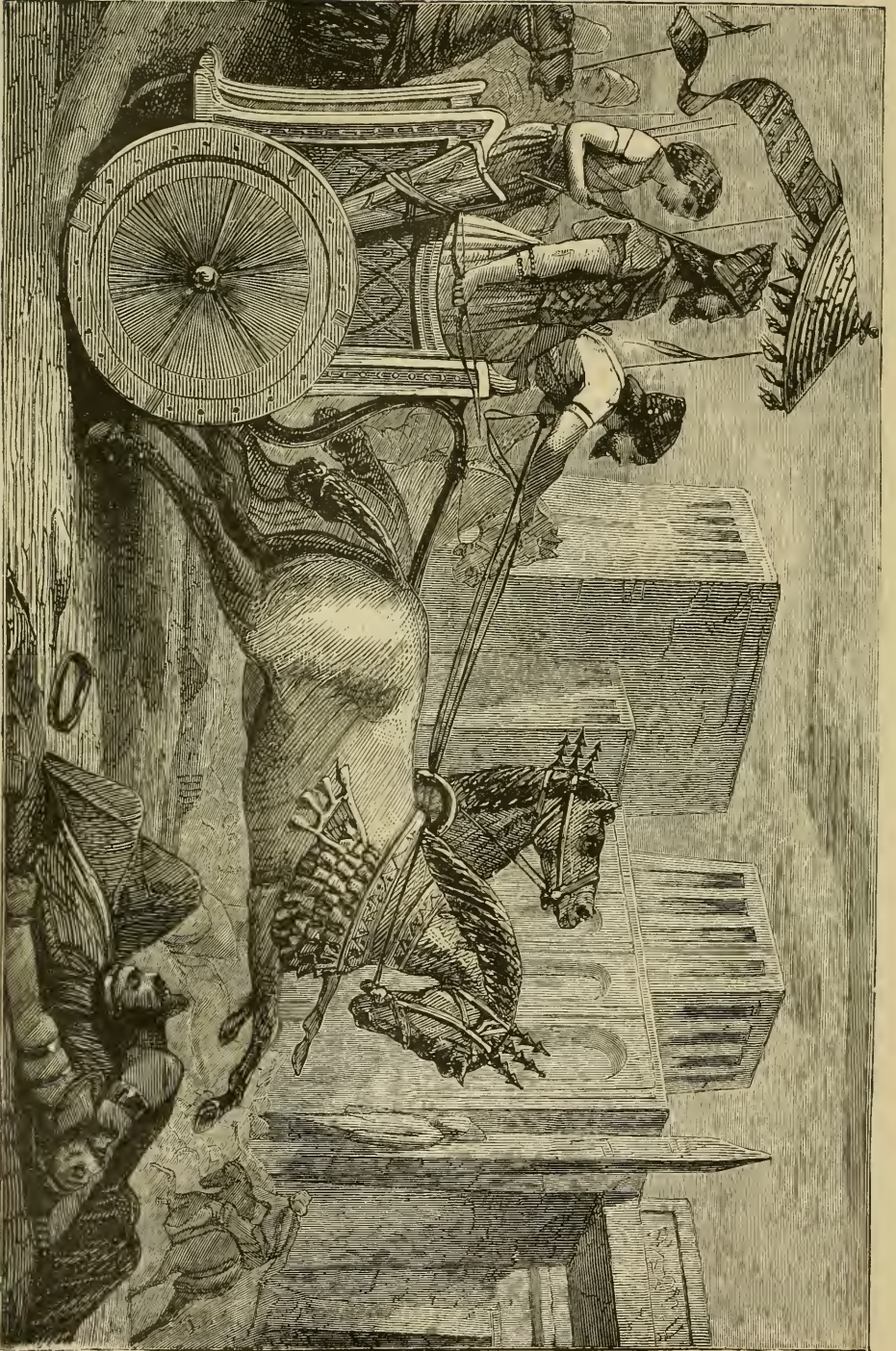
CYRUS was succeeded, B. C. 529, by his eldest son Cambyses. He left also another son named Bardius, or, as he was called by the Greeks, Smerdis, to whom he bequeathed the government of some large and important provinces. This arrangement aroused the jealousy of Cambyses, who, at an early period of his reign, caused Smerdis to be put to death secretly.

Cambysses inherited his father's ambition and love of war, but not his genius. He ranks in history as one of the greatest *destroyers* of the ancient or modern world. He compelled the submission of Phœnicia and Cyprus, the great naval powers of western Asia, which had not been tributary to Cyrus. In B. C. 525, he invaded Egypt with an enormous army, defeated Psammenitus in a pitched battle, took Memphis, and conquered Egypt, and received the submission of the Libyan tribes bordering upon Egypt and of the Greek towns of the Cyrenaica. Greatly elated by his success, Cambysses formed vast schemes of conquest which he had not the ability to carry out. He planned the reduction of Carthage, intending to attack it by sea and land, but the Phœnicians, who formed the bulk of his naval strength, refused to take part in the subjugation of the Carthaginians, who were their own countrymen; so the project miscarried. The king then despatched a force of 50,000 men to capture and plunder the famous temple of Amon, situated in an oasis in the Libyan desert, twenty days journey from Thebes. The expedition never reached the temple, but perished to a man amid the sands of the desert. With a stronger force he attempted the invasion of Ethiopia. While still toiling across the Nubian desert his supplies gave out, and his army found itself without water. Cambysses insanely endeavored to continue his march, but after suffering frightful privations—his troops were even reduced to the horrible necessity of eating each other—he was obliged to return to Memphis with the shattered wreck of his army. His own forces were now thoroughly disheartened, and convinced of the lack of ability in their leader, and Egypt was on the brink of rebellion. Symptoms of revolt manifesting themselves under the encouragement of the priests, Cambysses applied himself mercilessly to the intimidation of the country. His cruelties were very great and he punished all opposition to him with death. The Egyptians could have forgiven him these acts, had he not aroused their bitter and undying hatred by making war upon their gods, with the avowed purpose of bringing them into contempt. He stabbed the sacred calf believed to be the incarnation of the god Apis, and scourged the priests in charge of it; suspended the festival of Apis on pain of death; opened the tombs, and examined the mummies; entered the chief

sanctuary at Memphis; publicly insulted the image of Phtha; and caused the destruction of all the images of the gods. From one end of Egypt to the other he was viewed with feelings of horror and hatred, and the impression he left upon the country lasted for centuries. The Egyptians were thoroughly cowed, however, and Cambysses, finding the country sufficiently intimidated, set out on his return to his capital, from which he had already been absent too long. Upon reaching Syria, he was met by the news of the usurpation of his throne by the false Smerdis, and despairing of overcoming the conspiracy he committed suicide, B. C. 522, after a reign of eight years.

The prolonged absence of Cambysses from his own dominions had resulted in a revolution of the Magians at the Medo-Persian capital. Gomates, a Magian, supported by his order, in what would seem an effort to make Magianism the religion of the state, seized the throne, passing himself off as Smerdis, the son of Cyrus, whose death, by order of Cambysses, was known to him, but not to the people. His claims were submitted to, and in order to conciliate his subjects he released them from taxation, and the conquered nations from military service, for a period of three years. At the same time he carefully secluded himself from the public, admitting no one to his presence but his wives (the widows of Cambysses, whom he married), whom he prevented from communicating with each other or with their friends, and his fellow-conspirators. His religious reforms by which he proceeded to supplant Zoroastrianism with Magianism aroused the suspicions of the people, which were increased by his studied seclusion. The truth at length became known, and an insurrection, headed by Darius, the son of Hystaspes, and probably heir presumptive to the crown, hurled the impostor from the throne after a reign of eight months, and re-established the Persian religion in its original purity.

Darius I. ascended the throne B. C. 521. He reigned nearly thirty-six years, and was the greatest monarch of the Persian empire. He found his dominions in a general state of revolt. No less than eleven Satrapies—the principal provinces of his realm—took arms against him, and it seemed that the empire of Cyrus was doomed to destruction. For six years Darius was engaged in the conquest of



CAMBYSSES ENTERING MEMPHIS.

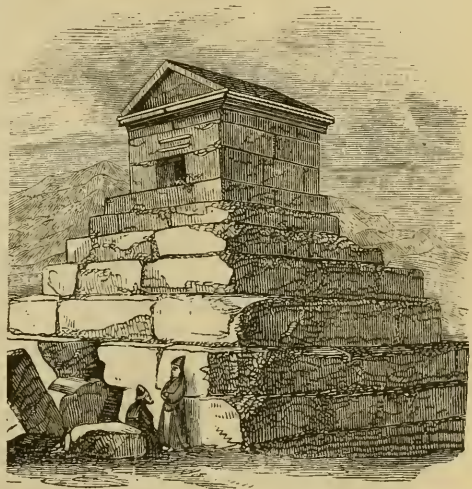
these revolted provinces. His great military and executive genius carried him safely through his trials. Order was restored throughout his dominions, the rebel leaders were executed, and his authority was generally acknowledged.

These troubles revealed to Darius the necessity of a fixed and definite organization of the empire. He began this task by removing all the tributary kings of the conquered countries. The empire was divided into twenty provinces called Satrapies. Over each province a Persian satrap, or civil governor, was placed, who was directly responsible to the king. A standing army was established and divided among the Satrapies, as a means of restraining rebellion and resisting foreign aggression. The military commanders also acted as a check upon the satraps. A fixed rate of tribute was established for each province. Royal roads from the capital to the various provinces were constructed, and a system of posts put into operation by which the court could rapidly and regularly communicate with the provinces. A body of royal secretaries, called the "king's eyes and ears," was distributed among the provinces. Their duties were to watch the satraps and keep the king informed of the events transpiring in each government. Royal inspectors, and frequently the king himself, made sudden and unexpected official visits to the satraps, and thus kept them faithful to their duties. In course of time these inspections were practically discontinued, and an important check upon corruption was thus removed. The offices of satrap and military commander were finally consolidated, and the power of the satraps was thus materially increased, a circumstance which encouraged them to revolt. Darius also reorganized the army, confining the standing force to the dominant Medo-Persian race, but drawing men from the whole empire in time of war. Great prominence was given to the cavalry. The navy was drawn entirely from the conquered nations, chiefly from Phœnicia, Egypt, Cyprus, Cilicia, and Asiatic Greece.

Having established his empire, Darius undertook an expedition into India, and conquered the Punjaub and Scinde, at some period between B. C. 515 and B. C. 509. He thus acquired an important gold region, and increased the revenue of the empire by one-third. An active commerce also sprang up between Persia and India.

The next expedition of Darius was

against the Scythians, dwellers in the vast plains between the Don and the Danube, the region now called the Ukraine. He did not expect to conquer this country, but his object was to strike terror to the Scythians and prevent them from attempting the invasion of his dominions. He crossed the Bosphorus by a bridge of boats, about B. C. 508, and marched through Thrace, while his fleet proceeded through the Euxine to the Danube, and bridged that river. The maritime Thracians submitted without resistance, but the Getæ endeavored to oppose his march, and were conquered. Darius crossed the Danube, ravaged the Scythian country, and returned to Asia in triumph by the way he had come. As a result of the expedition, Thrace became tributary, including those parts bordering on the



TOMB OF CYRUS.

Ægean, and even Macedonia submitted. The Persian empire thus extended from the Indian Desert to the borders of Thessaly, and from the Caucasus to Ethiopia, B. C. 506.

The closing years of the sixth century before the Christian era were marked by a revolt of the Asiatic Greeks, who were angered by the support given by Darius to their tyrants. Under the leadership of Aristagoras of Miletus, they drove out or killed their tyrants, and took arms against Persia. They were joined by Athens and Eretria, in European Greece. Deeming boldness the best policy, they attacked and captured Sardis, the capital of the Satrapy. The city was destroyed by an accidental conflagration, and the invaders were overtaken and defeated by the Persian forces in

a battle near Ephesus, B. C. 500. Athens and Eretria immediately abandoned the alliance. Numerous states, however, came to the assistance of the Greeks, and a general revolt against Persia spread along the entire Asiatic coast from the Sea of Marmora to the Gulf of Issus. The Ionian, Æolian, and Hellespontine Greeks, the Carians and Caumians, and the Cyprians all united in the effort against Persia. Darius, appreciating the importance of checking this outbreak promptly, put forth the most strenuous exertions to crush it. A number of battles were fought with varying success, but at length the superior power of Persia began to prevail. The Ionian fleet was decisively defeated in the battle of Ladé, and Miletus was carried by storm, B. C. 494. The rebellious states were made to feel the full weight of the vengeance of Darius, and the Persian authority was re-established firmly in all the countries that had borne a part in the rebellion.

Having quieted his own dominions, Darius now began to take measures to punish the Greek states which had dared to assist his rebellious subjects. He had long meditated the conquest of Greece, and the interference of Athens and Eretria in the Ionian revolt gave him an excellent ground of quarrel with them. In the spring of B. C. 492 an expedition was fitted out and despatched against Greece under Mardonius. Mardonius proceeded along the coast, and when off Mount Athos lost the greater part of his fleet by a storm, and his land army was defeated and almost destroyed by a night attack of the Brygians, a Thracian tribe. Although these disasters made it impossible to attempt the invasion of Greece, the expedition was not without results. Thasos was captured, and Macedonia was made subject to Persia.

A second expedition was collected, and two years later, B. C. 490, was sent against Greece under the command of Datis, one of the ablest Persian generals. Crossing through the Cyclades, Datis proceeded first to Eretria, which fell into his hands through treachery. He burned its temples and bound its inhabitants in chains for transportation to Asia. Having taken Eretria, the Persians crossed the Euripus and landed at Marathon with the intention of advancing upon Athens. They were met at Marathon by the Athenian army, under Miltiades, and decisively defeated. Retiring to

their ships, they sailed around the Athenian foreland in the hope of surprising Athens; but Miltiades, by a forced march from Marathon, reached Athens in time to make it evident to the Persian commander that an attempt upon the city would be useless. Datis, therefore, sailed for the Asiatic coast, taking with him his Eretrian prisoners. The victory of the Greeks at Marathon was the first great check the Persians had yet received, and it proved the incontestible superiority of the disciplined bravery of the European Greeks over the vast masses of the Orientals. Undismayed by his reverse, Darius prepared to invade Greece with a still greater force, which he intended to lead in person; but troubles in Egypt delayed him, and his death, in B. C. 486, put an end to his schemes, and gave the Greeks an opportunity of completing their preparations for resistance.

Darius was succeeded by his son Xerxes I., the Ahasuerus of the Bible. He began his reign by stamping out with great severity the revolt of the Egyptians, and made his brother Achæmenes viceroy of Egypt. The Babylonians about this time attempted a revolt, which was put down by the Persians, and Xerxes punished them by confiscating the vast treasures of their temples, B. C. 485.

Xerxes now took up his father's project of the invasion of Greece. He aroused the enthusiasm of his satraps and military commanders by detailing to them in a general council, which he summoned at Susa, the advantages of the conquest of Greece, and preparations for the expedition were immediately begun. For four years the entire Persian empire was busily engaged in preparing for the approaching contest. The largest fleet that had ever been assembled in the Mediterranean was collected from the maritime dependencies of Persia, and an immense army assembled from every part of the Persian dominions. The navy is said to have consisted of over 1,200 triremes and 3,000 vessels of an inferior description. Depots of supplies were formed at various points along the route the monarch intended to pursue. He had wisely concluded from the experience of Datis that an expedition strong enough to conquer Greece could not be conveyed by sea, but must cross the Hellespont and march by the north coast of the Ægean. For this purpose the Egyptians and Phœnicians were charged with the construction of a

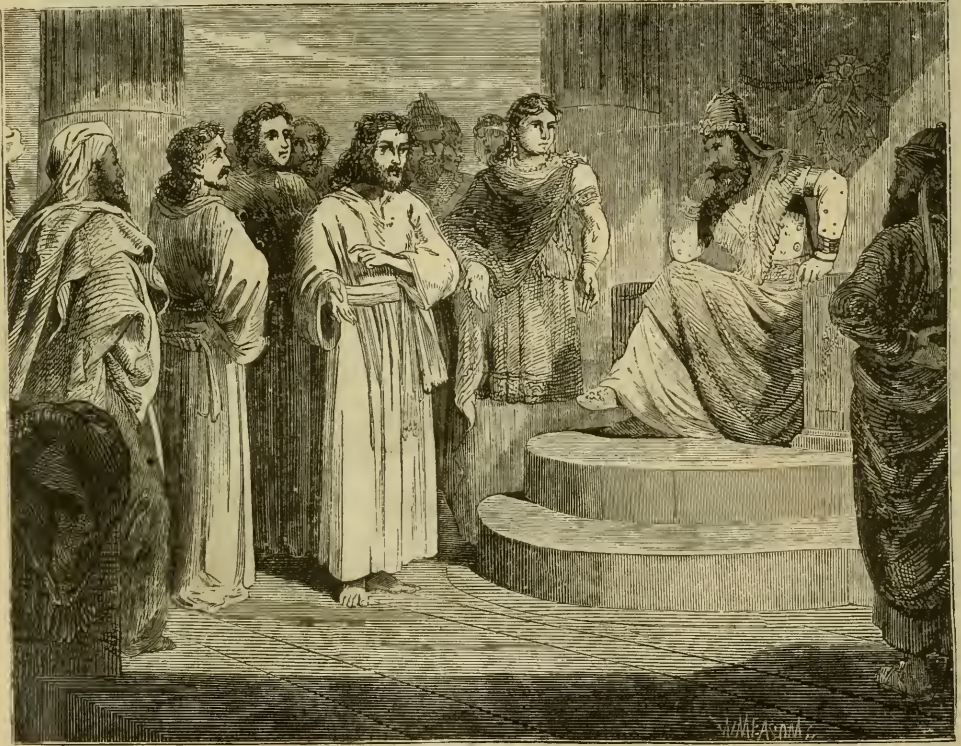


XERXES I. MAKES THE JEWESS ESTHER HIS QUEEN.

bridge of boats across the Hellespont. It was built successfully, but was broken to pieces by a violent storm. Xerxes at once caused the engineers who had constructed the bridge to be beheaded, and the sea to be scourged. A pair of fetters was thrown into the waves as a hint that they had found a master in the Persian king. A double bridge was now constructed with greater care, and made so solid and secure that it constituted a high road "along which men, horses, and vehicles might pass with as much comfort and facility as they

king. The same authority places the strength of the army at 1,800,000 men, of which 80,000 were cavalry and 20,000 charioteers or riders of camels. Making all due allowance for exaggerations, it can hardly be doubted that the force with which Xerxes invaded Europe exceeded a million and a half of fighting men.

From Sardis the army marched to Abydos, where the troops and the fleet were reviewed by the king, who beheld his vast navy for the first time. The next morning the passage of the Hellespont was begun,



CYRUS LISTENING TO THE EXPLANATION OF THE JEWISH FAITH.

could move on shore." In order to enable the fleet to avoid the dangers of doubling Mount Athos, the king employed a body of men for three years, under Persian overseers, in cutting a canal in the rear of the mountain from the Strymonic to the Singitic Gulf.

All things being in readiness, Xerxes repaired to Sardis in the winter of B. C. 481, to superintend the final arrangements in person. In the spring of B. C. 480 the Persian army assembled in Lydia. Forty-nine nations are said by Herodotus to have marched under the banner of the great

and was continued for seven days, the troops using one bridge and the baggage-train and attendants the other, the movements of all being hastened by a liberal use of the lash. The march was continued through Europe into Thessaly, across that country, and through Achæa and Phthiotis into the Malian plain. A halt was made near the small town of Trachis, before the Pass of Thermopylæ, the entrance to central Greece. On the way large reinforcements from the Macedonians, Thracians, and other European nations, had materially increased the strength of the army of

Xerxes, which now numbered at least two millions of fighting men. Estimating the personnel of the fleet at 500,000 men, and allowing for camp followers and attendants, at least three millions of men must have followed Xerxes into Greece.

The Greeks had collected a small detachment, under the Spartan King Leonidas, at Thermopylae, to hold the pass until they could arrive in force for its defence. This little band resisted the efforts of the Persians to force a passage, but were betrayed by a traitor who revealed to Xerxes a mountain path by which the pass might be turned. The little band of Leonidas was overwhelmed, and the Persians poured into central Greece. They advanced upon Athens, which had been deserted by its inhabitants, and reduced it to ashes. At the same time the Persian fleet sailed around the promontory of Sunium, and came to anchor in the bay of Phalerum. The Greeks were sorely disheartened, and were on the point of breaking up their fleet, when Xerxes, having caused a throne to be erected on the slopes of Mount Ægaleos, from which he could view the contest, gave orders to his naval commanders to attack them. The battle took place in the Saronic Gulf, off Salamis, and lasted all day. It resulted in the total defeat of the Persian fleet, notwithstanding its immense superiority of force.

The defeat of his fleet utterly destroyed the plans of Xerxes. Seeing that his ships could not hope to cope successfully with the Greeks, and knowing that he must be superior to them at sea as well as on land in order to accomplish the conquest of their country, he resolved to abandon the expedition and to return to Persia. He made no effort to retrieve his ill fortune, but began a forced retreat by the way he had come. The fleet was ordered to proceed direct to the Hellespont to guard the bridges. Upon reaching Thessaly, Mardonius was left behind with 260,000 picked men to prevent pursuit and to renew the effort to conquer Greece the next year, while the king pressed on with the rest of the army towards the Hellespont. His stores were exhausted, and vast numbers of the troops died from famine and fatigue on the way. Reaching the Hellespont he found his bridges shattered by a storm, and his army was obliged to cross the strait in ships. At Abydos food was obtained. The march was resumed to Sardis, but many

died on the way from the effects of over-eating after their long privation, and it was only a wreck of his magnificent host that



THE COURT OF XERXES I.

the king led into the Lydian capital, just eight months after he had set out from it in the flush of his power and hopes.

The operations of Mardonius in Greece

will be related in the Grecian history of this period. They resulted in the defeat of his army at Platea, and the destruction of his fleet at Mycale, disasters which utterly annihilated the Persian power in Europe. The Greeks followed up their successes by freeing the islands of the Ægean from the Persians, and ravaging the coasts of Asia. For twelve years no Persian sail dared show itself in the Mediterranean.

Xerxes, utterly disheartened by his failure to subdue Greece, gave himself up to luxury and pleasure, and during the rest of his reign attempted no more military enterprises. It is quite probable that his immense losses had too seriously crippled his empire to allow any important attempt at conquest for a while, and that the country needed rest. The natural temperament of Xerxes, however, inclined him to yield to his disgrace, without caring to wipe it out. He gave himself up to the pleasures of his harem, and, submitting himself to the government of women and eunuchs, ceased to take any interest in matters of State. The remainder of his reign was a period of licentiousness and corruption. Its end was fitting. The king was murdered, B. C. 465, by Artabanus, the captain of his guard, and Aspamitres, his chamberlain.

Artabanus placed on the throne the youngest son of Xerxes, Artaxerxes I., called Longimanus, or the "Long-handed." He had removed the eldest son, Darius, by putting him to death. Artabanus was soon after executed by order of the king, who discovered that the satrap was the real murderer of Xerxes.

In B. C. 460 Libya and Egypt revolted from Persia, and called in the assistance of Athens, which had instigated the revolt, and which responded by sending a fleet of 200 ships to the aid of the Egyptians. A Persian army, under the Satrap Megabazus, succeeded in putting down the revolt. The Libyan King Inarus was taken prisoner, and was crucified by order of Artaxerxes. The Greek fleet was defeated and destroyed. The Egyptian King Amyrtæus fled to the marshy districts of the Delta, where he maintained himself for nearly six years. Athens, smarting under the loss of her fleet, renewed her exertions with such vigor in B. C. 449, that Persia found herself in danger of losing both Egypt and Cyprus, and Artaxerxes consented to a most hu-

miliating treaty, known as the "Peace of Calias." Persia recognized the independence of the Asiatic Greeks, and bound herself not to molest the coast of western Asia Minor with her fleet or army. Athens, on her part, engaged to respect the Persian supremacy in Cyprus and Egypt. Thus all the Greek cities, from the mouth of the Hellespont to Phaselis in Lycia, were ceded to the Athenian Confederacy. Those on the shores of the Euxine remained in the hands of Persia.

Two years later (B. C. 447) Megabazus, the Satrap of Syria, incensed at the execution of Inarus, in violation of the pledge of safety he had made to the Libyan king, threw off his allegiance. He was allowed to return to obedience on his own terms—a most dangerous precedent. Artaxerxes died in B. C. 425, and was succeeded by his only legitimate son, Xerxes II., who reigned forty-five days, when he was murdered by his illegitimate brother, Secydanus, or Sogdianus, who seized the throne, only to be slain six months later by Ochus, another illegitimate son of Artaxerxes, who ascended the throne as Darius II., B. C. 424.

Darius II., or Ochus, was married to his aunt Parysatis, a daughter of Xerxes I., and the nineteen years of his reign were passed under her control. Her natural wickedness and cruelty had free scope during this period. The empire had been sorely shaken by numerous successful revolts. Darius undertook to defeat them by the most infamous means. He lured the satraps into his power by promises he never meant to keep, and put them to death. Treachery and corruption were introduced into every branch of the public service, and a series of weak concessions to the remaining satraps fatally damaged the power of the empire in other respects. A formidable revolt of the Medes in B. C. 408 was quelled, but an outbreak in Egypt in B. C. 405 was more successful. The Egyptian King Nepherites drove the Persians out of Egypt, and re-established the independence of his country.

The only compensation for all these losses of power and prestige was the re-establishment of the Persian authority over the Greeks of Asia Minor. Taking advantage of the Peloponnesian war, which required all the efforts of Athens and Sparta for its prosecution, Darius succeeded in bringing the Greek cities of Asia Minor once more

under his authority. He also interfered in the quarrels of the European Greeks, and began the policy of playing off one Greek state against another for the purpose of weakening both. His power lay in his gold, of which he made a lavish use, and which was found to possess attractions which the Greeks were quite unable to resist. Henceforth, until the liberties of Greece were lost, Persia played an influential part in Grecian affairs.

About this time, Cyrus, the younger son of the Persian king, was made satrap of

the state of a king in his province, and won the regard of his courtiers by his amiable qualities, while he commanded their respect by his undoubted ability. Darius was alarmed by the evidences of his son's ambition, and recalled him to Persia. He reached the capital just in time to witness the death of his father and the accession of his elder brother.

Darius was succeeded by his eldest son, Artaxerxes II. (called Mnemon by the Greeks, because of his remarkable memory), B. C. 405. The first act of the new king



CYRUS THE YOUNGER APPOINTED SATRAP OF ASIA MINOR.

Phrygia, Lydia and Cappadocia. He devoted himself enthusiastically to the Spartan alliance, and declared to Lysander, the Spartan admiral, that he would sell his very throne to raise money to carry on the war against Athens. Cyrus was at this time meditating an attempt to raise himself to the throne of Persia, and his zeal in behalf of the Spartans was caused by his wish to secure their aid in his undertaking. He was the favorite of his mother, Parysatis, who vainly sought to induce Darius to name him as his successor. He assumed

was to imprison Cyrus and condemn him to death. Parysatis succeeded, however, in procuring not only his release, but his restoration to his satrapy, and he went back to his province determined to lose no time in putting his ambitious plans into execution. He raised an army, the flower of which was a force of Greek mercenaries, and upon the pretext of engaging in an expedition against the bandits of Pisidia, marched from Sardis in the spring of B. C. 401.

Artaxerxes, informed of his movements,

prepared to meet Cyrus, and advanced for that purpose at the head of a strong army. Cyrus moved rapidly through Phrygia, Cilicia and Syria, and crossed the Euphrates at Thapsacus. His Greek mercenaries had now learned the true object of the expedition, but it was too late to withdraw from it. Reaching the plain of Cunaxa, about fifty-seven miles from Babylon, Cyrus found his progress barred by the royal army under the command of the king in person. It was four times as strong as his own force, but the Greeks inflicted a sharp defeat on the royal forces opposed to them. In the moment of victory, Cyrus rashly dashed into the Persian centre, where the king commanded, and had assailed and wounded his brother, when he was cut down by one of the royal guard. Artaxerxes at once caused his head and right hand to be cut off. His death put an end to the battle.

The position of the Greek troops, whom Cyrus had entrapped into the expedition, was now dangerous and difficult in the extreme. They were deserted by their Persian allies, who made their peace with the great king. Tissaphernes, who had been given the dominions of Cyrus by Artaxerxes, detained them for a month on pretence of treating with them. Having enticed them as far as the upper waters of the Tigris, he entrapped their officers and put them to death. At this juncture an Athenian named Xenophon, who had accompanied the army of Cyrus, though not in a military capacity, assembled the Greek leaders at midnight, and showing them the necessity of instant action, urged them to choose new leaders and attempt to regain their own country, a thousand miles distant. Five generals were chosen, of whom Xenophon was one, and the retreat began the next morning at daybreak.

It was the winter season, and the Greeks were without guides and ignorant of the country. Their route was across the bleak table lands of Armenia, where many succumbed to the cold. The Persian army, under Tissaphernes, hung constantly upon their rear, but so admirable were the valor and discipline of the Greeks, that their enemy was not able at any time to stop their march, or to gain a decisive success over them in any of the numerous conflicts which marked the Retreat of the Ten Thousand. The efforts of the heroic band were successful. Pressing on, they beheld

at last, from a mountain to the south of Trapezus, the wide expanse of the Euxine in the distance. Instantly there burst from those in the advance the glad cry, "The sea! the sea!" which was caught up by the rest of the column, which pressed forward eagerly to behold the joyful sight, the assurance of speedy deliverance from the perils of their march.

The participation of the Ten Thousand in the revolt of Cyrus gave mortal offence to Persia, although the Spartans were not actually responsible for it. Still it had the effect of breaking off the alliance between the two states, and it was no secret that Persia would take vengeance upon Sparta for the insult that had been offered her. The Spartans therefore resolved to strike the first blow. They enlisted the survivors of the Ten Thousand in their army, and carried on a war against the satraps of Lydia and Phrygia for the space of six years, from B. C. 399 to 394, with such success that Persia seemed on the point of losing all her possessions in Asia Minor. Had Sparta been able to continue the war for a few years longer, this would most probably have been its result. So far had the Persian empire advanced in its progress of disintegration that the satraps of Lydia and Phrygia thought more of defeating each other than of beating the Greeks, and one at least went so far as to bribe the Spartans to spare his territory and attack that of his rival. To add to the troubles of Persia, the Mysians and Pisidians had become independent of her rule, and to these were soon added the Paphlagonians, whose monarchs boldly asserted their independence; and the Bithynians gave signs of rebellion.

Persia met these troubles with more wisdom than her rulers had exhibited since the time of Darius I. By a liberal use of her gold she brought about an alliance between Argos, Corinth, Athens, and Thebes, with herself, against Sparta, and this combination proved so formidable that the Spartan forces were recalled from Asia Minor to defend their own territory. In the battle of Cnidus the Persian fleet bore a part, and by its result Sparta was compelled to yield the command of the sea to the allies. In B. C. 387, in order to save herself, Sparta succeeded in bringing about the disgraceful peace of Antalcidas, by which Persia regained her supremacy over the Greek territories of Asia Minor, and

established a controlling influence in the affairs of European Greece.

Artaxerxes II. was anxious to attempt the conquest of European Greece, and to realize the ambitious dreams of Darius I. and Xerxes I., but he was prevented by the revolt of Cyprus, which was aided by Egypt, which country had been practically free since the commencement of the century. The Cyprian revolt was put down with great difficulty after a long and doubtful struggle, but the leader of the revolt, Evagoras, the tyrant of Salamis, was allowed to retain his sovereignty upon the payment of an increased tribute, B. C. 379. About B. C. 384 a serious revolt broke out among the Cadusians, on the shores of the Caspian Sea. The king attempted to quell it in person, but was only saved from total defeat by the skill of one of his generals, Tiribazus, who also procured the submission to the revolted province. In B. C. 375 the Persian forces occupied Samos. Artaxerxes intended this step as a prelude to a general reduction of the Greek islands, but he was obliged to delay his project by renewed trouble with the Egyptians, against whom he sent a large army commanded by Iphicrates, an Athenian, and Pharnabazus, a Persian general. The expedition failed in consequence of the quarrels of its commanders. The knowledge of its failure encouraged the already disaffected satraps of the western provinces, but this danger was removed by bribes and the treacherous murder of those who could not be bought. In B. C. 361 Egypt, encouraged by Sparta, attempted the conquest of Phœnicia and Syria, but without success. Artaxerxes died soon afterwards, in B. C. 359.

During the reign of this king the Persian court had become a scene of incessant cruelty. The infamous Parysatis, the mother of the king, was the ruling spirit, and her cruel and bloody deeds have scarcely a parallel in Oriental history. The result was that the members of the royal family were divided by irreconcilable hatreds which gave rise to murders, executions, and suicides which were so numerous as to thin out the reigning race very rapidly.

Ochus, the youngest son of Artaxerxes, seized the throne after having caused the execution of his eldest and the suicide of his second brother, and assumed the name of Artaxerxes III. He possessed more vigor of character than any Persian monarch had

displayed since Darius I. In order to strengthen himself on the throne he destroyed all the branches of the royal family except those which seemed to him too remote to give trouble. He formed grand designs, and might have succeeded in restoring to Persia her former greatness and strength had he lived long enough. His plans were delayed by the revolt of Artabazus, in Asia Minor, which had been encouraged by Athens and Thebes. Ochus sent a force against him, defeated him, and compelled him to fly for his life. He took refuge at the court of Philip, King of Macedon, by whom he was protected. This led to complications between Macedon and Persia which opened the way for the conquests of Alexander the Great.

Ochus had conceived the design of conquering Egypt, which had now been independent for more than half a century. In B. C. 351 he invaded that country, but was utterly defeated and obliged to relinquish his attempt. He returned to Persia to collect a new army, and immediately all the western provinces rose in revolt. Phœnicia asserted her independence under the leadership of Sidon; nine native kingdoms were set up in Cyprus, and in Asia Minor a dozen petty chiefs endeavored to establish as many independent monarchies. Ochus was not disheartened by these dangers. He consigned to his satraps the task of quelling the minor revolts, while at the head of a large army, commanded by Greek generals and containing a band of 10,000 Greek mercenaries, he marched in B. C. 346 to punish Phœnicia and conquer Egypt. Sidon was besieged, and taken partly by force and partly by treachery—4,000 of its Greek defenders, under Mentor, deserting to the Persians, with whom they took service. The rest of Phœnicia then submitted, and Ochus invaded Egypt, conquered it, and placed it once more under a Persian satrap. Notwithstanding the fact that these successes were due chiefly to the skill of the Greek generals and the courage of the Greek mercenaries employed by Ochus, it seemed that he was about to raise Persia once more to a position of real strength and glory. His savage cruelties, however, had made him implacable enemies in his own court, and in B. C. 338 he was assassinated by his prime minister, the eunuch Bagoas.

Bagoas destroyed all the children of Ochus but Arses, a mere boy, and him he placed on the throne, retaining the govern-

ment in his own hands. In B. C. 336 he became alarmed by some threats which Arses had uttered, and put him to death. He did not dare to assume the crown himself, as such a step would have been resented by the whole empire, but conferred it upon Codomannus, who is said to have been a grandson of Darius II., and who ascended the throne as Darius III. The first act of the new king was to cause the execution of Bagoas, B. C. 334.

Darius III. was personally the best sovereign that ever sat on the Persian throne, but he did not possess the ability requisite to the task of preserving his empire against the dangers which burst upon it with the commencement of his reign. Before he mounted the throne the Macedonian war had begun. Since the battle of Marathon this final struggle between Greece and Persia had been inevitable; but Persian gold had been able until now to postpone it. Darius did not properly estimate the danger which threatened him, and seems to have despised the young and inexperienced King of Macedon. Had he been sufficiently impressed with the gravity of the crisis, it is likely that Alexander's genius would have conquered him in the end; but, as it was, his carelessness greatly simplified the task of the conqueror. He gathered a large force in Mysia to oppose the Macedonians, and sent a powerful fleet to the Hellespont, which should have prevented the passage of that strait by the Greeks. This plain duty was not performed, however. Alexander was suffered to cross unopposed in the spring of B. C. 334, and to plant his army of 35,000 men on the shore of Asia. Memnon, a Rhodian general in the Persian service, advised Darius to decline battle in Asia, to cross the Ægean with his whole force and invade Macedonia, and thus compel the withdrawal of Alexander. The plan was rejected, however, and the Persians decided to dispute the advance of the Greeks in Asia Minor. A battle was fought on the Granicus, in which the Persians were defeated and thrown on the defensive, and Asia Minor passed into the hands of the conqueror. Darius now assembled two new armies, and in the spring of B. C. 333

made another attempt to stay the progress of Alexander. He attacked the Greeks at Issus, and met with a crushing defeat. His army was routed, and he himself was obliged to fly for his life. His wife, mother, and children were made prisoners, and were treated with the greatest kindness by the conqueror.

Having driven Darius out of Asia Minor, Alexander in the next two years conquered and annexed to his empire Phœnicia, Egypt, and Syria, and then marched to the Euphrates to complete his conquest of the Persian dominions. Darius had collected the entire force of his empire, and now prepared to stake everything upon the issue of a single conflict. The two armies encountered each other near Arbela, in the great Assyrian plain east of the Tigris. The Persians were defeated and put to flight, and Darius fled to the city of Arbela, about twenty miles distant from the battle-field. Here he was seized by his generals, who formed the plan of delivering him to Alexander and thereby advancing their own fortunes. They loaded him with chains, and compelled him to accompany them in their retreat beyond Arbela. They were pursued so hotly by the Macedonians that their escape was prevented. Thus hemmed in, they basely turned upon the king, wounded him mortally, and left him by the roadside to die. A Macedonian soldier discovered the dying king, and in response to his appeal, brought him a cup of water. Darius thanked his generous enemy, and told him that his inability to reward him for his kindness added bitterness to his dying hour. He commended him to the notice of Alexander, who he said was magnanimous enough to grant his dying request, and expired. Alexander arrived shortly after his death, and, deeply moved, covered the body of Darius with his own mantle, and ordered it to be buried at Pasargadæ with royal honors. He also provided for the fitting education of the children of Darius.

The battle of Arbela sealed the fate of the Persian empire. The provinces were speedily reduced by Alexander and added to his own dominions.

BOOK X.

THE HISTORY OF CARTHAGE.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE FOUNDATION OF CARTHAGE TO
THE WARS WITH ROME.

Carthage Founded by Dido—Situation of the City—Early History Uncertain—Gradual Growth of Carthage—Extent of its Territory—Its Authority Extended Over the African Tribes—Defects in the Carthaginian System—Carthaginian Colonies—The Military and Naval Forces of the Republic—The Revenue—Commerce—Character of the Republic—The System of Government—Religion—Efforts to Conquer Sicily—Wars in Africa—Renewed Attempt to Conquer Sicily—Wars with Syracuse—The Syracusans Invade the Carthaginian Home Territory—Appearance of Rome in Carthaginian Affairs.

THE story of the flight of Dido and the aristocratic party from Tyre has been told in our account of the history of Phœnicia. The course of the fugitives was directed to the African coast, upon which several Phœnician colonies had already been founded, such as Utica, Hadrumetum, etc. The site chosen for the new colony was the head of a peninsula projecting eastward into the Gulf of Tunis, on the tenth meridian of longitude, and connected with the mainland by an isthmus or neck about three miles in breadth. The spot offered two excellent landlocked harbors, and the narrow neck could be easily defended against attack from the mainland. The good-will of the natives, who understood the benefits of commerce, was easily won, and the colonists agreed to pay a fixed annual rent for the land on which their city was to be erected. Thus Carthage was founded, B. C. 869.

The growth of the colony was at first slow, but by degrees it became a place of importance. For two centuries its history is vague and uncertain. The ninth, eighth, and seventh centuries before the Christian era were passed in this gradual growth, and in extending its power over the mainland. When the definite history of Carthage commences in the sixth century before Christ, the city emerges from the gloom that enshrouds it until then, a strong, handsome and flourishing metropolis, exercising an

acknowledged supremacy over the northern coast of Africa from the Pillars of Hercules to the territory of Cyrêné, and from the sea to Lake Triton on the south.

It is difficult, if not impossible, to trace the successive steps by which this growth and power were accomplished. It seems that from the very period of its foundation, Carthage aimed at establishing an empire on land as well as over the sea. Its first efforts were to win over the nomadic tribes on the neighboring mainland to agricultural pursuits; and this accomplished, Carthaginian colonies were scattered thickly among them, and intermarriages between the colonists and the natives were encouraged. Thus a mixed race sprang up along the coast to the south and southwest, which yielded a ready and hearty submission to Carthage, and adopted the language and habits of the people of that city. Beyond the line of these settlements were a number of native African tribes, some of which were induced to adopt agricultural pursuits. The majority, however, clung to their old nomadic life. These tribes occupied a position similar to that of the Arabs in modern Algeria—they were held in a subjection so loose as to be merely nominal, but still were regarded as, in a certain sense, Carthaginian subjects, and it is believed that they contributed to the resources of the state. The territory of Carthage proper was regarded as extending as far to the south as Lake Triton, and to the west as far as the river Tusca, which separated Zeugitana from Numidia. It was almost identical with the modern province of Tunis.

These limits did not satisfy the Carthaginians, however, and as soon as they were able, they proceeded to establish their supremacy over the regions to the eastward and westward of it, and, as has been stated, succeeded in making their authority recognized between the Tusca and the Pillars of Hercules, and between Lake Triton and Cyrêné.

At the time of the founding of Carthage, several Phœnician colonies were in existence along the coast of the region which after-

wards became Carthaginian territory. The most difficult task of the new city was to establish her supremacy over these. In strict truth these cities never entirely surrendered their independence, and as concerns them Carthage must be regarded as occupying much the position originally held by Tyre with respect to the Phœnician cities—that of the chief of a confederacy. She was stronger from the first than either Utica, Hadrumetum, Leptis Magna, or the other Phœnician colonies, and when her power was fairly established none of them were able to resist it, or to exercise any check upon her policy. Still, the fact that she did not possess absolute sovereignty over so many places, all within her limits, was an element of weakness, which, in the end, weighed terribly against her.

This lack of complete unity at home did not prevent Carthage from seeking to extend her authority and influence beyond her own limits. She succeeded in establishing her influence over the western part of Sicily at a very early day. Sardinia next claimed her attention, and was conquered after several bloody wars, near the close of the sixth century B. C. About the same time, or perhaps earlier, the Balearic islands, Majorca, Minorca, and Ivica were occupied by Carthaginian colonies. Somewhat later colonies were established in Corsica and Spain, and the islands of Madeira, and the Canaries, Malta, Gaulos (Gozo), and Cercina were conquered. "By the close of the sixth century B. C., Carthaginian power extended from the greater Syrtis to the Fortunate Islands, and from Corsica to the flanks of Atlas." Between each of the colonies thus established and the parent state an enterprising tradè sprang up, and was carefully fostered by the home government, which was thus enriched from every quarter.

The conquests of Carthage were effected in a great degree by the employment of mercenary troops. A large, disciplined force of native troops was maintained as the nucleus of the Carthaginian army, but foreign troops in great numbers were hired from the Numidians and Mauritanians and other independent African nations, and from the Iberians of Spain, the Celts of Gaul, and the Ligurians of northern Italy. The exact time at which the employment of mercenaries became the policy of the state is not known; but it seems to have been well established as early as B. C. 480.

Carthage also maintained a powerful

navy. This was a necessity, as the republic was compelled from the first to protect its commerce from the pirates who swarmed in the Mediterranean. The rowers of the fleet were mainly slaves, bought or bred for the purpose by the state; but the officers were native Carthaginians. Both the army and navy were carefully fostered, as upon them the power of the republic depended. Their support required, on the part of the state, a large, steady, and assured revenue. This revenue was derived partly from the state property—especially the mines in Spain and other colonies; partly from tribute paid by the subordinate cities (such as Utica, Hadrumetum, etc.), by the Liby-Phœnices, by the dependent African nomades, and by the colonies (such as Sardinia, Sicily, etc.); and partly from the customs which were rigorously enforced in all parts of the Carthaginian dominions. The tribute varied according to the needs of the state; sometimes amounting to one-half of the income of those from whom it was exacted.

Although ambitious of extending her limits, the conquests of Carthage were based upon the sound policy of acquiring no more territory than she could defend, and she kept within this wise moderation, although the whole African continent offered her a field for the exercise of her ambition. Even in Spain, at a later day, no extensive scheme of conquest was attempted until she was driven into it by the strategical necessities of her struggles with the Romans. "A commercial and maritime nation soon perceives the fact that there are no safer and more advantageous possessions than islands. The most striking historical examples prove that large continents cannot be guarded by fleets alone, as even if all the ports are closed or blockaded, ample supplies can be drawn from the inland districts. Carthage early adopted this policy; and, even at the period of its greatest prosperity, restricted its possessions beyond its natural territory almost exclusively to islands. There, they had no rivalry to fear, their own maritime superiority secured their dominion, and trade could be carried on almost unperceived and without risk, in an age when as yet there was no great rival maritime power. . . . The western part of the Mediterranean, filled with large and small islands, was an open field to them, and in harmony with both their position and resources."

The commerce of Carthage is known to have been large, but its extent is uncertain. "There can be little doubt," says Rawlinson, "that it reached, at any rate, to the following places: in the north, Cornwall and the Scilly islands; in the east, Phœnicia; towards the west, Madeira, the Canaries, and the coast of Guinea; towards the south, Fezzan." By means of this traffic Carthage obtained the commodities she most needed, such as wine, oil, dates, salt, fish, silphium, gold, tin, lead, ivory, precious stones, and slaves. In exchange for these she exported her own manufactures—textile fabrics, hardware, pottery, ornaments for the person, harness for horses, tools, etc. This commerce "was also, to a considerable extent, a carrying trade, whereby Carthage enabled the nations of western Europe, western Asia, and the interior of Africa, to obtain respectively each other's products. It was in part a land, in part a sea, traffic. While the Carthaginian merchants scoured the sea in all directions in their trading vessels, caravans directed by Carthaginian enterprise penetrated the Great Desert, and brought to Carthage from the south and southeast the products of those far-off regions. Egypt, upper Cyréné, the Oases of the Sahara, Fezzan, perhaps Ethiopia and Bornou, carried on in this way a traffic with the great commercial emporium. By the sea her commerce was especially with Tyre, with her own colonies, with the nations of the western Mediterranean, with the tribes of the African coast from the Pillars of Hercules to the Bight of Benin, and with the remote barbarians of southwestern Albion."

The government of Carthage was always an aristocratic republic. The supreme power was lodged in the hands of the native Carthaginians residing in or about the city of Carthage, and unqualified obedience to all the orders of the home government was exacted of the provinces. The chief distinction which divided class from class in Carthage was wealth. All Carthaginians were eligible to office, but as none of the offices were salaried, it followed that no poor man could afford to be an officeholder. Consequently the political power fell entirely into the hands of the rich, who alone had the time and the money to devote themselves to public affairs. Public opinion was strongly against the elevation of a poor man to office.

At the head of the state were two suffetes,

or judges, who, in the earlier times, were the military leaders of the nation; but whose office gradually came to be regarded as exclusively civil, and in no sense military. The suffetes were chosen by the citizens from certain families, which had an exclusive claim to the dignity, and are believed to have held office for life. Next followed the Council, which consisted of several hundred members. From this body almost all the officers of the government were taken, such as the Senate of One Hundred, a select committee of the Council, which directed all its proceedings; and the Pentarchies, or commissions of five members each, which were charged with the management of the various departments of state, and which appointed the members of the Senate. "The Council of One Hundred (or, with the two suffetes and the two high priests, 104) Judges, a high court of judicature elected by the people, was the most popular element in the constitution; but even its members were practically chosen from the upper classes, and their power was used rather to check the excessive ambition of individual members of the aristocracy than to augment the civil rights or improve the social condition of the people. The people, however, were contented. They generally elected the suffetes under certain restrictions, and the generals freely; they probably filled up vacancies in the Great Council; and in cases where the suffetes and the council differed, they discussed and determined political measures. Questions of peace and war, treaties and the like, were frequently, though not necessarily, brought before them; and the aristocratical character of the constitution was maintained by the weight of popular opinion, which was in favor of power resting with the rich. Through the openings which trade gave to enterprise any one might become rich; and extreme poverty was almost unknown, since no sooner did it appear than it was relieved by the planting of colonies and the allotment of waste lands to all who applied for them."

The religion of the Carthaginians was the same as that of the Phœnicians. All the worst features of the Phœnician faith were adopted, and after the Roman conquest stern measures were necessary to compel their discontinuance, particularly to repress the practice of human sacrifices to Baal.

The first object of the ambition of Carthage, after she had become strong enough

to attempt a foreign policy, was to obtain possession of the island of Sicily. Settlements were made in the western corner of the island, and though the Carthaginians must have cherished, at a very early day, the design of expelling the Greek settlers from Sicily when they became strong enough to do so, they made no effort in that direction until the fifth century B. C. When the invasion of Greece by Xerxes had occupied the attention of the entire Hellenic race, Carthage believed that the hour had come to attempt the conquest of the Greek cities of Sicily, which could not hope for aid from the mother country at such a time. A large army, under Hamilcar, the son of Mago, was sent to attempt the conquest, but was defeated by Gelo at Himera, and Carthage was obliged to abandon the undertaking and consent to an ignominious peace, B. C. 480.

Carthage now turned her arms against the native Libyan tribes, reduced them to a state of dependence upon her, and put a stop to the tribute she had until now paid them as an acknowledgment that the ground on which the city stood was Libyan territory. Some advantages were gained in a war with the Greek city of Cyréné. The commanders in these successful expeditions were Hannibal, Hasdrubal, and Sappho, grandsons of Mago and nephews of Hamilcar. Fearful that the successes of this family might be used to the disadvantage of the state, the Carthaginians established the Council of One Hundred, before whom every general was obliged to appear on his return from an expedition, and render an account of his acts.

In B. C. 409, seventy years after their first failure in Sicily, the Carthaginians again invaded that island, invited this time by the city of Egesta to assist her in her contest with Selinus. A large fleet and army, under Hannibal, the grandson of Hamilcar, comprised the expedition. The Greeks were defeated in several battles, Selinus and Himera were destroyed, and the Carthaginians returned home in triumph.

These successes induced the Carthaginians to put forth all their strength in the effort to conquer Sicily. Their wars for this purpose occupied the whole of the fourth century before the Christian era. In B. C. 405 Hannibal and Himilco invaded Sicily with a strong force, and captured Agrigentum, Gela, and Camarina. Diony-

sius, King of Syracuse, alarmed at the progress of the Carthaginians, made peace with the invaders, and so checked their advance for a time. Feeling himself strong enough to cope with them, Dionysius, in B. C. 397, broke the treaty, and, by a series of rapid movements, recovered his lost cities and took the town of Moyta. The next year Himilco was sent to Sicily by the Carthaginian government, and regained Moyta and captured Messene. In the same year (B. C. 396) Mago, the commander of the Carthaginian fleet, gained a great victory over the Sicilians off Catana. The combined Carthaginian forces now laid siege to Syracuse. In B. C. 395 a frightful pestilence scourged the Carthaginian army. Himilco, disheartened by this affliction and by his failure to take the city, abandoned his army and committed suicide; and the Syracusans, sallying out, destroyed the wreck of the Carthaginian force. Himilco was succeeded by Mago, but the war lagged, and in B. C. 393 peace was made with Syracuse. In B. C. 383 and 368, Dionysius endeavored to expel the Carthaginians from the island, but was each time defeated and compelled to sue for peace.

The war was renewed in B. C. 346, when Carthage, taking advantage of the internal troubles of Syracuse which followed the death of Dionysius I., endeavored to extend her power over all Sicily. The effort was defeated, and Carthage was compelled to make peace in B. C. 340.

In B. C. 311, Agathocles, King of Syracuse, began a war upon the Carthaginians in Sicily. He was defeated by Hamilcar at the Himera, B. C. 310, and the successful general at once laid siege to Syracuse. Agathocles endeavored to relieve his capital by suddenly transferring the war to Africa. He sailed for that continent with the larger part of his army, leaving his kingdom in charge of his son; and, landing near Carthage, attacked the home territory of the republic. For a while he was successful, through the treachery of the Carthaginian general, Bomilcar, but was at length compelled to withdraw from Africa and return to Syracuse, where his son had already sustained two defeats. The king himself was badly beaten in an engagement after his return, and was obliged to make peace B. C. 304.

These wars cost Carthage large numbers of men and immense sums of money, and accomplished nothing for her. The repub-

lic barely held its original possessions in Sicily, about one-third of that island. Whenever the Carthaginians had met the Greeks on anything like equal terms they had been defeated. This was a valuable lesson to Carthage, which was taught also that her own territory was liable to invasion, and that her African subjects were as likely to aid the invaders as to remain faithful to her.

Carthage, in spite of these lessons, held to her designs upon Sicily. Agathocles died in B. C. 289, and from that time the Hellenic power in Sicily began to wane. Carthage renewed the war, seized Agrigentum, occupied all the southern part of the

island, and threatened Syracuse. The Syracusans now summoned Pyrrhus to their aid. That king at once sailed for Syracuse, relieved the city, and compelled the Carthaginians to retire southward, B. C. 279. He had reduced them to great straits, when his sudden return to Italy changed the fortune of the war. Peace was made upon favorable terms between Carthage and Hiero, the Syracusan king.

A new power—Rome—now appeared upon the scene. From this time the history of Carthage is so closely connected with that of Rome, that we shall suspend the narrative here, and resume it in our account of the history of Rome.

BOOK XI.

THE HISTORY OF GREECE.

CHAPTER I.

THE HEROIC AGE.

Situation of Greece—Description of the Country—Its Physical Characteristics—Mountainous Character—Influence of this upon the Greeks—The Political Divisions of Greece—The Greek Islands—Early History of Greece Uncertain—The Primitive Inhabitants—The Pelasgi—The Heroic Age—The Three Greatest Heroes of this Period—The Cities—Introduction of Letters into Greece—The Trojan War—Dr. Schlieman's Discoveries—Social and Political Constitution of Greece during the Heroic Age—Migrations of the Greek Tribes—The Return of the Heraclidæ—Colonization of the Islands of the Ægean and the Shores of Asia Minor—Religion of the Greeks—A Brief Account of their System—The Eleusinian Mysteries—The Oracles—Gradual Growth of the New Civilization of Greece—Growth and Political Character of the City—The Greek Love of Independence—Its Consequences—Common Ties of the Greek States.

GREECE, or, as it was anciently called, Hellas, occupied the southern part of the eastern peninsula of the continent of Europe. Its greatest length, from Mount Olympus, on the north, to Cape Tænarum, on the south, is about 250 miles, and its greatest breadth from east to west about 180 miles. Its superficial extent has been estimated at 35,000 square miles. Continental Greece is bounded on the north by the Cambunian range, on the east by the Ægean Sea, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by the Ionian Gulf or Adriatic Sea.

The most distinctive geographical features of Greece are the number of its mountains and the great extent of its sea-coast, which is broken by numerous deep bays. The sea is tideless and is studded with beautiful and fertile littoral islands. Communication between the various parts of the country is thus rendered easy by water. The climate of Greece is mild, the soil fertile, and the country is admirably adapted to the maintenance of a large and active population. The numerous islands of the Mediterranean render the navigation of that sea easy, and lie like so many stepping-stones between Greece and the coast of Asia Minor and the Black Sea. The peninsula of Italy is only thirty miles distant from the west coast of Greece. The Grecian peninsula is divided into three distinct portions by the long gulfs which indent its shores. The Ambracian and Malian Gulfs separate northern from central Greece, and central Greece is separated from southern Greece or the Peloponnesus by the Corinthian and Saronic Gulfs.

The peninsula is deeply ridged by ranges of mountains which divide it into a number of distinct regions admirably adapted to the existence of independent communities or states. This mountainous character not only preserved the country from successful invasion by foreigners, but made it very hard for one Grecian state to subdue an-

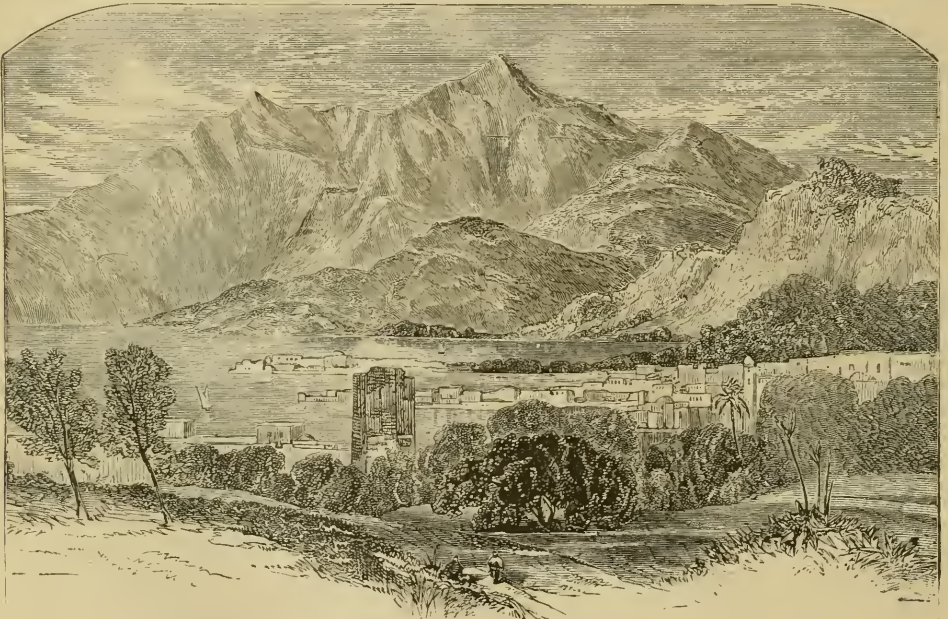
other. The mountains rendered the internal communications difficult, and the few mountain passes could be held by a handful of men against an army. At the same time the sea afforded unusual facilities for peaceful and friendly intercourse. Thus the Greeks united the two usually opposite characters of mountaineers and mariners; exhibiting the sturdy love of freedom of the one and the hardy daring of the other.

The chief products of ancient Greece were wheat, barley, flax, wine, and oil. Cattle and flocks were raised in large numbers, the hills furnishing excellent pasturage. In ancient times the hills were thickly wooded; they are now bare.

of Greece. Attica, which occupied the eastern foreland of the peninsula, was the principal state. Its chief town, Athens, was the most important of all the Greek cities.

The Peloponnesus, or southern Greece, contained eleven states, viz.: Corinth, Sicyon, Achaia, Elis, Arcadia, Messenia, Laconia, Argolis, Epidauria, Trœzenia, and Hermionis. Of these Laconia, sometimes called Lacedæmon, was the most important. Its capital was the famous city of Sparta.

Besides continental Greece, ancient Hellas included a number of islands lying close to the shore and in the Mediterranean. The largest of the littoral islands was Eubœa,



SCENE ON THE GREEK COAST.

Although only about the size of the State of Maine, continental Greece contained twenty-four different states or countries, each of which was independent of the other. Northern Greece contained two principal countries, Thessaly and Epirus. To the north of these lay Macedonia, whose kings claimed to be of Hellenic descent, but which was not regarded as a part of Greece until a very late period.

Central Greece contained eleven countries, viz.: Acarnania, Ætolia, western Locris, Æniana, Doris, Malis, eastern Locris, Phocis, Bœotia, Attica, and Megaris. The general character of the region was mountainous, and it was less fertile than the rest

off the eastern coast. It was 100 miles in length. Coreyra, off the western coast, was an important island, about forty miles in length; and Crete, off the southern coast, was 150 miles in length. Besides these were the Cyclades and Sporades, lying in the Ægean, like stepping-stones between Greece and Asia Minor. The name of Hellas was also applied to the Greek settlements on the neighboring shores of Europe and Asia; in short, to all places where the Greeks obtained a foothold.

The early history of Greece is so completely enshrouded in fable as to be actually unknown. The Greeks themselves believed they were descended from Hellen, the son

of Deucalion and Pyrrha. Hence they called themselves Hellenes and their country Hellas. The names Greece and Greeks were not known to them, but originated with the Romans, who applied them to the eastern peninsula of Europe and its inhabitants. The Greeks of historical times had no knowledge of a migration of their ancestors from Asia, but believed them to have always been in the country, though they were not always called Hellenes.

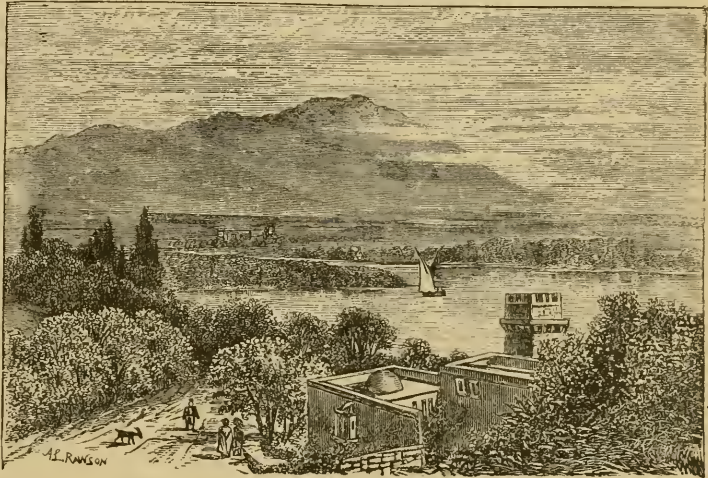
It is certain that the original inhabitants of the country were a branch of the great Indo-European race, all the branches of which were, as has been stated elsewhere, originally one people, inhabiting the high table land of central Asia. At some remote period the ancestors of the historic Greeks moved westward, entered Europe, and settled in the peninsula. In the earliest times Greece was occupied by a race known as the Pelasgi, which was divided into several branches, known as the Hellenes, Leleges, Caucones and others. The Pelasgi are represented as having attained a certain degree of civilization. They dwelt in walled towns, and cultivated the ground. Their worship consisted of the adoration of Jove,

the national god of the later Greeks. His principal altar was at Dodona in Epirus, and the oracle at this place was always considered the most ancient in Greece. In process of time the other tribes were either driven out or absorbed by the Hellenes. The Hellenic dialect of the Pelasgic tongue became the language of Greece, and the worship of the Dodonæan Jove gave place to that of the Olympian Jove, who was substantially the same as the more ancient god.

This period is known as the *Heroic Age*. In later times it formed the theme of the poets. Its people were believed to be a race midway between the gods and men, and, though not divine, superior to the men of later times in greatness of soul and physical strength. The exploits and adventures of

these heroes belong to mythology, and we must necessarily pass them by in this narrative. The three which possessed the strongest hold on the popular imagination were Hercules, the great national hero; Theseus, whom the Greeks regarded as the civilizer and first monarch of Attica, and the founder of constitutional government; and Minos, King of Crete, the first great lawgiver.

The Greeks acknowledged themselves indebted to some extent to foreigners for their civilization, but there can be no doubt that, with the exception of the introduction of the use of letters, Greek civilization was a product of the soil, the result of the peculiar genius of the people. The ancient Greeks believed that Athens was founded and its religious rites established by Cecrops, a na-



SITE OF TROY.

tive of Sais in Egypt. Modern authorities regard Cecrops as a Pelasgian hero. Argos was believed to have been founded by Danaus, an Egyptian, who was said to have fled to Greece with his fifty daughters to escape the persecution of their suitors. This is evidently a fable. Cadmus, a Phœnician, was regarded as the founder of Thebes, in Bœotia, and as the first to introduce the use of letters into Greece. Modern historians accept this belief as true in the main. Whether there was such a person as the Phœnician Cadmus, and whether he built the town of Cadmea, which afterwards became the citadel of Thebes, cannot now be determined; but it is certain that the Phœnicians established colonies in the Greek islands at a very early period, and there is reason to believe that they also

made settlements on the mainland. Above all, it is certain that the Greek letters were derived from the Phœnician, both in name and in form; a fact which proves incontestibly a very ancient intercourse between Greece and Phœnicia.

To the mythical period of Greece belong the stories of the war of the seven against Thebes, the Epigoni, and the siege of Troy, the last of which was the final and greatest undertaking of the Heroic Age, and is related in the poems of Homer, the great national poet of Greece. According to the legend, Paris, the son of Priam, King of Troy, in Asia Minor, having been entertained by Menelaus, King of Sparta, betrayed his hospitality by eloping with his wife, the beautiful Helen. The Greek princes, resenting the insult offered to Menelaus, assembled their forces, crossed the Ægean with nearly 1,200 ships, and laid siege to Troy. The expedition was commanded by Agamemnon, King of Mycenæ. All the heroes of Hellas were represented in the expedition, and a siege of ten years followed, which resulted in the capture and destruction of Troy. In the narrative of Homer the gods take part in the war, espousing the sides of their respective favorites. Modern historians have doubted even the existence of such a city as Troy, and the story of a war against it receives little favor from them. Of late years, however, some remarkable discoveries have been made, which may perhaps do something towards settling this much disputed question. Dr. Schlieman has conducted a series of extensive explorations upon the alleged site of ancient Troy, and has laid bare the foundations of a city dating evidently about 1,400 or 1,500 years before the Christian era. These ruins lie from twenty-three to thirty-three feet below the surface of the country, and bear marks of a severe conflagration. Many articles of household use, arms, ornaments, etc., have been recovered by Dr. Schlieman. It seems certain that the fact of the existence of an ancient city on the site assigned by Homer to Troy has been thus proved beyond question; and that the ancient city to which the ruins belonged was destroyed by fire seems equally sure; but it has not yet been conclusively shown that this city was Troy.

The social and political state of Greece during the Heroic Age is described by Homer with great exactness. The country was divided into a number of independent

states, each governed by its own king. The authority of the monarch was patriarchal rather than regal. He was responsible only to Jove for the exercise of his power, since he claimed descent from the gods themselves, and received his authority from them. In war he was the sole commander of his people; in peace he was their judge and priest, administering justice among them, and offering prayers and sacrifices for them to the gods. Though his authority was acknowledged, the people required of him a personal superiority over them as the condition of his rule. He must exhibit personal courage in war, wisdom in council, and eloquence in debate. As long as he manifested these high qualities, his right to rule was conceded, and he was obeyed by all; even his caprices and violence were submitted to. His authority began to decline when he showed weakness of body or mind.

The Greeks of this period were divided into three classes—nobles, common freemen, and slaves. The nobles, like the king, traced their descent from the gods. They were very powerful and wealthy, possessing large estates and many slaves. They were the leaders of the people in war. Indeed, judging from the pictures given us by Homer, these chiefs really did the fighting, the common soldiers being often mere spectators in the crisis of many a battle. The freemen seem to have possessed lands of their own, which they cultivated themselves. A poorer class, who were not land-owners, appear to have worked on the lands of others for hire. The seer, the bard, and the herald belonged to the class of common freemen, but their attainments raised them above their fellows, and secured them the respect of the nobles. To this list may be added the carpenter and the smith, for as a knowledge of the mechanical arts was possessed by but few, these naturally became men of note. The slaves were the property of the nobles alone. They were not so numerous as in later times, nor were they as badly treated. Indeed a very kindly relation seems to have existed between master and slave during this period.

The family relations occupied a prominent place in the social system of primitive Greece. The paternal authority was highly revered, and nothing was so much dreaded as a father's curse. All the members of a family or clan were united by the closest ties, and were bound to avenge with their united strength an injury offered to any individual of the race. Women held a

higher position and were allowed greater liberty than in historic Greece. The station of the wife and mother was one of great dignity and influence, in spite of the fact that wives were purchased by their husbands. Hospitality was a solemn duty enjoined upon all classes. A stranger was welcomed, and given the best the house afforded before his name or his business was asked; if he came seeking protection his claim upon the host was even stronger, although to grant it might bring the latter into trouble, for Jove was believed to punish without mercy the man who turned a deaf ear to the prayer of a suppliant.

The manners of this early age were simple. Labor was honorable, and kings did not deem it beneath their dignity to engage in it. Ulysses is represented as building his own bed-chamber, and constructing his raft, and boasts of his skill in ploughing and mowing. The food of the people was simple, consisting of beef, mutton, and goat's flesh, cheese, flour bread, and sometimes fruits. Wine was used, but intemperance was unknown. The chiefs prided themselves upon being excellent cooks. The wives and daughters of the kings and nobles were employed in spinning and weaving. They also brought water from the well, and assisted their slaves in washing garments in the river.

On the other hand these ancient heroes were fierce and unrelenting in war. The stronger chief plundered and maltreated his less powerful neighbor; piracy was a reputable calling; bloodshed was common; quarter was rarely given to a fallen foe; the arms of the vanquished warrior became the spoil of the conqueror; and the naked corpse of an adversary was thrown out to the birds of prey. Homer describes Achilles as sacrificing twelve human victims on the tomb of Patroclus.

As has been said, the Greeks of this period dwelt in fortified towns which were surrounded by strong walls and adorned with palaces and temples. The houses of the nobles were magnificent and costly. They were ornamented with gold, silver, and bronze. The dress of the nobles in peace was very rich and elegant. In war they wore highly wrought armor. The Phœnicians supplied them with everything they did not produce themselves. The massive ruins of Mycenæ and Tiryns belong to this period, and afford positive evidence of the strength and splendor of the cities of

the Heroic Age. The arts of sculpture and design had made considerable progress; poetry was cultivated; but whether writing was yet known is doubtful.

The Heroic Age was brought to a close by a general movement to the southward of the tribes which constituted the immediate progenitors of the Greeks of historic times. It is possible that this movement was produced by the pressure upon north-western Greece of the Illyrian people. These entering Epirus (about B. C. 1200, as near as the date can be conjectured), brought about a general movement of the populations of northern and central Greece. The Thessalians left Thesprotia in Epirus, crossed the Pindus mountains and drove the Bœotians out of the fertile valley of the Peneus, and occupied it, giving to the country thus acquired the name of Thessaly. The Bœotians, in their turn, crossed Mounts Othrys and Cœta, and seized the plain of the Cephissus, driving out the Cadmeians and Minyæ. This region was subsequently known as Bœotia. The Cadmeians and Minyæ dispersed themselves over Attica, Lacedæmon, and the neighboring states. About the same time, the Dorians, moving from their old home in the north, conquered Dryopis, the narrow valley between Cœta and Parnassus, which was subsequently known as Doris. The Dryopians fled by sea, and settled in Eubœa, Cythnus, and the Peloponnesus.

Not many years later, another, and apparently a distinct, movement took place. The Dorians found the narrow valley in which they had settled too small for them, and formed an alliance with the Ætoliens. These tribes crossed the Corinthian Gulf at its narrowest point, between Rhium and Antirrhium, and effected a lodgment in the Peloponnesus, from which they successively conquered Elis, Messenia, Laconia, and Argolis. The previous Achæan inhabitants in part submitted, and in part moved northward and conquered the north coast of the Peloponnesus, the Ionian inhabitants of which found a temporary refuge in Attica. Elis was assigned to the Ætoliens, and the Dorians set up kingdoms of their own in the other countries. The conquest of the Peloponnesus by the Dorians is known as the return of the Heraclidæ, from the claim of the Dorians that they were regaining the possessions of their great ancestor Hercules, who had been expelled from the southern peninsula a century before.

These migrations and conquests led to a still further movement of the Greeks. Finding their continental possessions too small for them, certain of the tribes moved into the islands of the Mediterranean and to the shores of Asia Minor. The conquest of the plain of the Cephissus by the Bœotians led to the colonization of the island of Lesbos, and to the first and most northern of the Greek settlements in Asia Minor, between the Hermus and the Hellespont. The Ionians, driven from the north coast of the Peloponnesus, after a brief sojourn in Attica, passed on to the Cyclades, and thence to Chios and Samos, and the Asiatic shores directly opposite, between the Hermus and the Meander. The Achæans, after their expulsion from the Peloponnesus by the Dorians, emigrated in part to Italy, but principally, under Doric leaders, to the islands of Cos and Rhodes and the southwest coast of Asia Minor. The Æolians had twelve cities on their islands and the Asiatic shore. Mitylene, or the island of Lesbos, was considered their metropolis. The Ionians had also twelve cities. These were independent of each other, but were bound by the ties of a common worship. Their chief sanctuary, dedicated to Poseidon, crowned the headland of Mycale. The Dorians had six cities, which were often called the Dorian Hexapolis. These had a common sanctuary—the temple of the Triopian Apollo.

The Greeks were essentially a religious people, and a knowledge of their religious belief is absolutely necessary to a proper understanding of their history. The following statement presents the leading features of their creed. According to the Greek mythology the world was originally a rude, chaotic mass, from which heaven, or Uranus, and earth, or Gæa, separated themselves as independent divinities. These two produced the first race of gods, known as the Uranids, or sons of heaven and earth. The powerful brood of the Titans belonged to them. The second race was ruled by Cronos. Zeus made war upon him, overthrew him, and established his own power after struggles with the Titans and giants which convulsed all nature. From the time of this victory Zeus was the supreme god, the head of the entire system, the king and father of gods and men. His throne was set up high on the summit of Mount Olympus, in Thessaly. Olympus was also the abode of the other gods. The summit

of the mountain is wrapped in clouds, and above these the Greeks placed the abode of their deities in a region of perpetual sunshine, far above and free from the storms of the lower world. A gate of clouds guarded by the goddesses of the seasons afforded communication with earth. Each god had his own dwelling, but was obliged to repair to the palace of Jove, or Zeus, when summoned. There they feasted on ambrosia and nectar, conversed upon the affairs of heaven and earth, and listened to the music of Apollo's lyre and the songs of the Muses. Zeus divided his dominions with Poseidon, to whom he yielded the command of the sea, and Pluto, to whom he confided the control of the under world, the abode of the spirits of the dead.

The Olympian council, presided over by Jove, was composed of eleven great deities, viz.: Poseidon, the god of the sea; Apollo, the sun-god, and patron of poetry, music, and eloquence; Ares, the god of war; Hephæstus, the god of fire and the useful arts; Hermes, the herald of the gods, and the patron of commerce and wealth; Hera, the great goddess of nature; Athéné, the daughter of Zeus, the goddess of civilization, learning and art; Artemis, the goddess of the moon and hunting; Aphrodite, goddess of beauty and love; Hestia, goddess of domestic life; and Demeter, the goddess of bountiful harvests.

Besides these there were many other divinities, some of them of nearly equal power, as Pluto, the god of the under world; Helios, Hecate, Dionysus, Lato, Dione, Persephone, Selene, Themis, Eos, Æolus, Nemesis, the Graces, the Muses, the Mœræ or Fates, the Eumenides or Furies, the Oceanids, the Nereids, the Nymphs, and the Hours. There were other deities whose personality was more faintly conceived, such as Ate, the Litæ, Eris, Thanatos, Hypnos, Cratos, and Bia. There were also monsters, the offspring of the gods, as the Harpies, Gorgons, Grææ, Pegasus, Chrysaor, Echnida, Chimæra, Cerberus, Geryon, the Lernean hydra, the Nemeæan lion, the Centaurs, the Sirens, the Sphinx, Scylla and Charybdis. These divinities peopled the earth, the sea, and the infernal world. For an explanation of their characters and powers the reader is referred to any of the standard classical dictionaries.

Poseidon was surrounded by Amphitrite, Thetis, the Nereids, and the Tritons; the Eumenides pursued the guilty with the

pangs of remorse; Persephone ruled in Hades with Pluto; the entrance to the infernal regions was guarded by Cerberus; Minos, Æacus, and Rhadamanthus were the judges of the souls of the dead; Pan and the Fauns ruled in the fields; the Nymphs in the mountains and fountains; the Dryads and the Hama-dryads in the forests; the Muses and Graces were the inspirers of poetry and beauty; Eos, the dawn, dwelt upon the banks of ocean in a golden-gated palace, from which she issued each morning to announce the approach of her great brother Apollo, or the sun; Æolus bound the winds in caves or sent them out upon their missions; Iris was the messenger of the gods, and the rainbow the bridge over which she passed when sent upon her journeys; Dionysus was the patron of the vine, and his rites were celebrated with the wildest frenzy; Nemesis was the divine justice acting in punishment of crime.

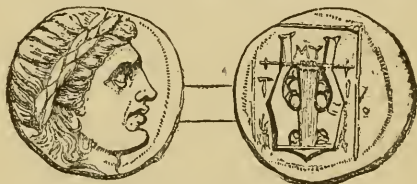
The great principle of the Greek religion was obedience to a moral ruler of the world, who was ever present, and who exercised an unceasing and active influence upon human affairs. This obedience and reverence extends to thoughts and words as well as deeds. In the Heroic Age sacrifices were offered as expressions of gratitude or to gain the favor of the gods. It was thought impossible for a guilty person to avert the torments of the Eumenides. At a later period the sacrifices assumed an expiatory character, and it was held that the divine anger could be averted and the stain of sin removed by sacrifices.

Among the most sacred rites were the Eleusinian mysteries, or ceremonies performed in secret at Eleusis in honor of Demeter and Persephone. They were attended only by those who had been regularly initiated into them. It was a crime to speak of them to the uninitiated. Those who engaged in them were regarded as being under the special protection of the gods.

The will of the gods was made known by means of oracles. The oldest of these was the oracle of Zeus, at Dodona, in Epirus. The god was believed to speak in the rustling of the leaves of the sacred oaks, and his utterances were interpreted by priests or priestesses. Apollo, however, was the chief spokesman of the gods. He had twenty-two oracles in Greece and the Greek colonies in Asia Minor. The most famous of these was located at Delphi, in Phocis.

Here there was a temple dedicated to Apollo, containing his golden statue and a perpetual fire of fir wood. A crevice in the centre of the floor was supposed to emit a peculiar gas, believed to be the breath of the god. In seeking to learn the will of the god, the priestess, or Pythia, seated herself over this crevice, and the fumes of the vapor were supposed to inspire her. When properly exalted, she gave utterance to the response of Apollo in hexameter versés. The words of the oracle were taken down by the attendant priests, and were frequently so confused or obscure that their meaning could not be understood. The Delphian oracle was consulted not only by the Greeks, but by the Lydians, Phrygians, and even the Romans.

From the close of the Heroic Age to the period of the First Olympiad the chronological history of Greece is very uncertain, and at the best we have but a general idea of the course of events during this long interval. The first thing to which our atten-



SILVER COIN OF MITYLENE.

tion is directed is the effect upon the country of the migrations which have been described. The immediate result was to check the progress of civilization in Greece. The races which took possession of the country were stronger and rougher than the weak and polished people who were driven out, and for a time physical qualities were supreme over refinement and culture. But the new settlers of the Greek states did not rest satisfied with merely destroying the old order of affairs. In its place they laid the foundations of the hardy and adventurous nation which afterwards eclipsed the glories of the Heroic Age. "War and movement, bringing out the personal qualities of each individual man, favored the growth of self-respect and self-assertion. Amid toils and dangers which were shared alike by all, the idea of political equality took its rise. A novel and unsettled state of things stimulated political inventiveness; and, various expedients being tried, the stock of political ideas increased rapidly. The simple hereditary monarchy of the heroic times was

succeeded everywhere, except in Epirus, by some more complicated system of government—some system far more favorable to freedom and to the political education of the individual.”

To the new order of things was due also the change by which the CITY acquired its special dignity and importance. The conquerors naturally remained together in some stronghold for their mutual protection. This stronghold thus became an independent state, ruling over a certain tract of the country immediately around it. It should be borne in mind in the study of the history of Greece, that the fundamental article of the political system of the Greeks was the supreme and complete independence of each city. To his city the allegiance of the Greek was due, and to it his patriotism was confined. Hence the slight degree of national feeling which marks the history of these people. So completely was this independence recognized that a citizen of one city was an alien and a stranger in the others. The Greek cities constantly repelled each other, their object being to centre the feelings of each citizen in his own community. This exclusiveness made it difficult for them to combine in times of danger against a common foe. They were ever ready to turn their arms against each other, and, being divided, were easily overcome by the Macedonian monarchs. The exercise of authority by one city over another was repugnant to the Greeks at all periods of their known history. The dominion held by Thebes over the Bœotian cities, and by Athens over her subject allies, was submitted to with reluctance, and thrown off at the first opportunity. “Careless readers of history are tempted to suppose that the territory of Greece was divided among a comparatively small number of independent states, such as Attica, Arcadia, Bœotia, Phocis, Locris, and the like; but this is a most serious mistake, and leads to a total misapprehension of Greek history. Every city was usually an independent state, and consequently each of the territories described under the names of Arcadia,

Bœotia, Phocis, and Locris, contained numerous political communities independent of one another. Attica, it is true, formed a single state, and its different towns recognized Athens as their capital and the source of supreme power; but this is an exception to the general rule.”

Still there were ties which bound the Greeks together. These were community of blood and language, community of religious faith and festivals, and community of manners and character. They regarded themselves as the descendants of Hellen, and called the other nations of the world barbarians, applying the term equally to the civilized Egyptians and the rude Scythians.

Their common religion and the observance of the same festivals led to the formation of associations of neighboring tribes or cities, who were accustomed to meet at certain fixed times to offer sacrifices to the god of a particular temple which was supposed to be the common property and under the common protection of all. The most celebrated of these was the Amphictyonic Council. This assembly, originally insignificant, acquired its importance because of its guardianship of the Delphian temple, the great national shrine of Greece. The date of its establishment is unknown, but it would appear to be one of the institutions which survived the Heroic Age. It met twice in the year—in the spring at the temple of Apollo at Delphi, and in the autumn at the temple of Demeter at Thermopylæ. Its members consisted of sacred delegates from twelve tribes, each of which contained several independent states or cities. The deputies of each tribe consisted of a chief called Hieromnemon and subordinates called Pylagoræ. The main duties of the council were to restrain acts of aggression against its members, and to maintain the rights and dignity of the god and his temple. They were not a national congress whose duty was to protect and defend the common interests of Greece, and their powers were employed for political purposes only when they could be made to serve the ends of some of the more ambitious Grecian states.



CHAPTER II.

EARLY HISTORY—TO THE FIRST OLYMPIAD.

Growth of Argos—The Dorian Colonization—Rise of Sparta—War with Amyclæ—Early History of Athens—The Death of Codrus—Royalty Abolished—The Rule of Archons Established—The Annual Archons—The First Certain Date in Athenian History—Steady Growth of Sparta—Division of the People into Classes—The Helots—The Laws of Lycurgus—Training of a Spartan Citizen—Voluntary Exile of Lycurgus—The Poet Homer—His Influence upon Grecian History—Prosperity of Argos—The First Messenian War—The Olympic Games Revived—Their Character—The First Olympiad.

THE first state which attained to political importance after the close of the Heroic Period was Argos. Tradition asserts that it was from Argos that the Dorian colonists went out to settle Epidaurus, Træzen, Phlius, Sicyon, and Corinth. From Epidaurus the Dorians, according to the tradition, colonized Ægina and Epidaurus Limera; and Megara from Corinth. Over these colonies Argos held a protectorate. For several centuries she was the leading state of the Peloponnesus. She never forgot this fact, and it never ceased to exercise a powerful influence upon her history.

The early history of Sparta is marked by the efforts of the Dorian conquerors to extend their power. They were confined at first to the upper part of the valley between the Taygetus and Parnon ranges, a tract about twenty-five miles long by about twenty broad. The Achæans held the lower valley, having their capital, Amyclæ, on the Eurotas, about two miles south of Sparta. For three centuries there was perpetual war between Sparta and Amyclæ, but the former made no progress to the southward. The powerful fortifications of Amyclæa held the Spartans in check, and baffled all their efforts to extend their territory. Sparta then endeavored to reduce Arcadia, but without success. She even went so far as to pick quarrels with Messenia and Argos, which led to unimportant wars.

The early history of Athens commences with a kingly period. From about B. C. 1200 to B. C. 1050, Attica was governed by absolute monarchs. The last of these was Codrus, who, according to the tradition, fell in resisting an invasion of the Dorians, who attacked Attica from the newly-conquered Peloponnesus. During this period

the people were divided into four tribes: Teleontes (or Gelcontes), Hopletes, Ægico-reis, and Argadeis. These were subdivided into two branches: 1st. Brotherhoods and clans. 2d. Thirdlings and Naucraries. The former division was based upon consanguinity; the latter was an artificial arrangement of the state for purposes of taxation and military service. Three classes of citizens were recognized: nobles, farmers, and artisans. The first possessed all the political power, and enjoyed the sole right of filling the public offices. The senate, or Council of Areopagus, which held its sittings on Mars Hill, was drawn from this class. It is possible that the farmers and artisans may have had the right to attend and express dissent in the agora.

The history of Greece during the eleventh century before Christ is uncertain. The period of certain chronology is still several centuries distant.

This century was passed by the Dorians in thoroughly establishing themselves in their conquests in the Peloponnesus. Sparta maintained her struggle against Amyclæ for the possession of the valley of the Eurotas, and was confined by the Achæans to the upper part of the valley.

Argos was the supreme power of the Peloponnesus, and her colonies were scattered through the north of this peninsula. The government of Argos was a monarchy of the heroic type. The crown was hereditary in the house of the Temenidæ, who traced their descent from Temenus, the eldest son of Aristomachus, and one of the Heraclidæ.

In Athenian history this century is believed to have witnessed the change of the form of government from royalty to the rule of archons for life. The legendary account of this change informs us that the Dorians invaded Attica soon after their settlement in the Peloponnesus. An oracle declared to them that they would conquer that country if they spared the life of the King of Athens. Codrus, the Athenian king, being informed of this, resolved to sacrifice himself for his country's safety. He entered the Dorian camp in disguise, provoked a quarrel with a soldier, and was slain. Upon learning of the death of the king, the Dorians retreated from Attica without striking a blow. The Athenians, out of respect for the memory of the royal martyr, abolished the office of king, and substituted for it that of archon for life.

This occurred about B. C. 1085. The first archon for life was Medon, the son of Codrus. He was followed by twelve of the descendants of Codrus, the dignity being confined to this family. On the death of Alcæmon, the thirteenth archon, and the last one for life, the eupatrids, or Athenian nobles, limited the archon's term of office to ten years (about B. C. 752). The dignity was still confined to the descendants of Codrus and Medon; but about B. C. 714 the office was thrown open to all the nobles in the state. In B. C. 683 the archonship was made annual, and its duties were distributed among nine persons, all of whom bore the title, but one of whom was *the* archon, and gave his name to the year. Thus the government was changed, according to the legendary account, from a royalty into an oligarchy. The political power of the state was vested exclusively in the nobles; the nine annual archons were chosen from and were directly

rents received from their tenants. 2. The *Periæci*, or free inhabitants of the country towns and villages. These were citizens in a certain sense, but had no political power. They were of mixed Doric and Achæan blood. They were spread throughout the whole country; were the possessors of the poorest lands, and were the only class engaged in trade, commerce, and handicrafts. They fought in the Spartan armies as heavy armed troops, but were not subject to the discipline by which the Spartans were trained to war. 3. The *Helots*, or slave population. They were originally of Achæan blood, but after the Messenian wars their number was increased by captives taken in battle, and they became a mixed race. They were employed in cultivating the lands of their Spartan masters, to whom they paid a fixed rent of one-half the produce. This class was slight at first, and a very kindly feeling seems to have prevailed between the Helots and the Spartans. After the Messenian wars, however, the Helots became the most numerous class in the state. From this time they were regarded with fear and suspicion by their masters. They were obliged to wear a peculiar dress, and every means was adopted to degrade and weaken them. Sparta was always in dread of a revolt of the Helots. From time to time, for the purpose of reducing this class, a select number of



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responsible to them alone. The people had no share in the government.

The history of Athens really commences with the institution of the nine annual archons in B. C. 683. This is its first certain date.

During this period Sparta had been growing rapidly in power and importance. The Spartan government was a royalty. Two kings ruled the country together, and the monarchy was of the heroic type. The two kings acted as checks upon each other, and the result was that the royal power was so weakened that by the middle of the ninth century it had become almost insignificant.

The nation was divided into three classes. 1. The *Spartans*, about 9,000 in number, the inhabitants of the capital. These were the descendants of the Dorian conquerors, and were the nobles of the kingdom. The political power was vested exclusively in them. They were the owners of the greater part of the soil, and lived in Sparta on the

Spartan youths were armed by the state with daggers, and sent out to range the country in all directions, with orders to secretly assassinate such of the Helots as were considered formidable. Sometimes, on the other hand, the Helots who had distinguished themselves in war, in which they were obliged to participate as light-armed troops, were given their freedom by the state. These constituted a distinct class known as the *Neodamodes*, or "the newly enfranchised."

The growing weakness of the crown so alarmed the Spartans that they became convinced of the necessity of a change in their political system. About B. C. 850, Lycurgus, a member of the royal family, but not in the direct line of succession, who had spent many years in travelling in foreign lands and observing their institutions, prepared a code of laws which provided for the government of the state and the proper training of the citizens. His reforms extended to every branch of the political and

social life of the Spartans, and were carried out only after a severe opposition.

The main object of Lysurgus was to retain the control of the state in the hands of the Spartans. This class, but 9,000 in number, could maintain its authority only by force, and the supreme effort of the legislator was to bind them into a compact and harmonious body by the closest ties, and to train them in such habits of bravery, endurance, and military subordination, that they should always be prepared to maintain their ascendancy as they had won it, by the sword. He subjected them to a discipline which for sternness and rigor has no parallel in any age.

The constitution which he established for the state provided that the monarchy should still be double, but limited the power of the two kings to presiding over the senate, voting by proxy, and delivering the casting vote where the senate was equally divided. The senate consisted of thirty members, including the two kings. It was called the *Gerusia*, or "Council of Elders." Its members were not less than sixty years old, and were elected for life. They had some slight share in the general administration of the state, and discussed and prepared all the measures which were to be brought before the popular assembly. They were judges in all criminal cases affecting the life of a Spartan citizen, and were bound in their proceedings by no written law. The popular assembly had the power of electing the senate, of passing laws, and determining upon war and peace. It would seem that these powers were merely nominal, and that this assembly was summoned simply to ratify the measures already decided upon. No such open discussion and criticism of public measures as prevailed in Athens was known in Sparta. Certain officers, called *ephors*, were appointed annually from the general body of Spartan citizens, whose business it was to watch over the Lysurgian constitution and punish violations of it. In course of time the political power was centred in their hands, they became the real rulers of the state, and their orders were submissively obeyed by all classes of Spartans. They exercised their despotic powers in the most arbitrary manner, and without restraint. Thus the Spartan government was really a close oligarchy, in which the kings and senate, as well as the people, were subject to the unrestrained and irresponsible authority of the five *ephors*.

But while providing for the state, the legislation of Lysurgus looked principally to the discipline of the citizen. Every child born in Sparta was examined in public, and if found weakly or deformed, was exposed to perish on Mount Taygetus. At the age of seven he was taken from his mother's care, and his education and training were begun under the supervision of officers appointed by the state. He was trained in all the gymnastic exercises, for the purpose of giving strength and activity to his body, and was drilled in all the manoeuvres required of the Spartan troops in the field. He was also required to engage in hunting, and to endure fatigue and hardship without repining. His fortitude was further tested by a cruel scourging in presence of the whole city at the altar of *Artemis* (*Diana*), and many youths died under the lash without complaining. He was required to wear the same garment winter and summer, and to bear hunger, thirst, heat and cold. He took his meals at the *syssitia*, or public table, was allowed only the plainest and scantiest fare, and slept with his comrades in the public dormitories. After a certain age, he was allowed no food save what he could steal without detection. If caught in the theft, he was severely punished. Letters and music also constituted a part of the boy's education, but they were made subordinate to his physical training. He was taught to play on the lyre and to sing, but his songs were either martial lyrics or hymns to the gods. Literature and philosophy were despised in Sparta. The Spartans were taught to express themselves with a sententious brevity; long speeches were their abhorrence.

Upon arriving at man's estate, the Spartan enjoyed but a slight release from his severe discipline. The men ate at the public messes, and slept in the public barracks. At the age of thirty they were permitted to marry, and were punished if they remained unmarried. They had no private life, however. No man under the age of sixty was permitted to reside or take his meals with his wife. The greater part of his time was spent in military and gymnastic exercises, and in hunting. At the age of sixty the state relaxed its hold upon the Spartan, who was thenceforth permitted to enjoy the pleasures of his own home.

Girls were also rigorously trained in athletic exercises. They were viewed as a part of the state whose duty it was to give

to Sparta vigorous sons. At the age of twenty the Spartan women usually married, and the wife, although enjoying but little of her husband's society, was treated by him with great respect, and was allowed greater freedom than was permitted in the other Grecian states. She was trained to take a deep and abiding interest in the honor and welfare of her country, and the high spirit of the Spartan women constituted one of the chief incentives of the men to heroic actions. Cowardice met the certain contempt of the women, and gallant conduct was rewarded with their warmest praise. "Return either with your shield, or upon it," was their exhortation to their sons when going to battle. The death of a husband or son in battle was an occasion of thanks to the gods.

Lycurgus is credited by some writers



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with a redivision of the lands of the country; but the most reliable authorities doubt this. He is said to have banished all gold and silver money from Sparta, and to have substituted for it an unwieldy iron currency, to prevent the love of gain from acquiring too great an influence upon the Spartans. This may also be doubted, as silver money was not coined in Greece until the time of Pheidon of Argos, in the next century. Gold money was first coined in Asia, but was scarcely known in Greece even as late as the Peloponnesian war. All luxury was forbidden by Lycurgus, and the plainest and severest mode of life was required of all. Strangers were not allowed to reside in Sparta without the leave of the magistrates, nor were its citizens allowed to go abroad without a similar permission.

The legislation of Lycurgus having been finally adopted by the Spartans, the lawgiver resolved to sacrifice himself for the

welfare of his country. Having obtained from the people of Sparta a solemn oath to make no changes in his laws until his return, he quitted Sparta forever. He went first to Delphi, where he obtained an oracle from the god, sanctioning all he had done and promising prosperity to Sparta as long as his laws were obeyed. He then departed to some unknown region and was never heard of again. The Spartans, true to their oath, remained faithful to his laws. The results of this system were soon apparent. The Spartans became a body of well-trained and well-disciplined professional soldiers, at a time when scarcely a Grecian state understood the value of, or practised military discipline or training of any kind. Hence they were irresistible in war, and Sparta rapidly conquered the neighboring states, and made herself supreme in the Peloponnesus.

Towards the close of the century Amyclæ fell, and the Spartans became masters of the entire valley of the Eurotas. The Achæans submitted or fled to Italy.

The ninth century before Christ is illustrious in Grecian history as the age of the poet Homer. Various dates are assigned to him, but it would seem that he flourished about B. C. 850. No less than seven cities claim the honor of being his birth-place. Modern authorities regard him as a native of Smyrna, in Asia Minor. He was thus

an Asiatic Greek. His *Iliad* and *Odyssey* were the great national poems of Greece, and were sung or recited at the festivals and in the public assemblies of every Grecian state, and related by every Grecian fireside. They brought into especial prominence the unity of the Hellenic race, and constituted one of the strongest bonds that united its various members.

Argos continued to be the principal state of the Peloponnesus during the eighth century before the Christian era. About B. C. 780, Pheidon, the greatest of its monarchs, came to the throne. In the preceding reigns the royal authority had been considerably weakened, and the government had become in reality a republic, though a monarchy in form. Pheidon was "a great man in every way;" under him the lost powers of the crown were re-established, and Argos became more powerful than ever in the Peloponnesus. In his reign Crete, Rhodes,

Cos, Cnidus, and Halicarnassus were colonized by the Argives. He died about B. C. 744, and Argos rapidly declined in power. The government relapsed into the state in which Pheidon had found it, and the history of the country soon became insignificant.

In Sparta the effects of the Lyeurgean system were even more manifest than in the past century. Sparta, now a compact and organized state, spreading over the whole of Laconia, and possessing the only thoroughly disciplined army in Greece, began to quarrel with her neighbors for the deliberate purpose, it would seem, of extending her domain. The conquest of the valley of the Eurotas was followed by wars with Arcadia and Argos, in each of which Sparta gained some advantage. Argos lost all her territory south of Cynuria. Encouraged by these successes, Sparta began a series of aggressions upon the adjoining state of Messenia, prompted evidently in part by a desire for more territory, and in part by a dislike of the liberal policy which the Dorian conquerors of Messenia had adopted towards their Achean subjects. Hostilities soon followed, and the struggle known as the *First Messenian War* began, B. C. 743. Sparta had but a single ally in this war, Corinth; while on the side of Messenia were ranged Argos, Arcadia and Sicyon. The war lasted upwards of nineteen years, being prolonged by the long defence of Ithomé. In the struggle the resources and spirits of the Messenians were gradually exhausted, and in the twentieth year Sparta compelled the evacuation of Ithomé, and completed the conquest of the country. Many of the inhabitants sought refuge in Argolis and Arcadia. Those who remained were reduced by the Spartans to the condition of Helots. Ithomé was razed to the ground. Sparta ruled her conquest with a strong hand, and for thirty-nine years the Messenians endured a severe oppression.

The eighth century before Christ is noted in Grecian history as the era of the Olympiads, or the revival of the Olympian games, which had been instituted in Greece during the Heroic Age. These games were celebrated in the sacred territory of Elis, at Olympia, on the banks of the Alphæus, and were in honor of the Olympian Jove and of Hercules. They had been much neglected during the period of change and conquest which succeeded the Heroic Age, but were revived, B. C. 776, by Iphitus, King of Elis, it is said; though some writers place the

date of Iphitus a century earlier. At a later period the Greeks began to reckon time from these games, and regarded those of 776 as the first Olympiad. The games were celebrated at the end of every four years, and the interval which elapsed between each celebration was called an Olympiad. The celebration of these games was continued as late as A. D. 394, when they were abolished by the Emperor Theodosius. The management of the festival was confided to the Eleans, who chose several of their own number to preside over the sports as judges. These judges were called Hellenodicæ. At first the festival was confined to a single day, but at length the sports became so numerous that it was extended through five days. The original sports consisted of foot-races in the stadium; but to these were subsequently added various trials of strength and skill, such as boxing, wrestling, the Pancratium, or boxing and wrestling combined, and the Pentathlum, or a peculiar combination of jumping; running, pitching the quoit, hurling the javelin, and wrestling. Horse races and chariot races were also included in the sports, but no combats with weapons were allowed under any circumstances. During the month in which the games were celebrated, war was discontinued throughout Greece, except against a foreign invader. No armed troops were allowed to enter the limits of Elis, as such an act was sacrilege. The only prize given to the victor was a garland of wild olive, but this was considered the proudest distinction in Greece. The conqueror was regarded as the most famous person of the Hellenic race for that Olympiad, and his statue was set up in the sacred grove of Jove at Olympia. On his return home he was received with the highest honors, and was conducted into his native city by a triumphal procession through a breach made in the wall for that purpose, in token that the honored city put its trust in such heroic sons rather than in stone walls. His praise was sung by the poets, and he had a right to the front seat in all the public assemblies. He was usually released from the payment of taxes. In Athens the winner of the Olympian crown received a prize of 500 drachmas, and a right to a place at the table of the magistrates in the Prytanæum, or town hall. In Sparta he had the right to fight by the side of the king in battle. The games were open to every Greek, without distinction of rank or wealth. All others

were rigidly excluded. They were attended by vast throngs from every part of Greece; for, besides those who were drawn by private interest, or by curiosity, the merchant had an opportunity of selling his wares, the poets of chaunting their lays, and the philosophers of explaining their theories to all Greece.

The First Olympiad was B. C. 776-772. From this the Greeks dated their chronology to the latest period of their existence.

CHAPTER III.

FROM THE FIRST OLYMPIAD TO THE PERSIAN WARS.

The Second Messenian War—Exploits of Aristomenes—Destruction of the Messenian State—Character of the Athenian Government—The Power of the State in the Hands of the Nobles—Code of Draco—Cylon Attempts to Seize the Government—The Sacrilege of Megacles—Expulsion of the Alcmeonide—Sparta Conquers Tegea—Becomes Supreme in the Peloponnesus—Assumes the Right to Interfere in the Affairs of the Greek States—The Plague at Athens—The Purification of Epimenides—Political Troubles at Athens—The Laws of Solon—The Seven Wise Men of Greece—Solon's Reforms not altogether Acceptable, but are Adopted by the Athenians—He Secures them a Trial—Quarrels of the Athenian Factions—Death of Solon—Pisistratus Dictator—Is Driven from Athens—Is Recalled—Quarrel with Megacles—Is Driven Away a Second Time and Regains his Throne—His Liberality—Causes Homer's Poems to be Collected—His Death—The Two Tyrants—Reign of Hippias—Is Expelled from Athens—Return of the Alcmeonide—Clisthenes in Power—His Changes in the Athenian System—He Offends the Nobles—Is Expelled and Shortly Recalled—Quarrels between Athens and Sparta—Conquest of Eubœa—Athens Assists the Ionian Greeks in their Revolt against Persia.

THE thirty-nine years following the close of the first Messenian war were passed by the Messenians in a severe slavery. At the end of this time they rose against their Spartan oppressors under the leadership of Aristomenes of Andania. Thus began the *Second Messenian War*, in B. C. 685. The Argives, Arcadians, Sicyonians, and Pisatons came to the aid of the Messenians, while Sparta had, as in the first struggle, only Corinth for an ally. The first battle fought before the arrival of the allies was indecisive, but the exploits of Aristomenes so greatly disheartened the Spartans that they applied to the oracle for a leader, and were commanded to seek one at Athens. The Athenians, fearing to disobey the oracle, sought to evade its command by sending to the Spartans for a leader, a lame schoolmaster named Tyrtaeus. His stirring poems revived the drooping spirits of the Spar-

tans, and encouraged them to make another effort. A great battle was fought, in which the allies on both sides were engaged, at the Boar's Grave in the plain of Stenyclerus. The Spartans were defeated with great loss, and were obliged to withdraw to their own country. In the third year of the war another great battle was fought, in which the Messenians were defeated through the treachery of Aristocrates, the king of the Arcadian Orchomenus. In consequence of this defeat Aristomenes was not able to take the open field again, and threw himself into the mountain fortress of Ira, from which he continued the war for eleven years. The Spartans encamped at the foot of the mountain, but Aristomenes frequently sallied out from his stronghold and ravaged Laconia with fire and sword. His exploits were brilliant. He three times offered to Jove Ithomates, the sacrifice called Hecatompsonsa, which could be offered only by a warrior who had slain a hundred enemies with his own hand. Once he was captured with a number of his companions, carried to Sparta, and thrown with them into a deep pit. His companions were all killed by the fall, but Aristomenes was unhurt. He expected to die of starvation, however, as he saw no means of escape. On the third day he perceived a fox groping about among the bodies in the pit. Seizing the animal by the tail he followed it in its struggle to escape, and was guided by it to an opening in the rock, through which he gained his liberty, and returned to Ira to the surprise of both friends and foes. But, in spite of his valor, the war closed in the triumph of the Spartans. Ira was surprised one night while Aristomenes was disabled by a wound. He cut his way through the enemy with the bravest of his followers, and thus escaped. He took refuge in Arcadia, where he formed a plan for surprising Sparta. This plan was betrayed by Aristocrates, who was stoned by his countrymen for his treachery. Aristomenes then withdrew to Rhodes, where he ended his days. Many of the Messenians abandoned their country and fled to Rheggium in Italy. The others were again reduced by the Spartans to the condition of Helots; the inhabitants of a few towns being admitted to the position of Perieci. The war closed in B. C. 668, and until B. C. 369 Messenia disappears from history, its territory forming during this interval a part of Laconia. The memory of Aristomenes was long cherished by his countrymen, and the legends of later times de-

clared that in the great battle of Leuctra, in which the Lacedæmonian power was finally crushed, his spirit was seen, animating his countrymen and scattering ruin among their foes.

The Messenian war was followed by a war with Arcadia, which had been the ally of Messenia. The result appears to have been the conquest of the southern part of Arcadia. The efforts of the Spartans to reduce Tegea were not so successful. Tegea offered a stout resistance, and for three generations defied the Spartan power.

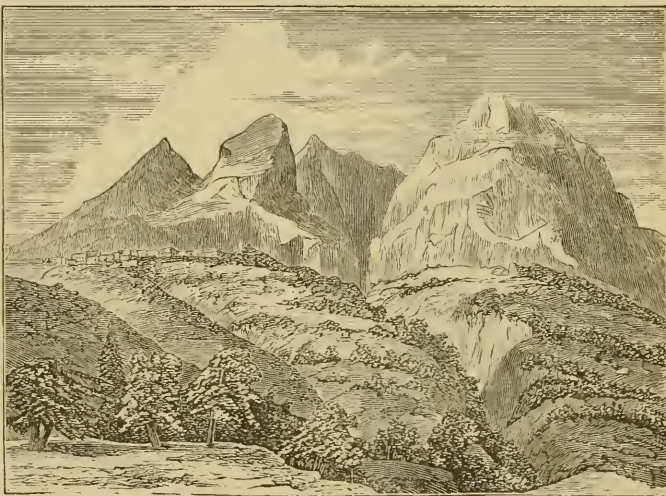
The true history of Athens begins in B. C. 683. In this year the term of the archons was changed from ten years to one year, and the number of archons increased for one to nine. The first of these was called

The Archon, and sometimes the *Archon Eponymus*, because he gave his name to the year. He presided over the body to which he belonged, and was the representative of the dignity of the state. He determined all disputes relating to the family, and was the protector of widows and orphans. The second archon was called *The Basileus*, or *The King*, since he represented the king in his quality of high priest of the nation. He was the judge in all cases respecting religion and homicide. The third archon

was called the *Polemarch*, or *Commander-in-chief*, and until the time of Clisthenes, commanded the army in war. Disputes between citizens and strangers were submitted to him for adjudication. The remaining six archons were called *Thesmothete*, or *Legislators*. Their duties appear to have been entirely judicial, and all matters not especially pertaining to the other three were decided by them. As there was no written code in existence, their decisions had the force of laws. In addition to the archons there was the Council of Areopagus, or Senate, which derived its name from its place of meeting on a rocky eminence, opposite the Acropolis, called the Hill of Ares, or Mars' Hill. It consisted of Eupatrids, or nobles alone, and all the archons became members of it at the close of their year of

office. It was originally called simply the Senate or Council. Later on, Solon instituted another Senate, and the original council took the name of Areopagus, to distinguish it.

The power of the state rested entirely with the nobles, and, as is usually the case with oligarchies, it was used for the oppression of the people. The archons were possessed of arbitrary powers, with no written laws to restrain them, and they naturally promoted the interests of their own order to the injury of the commons. Within sixty years after the establishment of the annual archons, the popular discontent had become so great and the demand for a written code of laws so vehement, that the nobles could no longer afford to resist it, and in B. C. 624



VIEW OF DELPHI AND MOUNT PARNASSUS.

Draco was appointed to prepare a code. It was a very simple one. He prescribed death for every offence, for petty theft as well as for murder. Hence his code was said to be written not in ink, but in blood. It placed the lives of the citizens entirely at the mercy of the nobles, and increased instead of quieting the popular discontent. One of the nobles, named Cylon, endeavored to take advantage of this state of feeling, and make himself tyrant of Athens, B. C. 612. He had won the crown at the Olympic games, and had married the daughter of Theagenes, who had made himself tyrant of Megara. Before making his attempt he consulted the oracle at Delphi, and was told to seize the Acropolis "at the greatest festival of Jove." Cylon, forgetting that the Diasia was the greatest festival

of Jove at Athens, supposed that the oracle referred to the Olympic games, and accordingly at the next celebration of these games, he seized the Acropolis, with a strong force composed partly of his partisans and partly of troops furnished by his father-in-law. He met with no support from the great mass of the people, however, and was blockaded in the Acropolis by the troops of the government. Cylon and his brother succeeded in escaping, but his followers, overcome by hunger, soon ceased their resistance to the attack of the government forces, and took refuge at the altar of Athené, or Minerva. The Archon Megacles, a member of the illustrious family of the Alcæonidæ, found them there, and fearing lest their death should pollute the sanctuary of the



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goddess, prevailed upon them to come forth, promising that their lives should be spared. They had no sooner left the temple, however, than they were set upon and killed; some who sought safety at the altar of the Eumenides or Furies were slain even at that sacred spot.

Thus the victory of the archons was stained with sacrilege, and this gave rise to fresh troubles in the state. The whole family of the Alcæonidæ were regarded as tainted with the sacrilege of Megacles, and the friends of the murdered men demanded vengeance upon the accursed race. The former were possessed of sufficient wealth and influence to maintain their cause against their enemies during the re-

mainder of the century, but at length were banished from Attica by the decree of a council of three hundred members of their own order, B. C. 597.

The war between Sparta and Arcadia was brought to a close about B. C. 554, by the submission of Tegea to the former state, a very insignificant ending to so long a struggle. The Thyreatis was about the same time wrested from Argos. The Spartan influence was now established over at least two-thirds of the Peloponnesus. Spartan policy had until now been confined to the internal affairs of Lacedæmon and to efforts to extend its territory. It now began to take a wider range. In B. C. 555 an embassy arrived at Sparta from Cræsus, King of Lydia, acknowledging Sparta as the leading state of Greece, and asking its alliance in the effort to defeat the Persians. The Spartans accepted the offers of Cræsus and prepared an expedition for his assistance, but before it could be despatched Cyrus had rendered it useless by the conquest of Lydia. This alliance marks the beginning of the foreign policy of Sparta. It was followed by other expeditions beyond her limits. In B. C. 525, Sparta and Corinth sent a combined expedition to the Asiatic coast for the purpose of deposing Polycrates of Samos. It was unsuccessful. Her ambition being aroused by these ventures, Sparta assumed the right (B. C. 510) to interfere in the affairs of the Greek states beyond the limits of the Peloponnesus, as the champion of the oligarchical cause. Her efforts against Attica aroused that remarkable fear and dislike with which the Athenians regarded her for nearly a century and a half.

The expulsion of the Alcæonidæ in B. C. 597 did not quiet the superstitious alarm which had been aroused at Athens by the sacrilege of Megacles, and while the people were agitated by these fears, a plague broke out in the city which was regarded as a divinely sent punishment for this crime. They consulted the Delphic oracle, which advised them to invite the celebrated Cretan prophet and sage Epimenides to visit Athens, and purify their city from pollution and sacrilege. Epimenides was highly esteemed for his knowledge of the healing powers of nature. He visited Athens, performed certain rites and sacrifices by which it was believed he succeeded in propitiating the offended deities. The plague ceased, and the grateful Athenians offered their

deliverer a talent of gold, but he refused it. The only payment he would accept was a branch of the sacred olive tree which grew on the Acropolis. The date of this purification is B. C. 596.

The archons now awoke to a true sense of the dangers which threatened the state. The sacrifices of Epimenides had stayed the plague but they did not touch the popular discontent. Three factions divided the people of Athens—the *Plain*, composed of the wealthy nobles, the *Shore*, consisting of the merchants, and the *Mountain*, in which were ranged the poorer peasantry of Attica. The hatred which arrayed these factions against each other was increased by the fact that many of the third class had been obliged by their necessities to borrow money from the nobles at an exorbitant rate of interest, and being unable to discharge these debts had become their slaves. In this emergency, the archons appealed to Solon, the wisest of their number, to prepare a code of laws for Athens in place of those of Draco.

Solon was a member of the noble order, but his fortune had been so greatly reduced in early life, that he had been obliged to engage in trade to repair it. In his commercial enterprises he had visited successively the principal countries of the ancient world, and had studied their laws and customs. He was thus the best qualified person in Athens for the task assigned him. He traced his descent from the heroic Codrus, and was a cousin of Pisistratus, of whom we shall speak further on. His reputation for learning and mature wisdom was so great that he was always reckoned as one of the Seven Sages or Wise Men of Greece. The other six were Periander, of Corinth, Cleobulus, of Lindus, Bias, of Priene, Pittacus, of Mitylene, Thales, of Miletus, and Chilo, of Sparta. About the year B. C. 600 he had aroused the Athenians to attempt the recovery of the island of Salamis, which had been taken from them by the Megarians, and had commanded the expedition which reconquered the island. In B. C. 594 he was chosen archon, and was invested with absolute powers to introduce a new code of laws. His appointment gave satisfaction to all parties.

The main object of Solon was to abolish the tyrannical oligarchy, and substitute for it a moderate government, in which all classes of citizens should have a voice, the controlling influence, however, being retained to the nobility. To accomplish this,

he divided the people into four classes, according to the amount of their incomes: 1. The Pentacosimedimni, or those who possessed an annual income of 500 medimni of corn. 2. The Hippeis or Knights, whose income was 300 medimni of corn. 3. The Zeugite, whose income was 150 medimni. 4. The Thetes, whose income was less than 150 medimni. The last-named class were given the right of suffrage, but were ineligible to any office. The highest office was the archonship, which was confined to the first or wealthiest class. A new council or senate of 400 members was established, 100 from each of the four old tribes of Athenians. The members were elected annually by the free vote of all the citizens. The especial duties of this body were the preparation of matters of legislation, and the carrying into effect of the resolutions of the public assembly. The public assembly consisted of the meeting of the whole body of citizens. It elected the archons and councillors or senators, and sat in judgment upon them at the expiration of their year of office. The assembly also voted or rejected all the decrees or laws proposed by the senate. Popular law courts for the hearing of appeals from other tribunals were instituted. This measure was really the introduction into Athens of trial by jury. The council of Areopagus was retained. It was charged with a general supervision of the laws, and had power to compel their observance and to prevent or punish any departure from them.

Having thus provided for the state, Solon endeavored to remedy the popular grievances arising mainly from the general poverty and pecuniary distress which prevailed in Athens. Under the rule of the oligarchy the rich had grown richer and the poor poorer. Solon abolished all contracts by which the land or person of a debtor had been given as security, and prohibited all future loans in which the person of the debtor was pledged as security. He thus set free all enslaved debtors, released the lands from the claims and burdens from which they had suffered, and prevented the recurrence of one form of the evil—that of slavery for debt. The arrangement entirely released the poorer classes from their difficulties, but many persons were still left unable to discharge their obligations. To aid these he lowered the standard of the coinage, by which the debtor saved one-fourth in every payment. By these arrangements,

the rich, of course, lost. Solon himself lost as much as five talents. The lawgiver wisely decided that in such an emergency the loss should fall upon the class best able to bear it. As a means of preventing poverty he required that each father should teach his son some useful trade. Where the father failed to do this, the son was freed from the obligation of supporting him in old age.

Solon established a system of rewards and punishments by which he hoped to stimulate the virtue of the citizens and to repress crime. He utterly swept away the bloody code of Draco. Among the rewards which he established for faithful citizenship were crowns conferred in public by the senate or people; public banquets in the town-hall or Prytaneum; places of honor in the theatre and public assembly; and statues in the Agora or in the streets. Foreigners were encouraged to settle in Athens, but were obliged to practise some useful avocation. The council of Areopagus punished severely idleness and profligacy. Theft was punished by compelling the culprit to restore double the value of the property stolen. People were forbidden to speak ill of either the living or the dead.

Solon met the fate of most moderate statesmen. His own order accused him of having yielded too much, and the other classes complained that he had not granted them enough. He admitted frankly that his laws were not the best that could be devised, but were the best the people would accept. The high esteem in which all parties held him prevented any outbreak for a while. At length, worn out by perpetual complaints and questions, he obtained from the Athenians an oath to respect his constitution for ten years, and then departed into foreign lands, B. C. 570.

Returning to Athens in B. C. 560, he found the state once more torn by contending factions. The *Plain*, led by Lycurgus, the *Shore*, by Megacles, and the *Mountain*, by Pisistratus, a cousin of Solon, had resumed their old hostility. Of the three leaders the last was the favorite, because of his personal beauty, his military prowess, and his generosity and eloquence. He was, however, as Solon clearly saw, a man of unbounded ambition, and was resolved upon becoming master of Athens. In this he succeeded, and having secured the triumph of the Mountain over the other factions, he used this success to make himself

Dictator, or, as the Greeks called it, Tyrant. He seized the supreme power B. C. 560. Soon after this, Solon, who had vainly opposed this action of his kinsman, died. According to his will, his ashes were scattered around the island of Salamis, which he had saved to Athens.

For the first six years after his accession Pisistratus faithfully observed the laws of Solon. In B. C. 554 he was driven from the city by a combination of the two factions of the Plain and the Shore. These factions quarrelled a few years later, and Megacles, the leader of the Shore, invited Pisistratus back to his sovereignty on condition that the latter should marry his daughter. The offer was accepted, and Pisistratus regained his throne B. C. 548. He married the daughter of Megacles, according to the agreement, but as he had grown children by a former marriage, and did not care to connect his blood with a family which was regarded as accursed on account of Cylon's sacrilege, he did not treat her as his wife. Megacles, incensed at this, renewed his alliance with Lycurgus, the leader of the Plain, and Pisistratus was again driven from Athens, B. C. 547. He now passed ten years in exile, occupying this time in raising troops and money in different parts of Greece. In B. C. 537 he landed at Marathon with a strong army, and, being joined by many of his friends, advanced upon Athens, defeated his enemies, and made himself once more master of the city. He reigned for ten years more, administering the laws of Solon with impartial justice, and the people forgot their lost liberties in the fairness with which he treated them. He threw open his library and beautiful gardens on the Ilissus to the people. He caused the poems of Homer, which had existed until now in a fragmentary form, to be collected and arranged in proper order, that they might be chanted by the rhapsodists at the Greater Panathenæa, or the twelve days' festival in honor of Athené, the guardian of Athens. His reign fully justified the opinion of Solon that he was the best of tyrants, whose sole vice was ambition. He died in B. C. 527.

Pisistratus was succeeded by his sons, Hippias and Hipparchus, who are usually known as the Two Tyrants. They reigned peaceably for fourteen years, pursuing the plan of government followed by their father. Although they reduced the land tax from one-tenth to one-twentieth, Athens

grew so rapidly in prosperity that their reign was regarded as one of the happiest periods of Athenian history.

In B. C. 514 a change took place. A citizen of Athens, named Harmodius, having given offence to Hippias, the tyrant avenged himself by putting a public affront upon his sister. Harmodius, aided by his intimate friend, Aristogiton, organized a conspiracy to kill the two tyrants. The conspiracy resulted in the murder of Hipparchus. Hippias saved himself by his presence of mind, but from that time his character changed. Suspecting every one of being an enemy, he put to death large numbers of citizens, and raised enormous sums by excessive taxation. The people became so bitterly hostile to him that he himself felt that his downfall was but a question of time. In order to secure a place of refuge in such an event, he began to cultivate friendly relations with the Persians.

The Alcæonidæ, who had lived in exile ever since the third and final restoration of Pisistratus, now invaded Attica in the hope of driving out the tyrant; but were defeated by Hippias. Clisthenes, the leader of the family, by bribing the Delphians by the gift of a magnificent temple in place of the ancient edifice, which had been previously destroyed by fire, obtained an oracle commanding the Spartans to assist in the deliverance of Athens. The result was the invasion of Attica by the Spartans. It was unsuccessful. A second invasion resulted in the capture of Athens and the perpetual banishment of Hippias and all his kin, B. C. 510.

Clisthenes, now the head of the state, allied himself with the popular party. He divided the people into ten tribes, which he subdivided into demes or districts, each of which was given its own magistrate and popular assembly. All the free inhabitants of Attica were admitted to the privileges of citizens, and the senate was increased to 500 members, or fifty from each tribe. As a precaution against the usurpation of power by one man, Clisthenes introduced the custom of *ostracism*. By this measure any citizen could be banished without being brought to trial or allowed a defence. If the senate and assembly decided that such a measure was necessary, each citizen wrote upon a tile or oyster shell the name of the person whom he wished banished. If this name was found upon six thousand ballots,

the person was compelled to leave Athens within ten days. The term of banishment was fixed at ten years, but was subsequently reduced to five.

The measures of Clisthenes gave great offence to the nobles, and their leader, Isagoras, called upon the Spartans to intervene once more in the affairs of Athens and drive out the Alcæonidæ, which was done. Isagoras then proceeded, with the aid of the Spartan King Cleomenes, to banish seven hundred families, to dissolve the senate, and to inaugurate other revolutionary changes. The people rose in arms, besieged Isagoras and the Spartans in the citadel, and allowed them to surrender only on condition of quitting the country. They withdrew, and Clisthenes was recalled and his institutions restored.

Meanwhile Cleomenes, the Spartan king, had been collecting a great army in the Peloponnesus, and had formed an alliance with the Thebans and the Chalcidians of Eubœa, for the purpose of reducing Athens and compelling her to submit to Isagoras as tyrant. The Athenians, alarmed by the power of their enemies, sought aid from Persia. The Persians agreed to assist them on condition of their becoming tributary, but the condition was rejected with indignation, and Athens prepared to meet the storm alone. Meanwhile the allied army had entered Attica. Until now, Cleomenes had concealed from his Peloponnesian allies the real object of the invasion. Becoming aware of it, they refused to take part in crushing the liberties of Athens, and obliged the Spartan king to abandon the attempt and return home. Freed from this danger, the Athenians advanced against the Thebans, defeated them, and then, crossing over to Eubœa, inflicted a severe chastisement upon the Chalcidians. They took formal possession of the island and distributed the estates of the wealthy Chalcidian land-owners among 4,000 of their own citizens, who settled in Eubœa under the name of Cleruchi, or "lot-holders."

Sparta now endeavored to inaugurate another war against Athens, this time for the purpose of forcing her to accept the rule of Hippias once more. The Peloponnesian states refused to take part in the attempt, and Sparta was obliged to relinquish her design. Hippias, now an aged man, had lent himself to the Spartan scheme. Upon its failure he returned to the Persian court, where he busied himself

in seeking to induce Darius to replace him on his throne.

Athens now entered upon a great career. Proud of her successes, and conscious of her strength at home, she ventured to assist the Ionian Greeks in their revolt against Persia. She did not support them very heartily, however, but withdrew from the league upon the first reverses of the Ionians. At home her policy was more successful. The institutions of Clisthenes developed among the citizens a personal interest in public affairs and an ardent patriotism which sustained them in the ordeal of the wars with Persia which marked the following century.

CHAPTER IV.

THE PERSIAN WARS.

Greece Incurs the Wrath of Persia—Efforts to Bring About a Union of the Greek States for their Common Defence—Expedition of Mardonius—Its Failure—Darius Demands the Submission of the Greek States—Datis Invades Greece—Eretria Taken by the Persians—The Persians Land at Marathon—Miltiades in Command of the Greeks—The Battle of Marathon—Importance of the Victory—Datis Attempts to Surprise Athens—Fails—Sails for Asia—Subsequent Career of Miltiades—Banishment of Aristides—Themistocles Supreme at Athens—War with Ægina—Foresight of Themistocles—He Induces the Athenians to Provide a Navy—Character of Themistocles—Xerxes Invades Greece—Battle of Thermopylæ—Athens Deserted by its Citizens—Occupied by the Persians—They Burn the City—Battle of Salamis—Victory of the Greeks—Xerxes Abandons the Attempt to Conquer Greece—Returns to Asia—Mardonius Renews the Attempt to Conquer Greece—Battle of Platea—Destruction of the Persian Army—Naval Victory of Mycælé—Other Successes of the Greeks.

THE interference of the European Greeks in the Ionian revolt drew upon them the wrath of Darius, King of Persia, and made it evident to the Greek leaders that their country would be the next object of the great king's enterprise and vengeance. It was clearly understood by them that the Persians would not rest satisfied with the conquest of the offending states of Athens and Eretria, but would seek to bring all Greece under their sway. The danger was common to the whole of Hellas, and efforts were made to bring about a union of all the Greek states for the common defence. Sparta being the most important military state, the leadership was conceded to her. This union was not accomplished, however, until the war had actually broken out. We shall see in the course of this narrative

that the tendency to confederacies under the leadership of a certain state continued to exist among the Greeks long after the danger which gave rise to it had passed by. From this time we shall find a certain degree of unity in the affairs of Greece, which the earlier history of that country does not possess.

Darius had not forgotten his vow to take vengeance upon the Greeks, and in B. C. 492 despatched his son-in-law, Mardonius, with a powerful fleet and army to Greece, with orders to bring to Persia those Athenians and Eretrians who had dared to defy the great king. Mardonius crossed the Hellespont with his army and marched through Thrace. He encountered a serious resistance at the hands of the Brygians, a native tribe of that region, and although he reduced them to submission, his army was too greatly weakened to permit him to continue his march upon Greece. His fleet was overtaken about the same time by a fearful hurricane, and was dashed against the rocky promontory of Mount Athos. A number of vessels were destroyed, and 20,000 men perished in this storm. Mardonius, thoroughly disheartened, retreated into Asia, and the expedition ended in failure.

This failure, however, did not shake the resolution of Darius; it only made him the more determined. He sent heralds to most of the Grecian states, demanding of them earth and water as the symbols of submission. The majority of the Greek states, terrified by the power of the great king, complied with his demand; but at Athens the heralds were thrown into a deep pit by the indignant citizens, while the Spartans cast them into a well and bade them get earth and water from thence.

In B. C. 490 Darius despatched a strong army and a fleet of 600 galleys and many transports, under Datis, a Mede, to conquer Greece and especially to destroy Athens and Eretria, in the island Eubœa, and enslave their inhabitants. Datis sailed directly across the Ægean, reducing the Cyclades on the way, and reaching Eubœa, took Eretria after a siege of six days, through the treachery of two members of the aristocratic party. The city was sacked and burned, and its inhabitants placed in chains on board the Persian ships. Datis then crossed the Euripus, and landed at Marathon, in Attica, to take vengeance upon Athens.

The Athenians had by great exertions assembled a force under Miltiades, Themistocles, Aristides, and other generals. Of these Miltiades was the ablest commander, and had served under Darius while prince of the Chersonesus. A swift courier was sent to Sparta to announce the landing of the Persians. The Spartans promised aid, but with characteristic selfishness delayed it.

The Athenians assembled their forces on the heights overlooking the plain of Marathon, in which the immense host of the Persians was encamped. Their leaders were divided, some believing it best to give instant battle, others preferring to await the arrival of the promised aid from Sparta. The arguments of Miltiades at length prevailed, and it was resolved to attack the enemy immediately. In order that the army might have but a single leader, each of the generals gave up his day of command to Miltiades. The opportune arrival of 1,000 heavy-armed troops—the entire fighting population of the little town of Plataea, in Boeotia—who had come to share the fate of their Athenian friends through gratitude for a past kindness, contributed greatly to arouse the hopes of the Athenians. The odds were fearful, however. The Greeks numbered but 10,000 heavy-armed men and a few lightly-armed attendants and slaves. The Persians were 110,000 strong at the lowest estimate. Miltiades, undismayed by this disparity of numbers, made a furious attack upon the Persians, routed them, and drove them to their ships with a loss of 6,400 men. Only 192 Greeks fell. The tyrant Hippias is said to have been slain in the battle. Datis now stood out to sea, and by doubling the promontory of Sunium, sought to surprise Athens during the absence of its defenders. Miltiades, divining his intention, reached Athens by a forced night march in time to make it evident to Datis that his attempt was hopeless. The Persian fleet then sailed for Asia with its Eretrian prisoners.

The battle of Marathon was one of the most important ever won by the Greek arms. It was the first serious check ever received from any quarter by Persia, and taught the Greeks the value of their disciplined valor as opposed to the dense masses of Asia. It gave them a respite in which to prepare for the final struggle for the liberties of their country, and encouraged them to make the effort when the greater trial came upon them.

The victory was hailed with delight by the Athenians. Miltiades was received with the highest honors, and for a while he was the most eminent and beloved citizen of the republic. The Persians had brought with them a block of white marble which they meant to erect as a trophy upon the field of Marathon in honor of the victory they anticipated. It was carved by Phidias into a gigantic figure of Nemesis. The brazen weapons and shields of the Persians were cast into a colossal statue of Athéné Promachos, which was set up in the Acropolis, and could be seen from the sea far beyond the promontory of Sunium. The 192 heroes who fell in the battle were buried in the field, and a mound or tumulus was raised over them.



GREEK SHIELD.

Miltiades would have been fortunate had he died on the field of his glory. He now tarnished his fairly-won fame by a gross abuse of the confidence of the citizens, with which his career came to a melancholy end. He asked for a fleet of seventy ships and a large supply of money, promising the Athenians to secure them important additions to their possessions, but without telling them the object of the expedition. So great was the public confidence in his integrity that his request was unhesitatingly granted. He used the expedition to wreak his private vengeance upon the island of Paros, which had offended him. Paros resisted his efforts, and he received a dangerous wound in his attempt to take the city. Disheartened, he raised the siege and returned to Athens in disgrace. He was accused by Xanthippus, the leader of the aristocracy, of having de-

ceived the people, and was brought to trial. Being unable to walk, he was borne into the presence of his judges on his couch. He disdained to make any defence but the story of his services. Though he had merited death according to the laws, the people refused to put to death the victor of Marathon. He was fined in the sum of fifty talents, probably the cost of the expedition. He was unable to raise the fine at once—it was subsequently paid by his son Cimon—and died soon afterwards from the effect of his wound.

The death of Miltiades left Aristides the leading citizen of Athens. Though an aristocrat by birth, he was ardently devoted to the interests of the people, and his stern integrity won him the surname of "the just." His chief rival was Themistocles, one of the ablest and most ambitious of the Greeks. He succeeded at length in procuring the ostracism of Aristides—a mere partisan measure, for the Athenians could not lay to the charge of Aristides any act which deserved such a punishment.

Themistocles was now supreme in Athens, without a rival. He was a man of vast abilities, and his acute mind conceived a plan for preparing Athens to meet the supreme effort which he believed Persia would yet make for the conquest of Greece. Since the victory at Marathon war had been going on between Athens and Ægina, the quarrel having grown out of the disputes connected with the Persian invasion and the hatred which had always existed between the two states. In the end this war proved the greatest blessing that could have befallen the republic. Ægina was at this time the strongest naval power of Greece. Athens, on the contrary, had no navy. Themistocles, appreciating the importance of a powerful fleet in the approaching conflict with Persia, determined to make the Æginetan war the occasion of providing such a fleet for Athens. Had he exposed his real design he would have been laughed at, for few of his countrymen comprehended the intentions of Persia. He therefore appealed to the Athenians to construct a fleet which should surpass that of Ægina, and to apply to this purpose the revenues arising from the silver mines at Laurium. His advice was acted upon and a fleet of 200 ships of war was ordered to be built, and a decree was passed for the construction of twenty new ships every year. Thus the foresight and statesmanship of Themistocles

made it possible for the great victory of Salamis to be won. Had the integrity of Themistocles been equal to his ability, his would have been one of the noblest names of Hellas. In the sagacity with which he divined the plans of his antagonists, the unerring genius with which he seized upon the proper course of action in the most difficult emergencies, and the rapid and tireless energy with which he put his plans into execution, Themistocles ranks with the greatest statesmen the world has ever known.

The wisdom of Themistocles was vindicated by the extensive preparations made by Xerxes for the invasion of Greece. These preparations soon became known in Greece, and efforts were begun by Athens and Sparta to unite all the Greek states for their common defence. The most important of these was the assembling of a congress of the Greek states at the Isthmus of Corinth, at the call of Athens and Sparta. Though a number of the states refused to take part in it through fear of Persia—preferring the loss of their liberties to the sacrifices demanded of them by the approaching war—the congress was, in the main, successful. Measures were taken for a vigorous defence, and the military leadership was conceded to Sparta.

The preparations of Xerxes, the son and successor of Darius, for the invasion of Greece, have already been related in our account of the history of Persia. In the spring of B. C. 480 he entered Greece at the head of a vast army, followed closely along the shore by his superb fleet. He advanced through Thrace and Macedonia into Thessaly. The Greeks made no attempt to hold Thessaly, but stationed a small force, under the Spartan King Leonidas, at the pass of Thermopylæ, the key to central Greece, to hold it until their main army could be assembled, while a strong detachment of the allied fleet was stationed at Artemesium to hold the narrow strait and prevent the enemy from landing troops at the southern end of the pass. The force of Leonidas consisted of about 7,000 men, of whom 300 were Spartans, 3,000 heavy armed troops from the other Peloponnesian states, 700 Thespians, 400 Thebans whom Leonidas had obliged Thebes to furnish, 1,000 Phocians, and a strong body of Opuntian Locrians. Upon reaching the Thermopylæ Leonidas learned for the first time that there was a path leading over the summit of the moun-

tain by which the pass could be turned. At their own request, he stationed the Phocians on the mountain to hold this pass.

Xerxes waited four days for the Grecian forces to retire from the pass, refusing to believe that they would venture to resist him. On the fifth day he moved forward a body of picked Median troops to storm the pass. They were repulsed, and the Immortals were sent to renew the effort, but with no better success. The attack was resumed the next day, with the same result. A Malian, named Ephialtes, now betrayed to the Persian king the secret of the path over the mountain. Waiting until night, Xerxes sent the Immortals across the mountain by this path, guided by the traitor, to turn the position of the Greeks, and assail their rear while he renewed the attack in front. They set off at nightfall, and by daybreak the next morning reached the position of the Phocians, who, instead of disputing the path, retreated to the summit of the mountain. The Persians paid no further attention to them, but began their descent of the southern side of the mountain.

Leonidas was promptly informed of the danger which threatened him, and summoned a council of war. The council decided that as the pass had been turned, the army should fall back before the Immortals cut off its retreat, as their lives were valuable for the future defence of Greece. Leonidas gave all who desired to retreat leave to do so. As for himself, he said, he was a Spartan, and the laws of his country required him to conquer or to die at his post. He should therefore remain; and he was the more ready to sell his life as the oracle had declared that either Sparta or its king must fall. The three hundred Spartans refused to abandon their heroic sovereign, and the seven hundred Thebians resolved to share their fate. Leonidas compelled the four hundred Theban hostages to remain.

About noon, feeling sure that the Immortals had reached the rear of the pass, Xerxes made another attempt to storm it. Leonidas had at the first fortified the pass by building a wall across it, but the Greeks now sallied out from behind the wall and attacked the Persians with desperate valor. They inflicted a heavy loss upon them, and so great was the terror which this handful of heroes inspired, that it was only by a vigorous use of the lash that the Persians could be driven to face them. As long as the Greeks kept their ranks unbroken they

were invincible. At last, however, their spears were broken, and they had only their swords. Then the Persians began to gain ground. Leonidas was slain, and the Persians made four distinct attempts to gain possession of his body. Each time they were beaten back by the Greeks with great loss. The Immortals now came up from the other end of the pass. The Thebians begged for quarter, declaring that they had been forced into the conflict against their will, and their lives were spared. The surviving Spartans and Thebians, scorning to yield, were slain. Only one man escaped to Sparta to tell the tale, and was there received with contempt, because he had not shared the fate of his comrades. When the freedom of Greece had been won, a marble lion was set up in the pass, in honor of Leonidas. Two monuments were erected to commemorate the heroism of his followers. On the first was an inscription stating that "four thousand Peloponnesians had there fought with three hundred myriads of their



COIN OF CYPRUS

foes." The second was in memory of the three hundred Spartans, and bore this inscription: "Go, stranger, and tell the Spartans that we obeyed the laws, and lie here!"

In the meantime the fleets had not been idle. Several engagements had taken place, in which the Greeks had been generally successful, and had displayed a boldness and skill which astounded the Persians. The latter were not a little disheartened by the loss of four hundred of their ships of war, and a large number of transports laden with stores and treasures, which were dashed ashore on the rocks by a hurricane, which raged furiously for three days and nights. A second tempest did considerable damage to the main body of the Persian fleet, and utterly destroyed a detachment of two hundred ships which had been sent around Eubœa to cut off the retreat of the Greek squadron from Artemesium. The loss of Thermopylæ now obliged the Greek vessels to retire to the southward. This was done at once, and,

doubling the promontory of Sunium, the fleet cast anchor in the bay of Salamis. The Persian army at once advanced into central Greece, and was followed by its fleet, which sailed down the Euripus.

But for the courage and resolution of Themistocles, Greece would now have been lost. The Spartans refused to send any land force to the assistance of Athens, and applied their army to the task of fortifying the Isthmus of Corinth for the protection of their own territories. It was with the greatest difficulty that Themistocles prevailed upon the Spartan admiral to remain at Salamis until measures could be taken for the safety of the Athenians. Seeing that Athens could not be held against Xerxes, he exerted himself to remove the inhabitants in order to save them from captivity. The Athenians were unwilling to leave their beloved city, and Themistocles was obliged to resort to a stratagem to secure their removal. The old men and the women and children were sent to Salamis, Ægina, and Trœzene; but all the able-bodied men went on board the fleet. The Persians, upon reaching Athens, found it a deserted city. A few fanatics, trusting in the protection of Athené, had thrown themselves into the citadel. These were overpowered and put to the sword, and Athens was laid in ashes. At the same time the Persian fleet anchored in the Bay of Phalerum.

A new danger to Greece now arose. The commanders of the fleet, with the exception of Themistocles, resolved to withdraw from Salamis and take position nearer the isthmus in order to coöperate with the land forces in the defence of the Peloponnesus. This movement would have left the wives and families of the Athenians at the mercy of the invaders. Themistocles opposed it with all his energy, both for this reason and because he was convinced that the true policy of the Greeks was to bring on the decisive battle in the narrow strait, where the advantages were all with them. Finding the other commanders bent upon their selfish policy, he resorted to a characteristic stratagem. He sent a message to Xerxes, informing him of the division in the Greek councils, and urged him to attack their fleet at once, and at the same time detained the allies at Salamis by his threats and arguments until the Persian king could act upon his information. He thus prevented the selfish and suicidal plan of the allies from being acted upon. Xerxes at once resolved

to accept the suggestion of Themistocles, and stationed his fleet on the Attic side of the Strait of Salamis, a movement which rendered the retreat of the Greeks impossible. The Persian ships outnumbered their antagonists three to one, but as soon as the news of their movement was communicated to the Greek commanders, preparations were made for battle. The news was brought by Aristides, who had returned from his exile to share the fate of his countrymen. The next morning the hostile fleets confronted each other, ready for the struggle which was to decide the fate of Greece and of the world.

In the morning a wind usually arose, and caused a heavy swell in the channel. Themistocles succeeded in delaying the attack until this swell had arisen to the great inconvenience of the cumbrous ships of the Persians. The lighter vessels of the Greeks were not affected by it. They dashed at their enemy with ease, drove their brazen prows through their sides, and sunk them. The Athenians were opposed to the Phœnicians, while the Peloponnesians confronted the Ionian allies of the Persians. The battle lasted all day, and towards evening the Persian fleet, defeated and disheartened, abandoned the Straits of Salamis. Two hundred of the enemy's ships were destroyed and sunk by the Greeks, and a large number captured with all their crews. Xerxes had stationed a body of troops on the little island of Psyttaleia to assist such Persian vessels, and destroy such Greek ships as might be driven upon the island. When the defeat of the Persian fleet was complete, Aristides with a body of Athenians crossed to the island and put the Persians to the sword. The Greeks lost forty ships in the naval battle.

The defeat of his fleet utterly disheartened Xerxes, and, as has been related, he at once passed from the lofty heights of self-confidence to the depths of despair. He instantly abandoned the invasion of Greece, and retreated towards the Hellespont, sending the fleet at the same time back to Asia. Mardonius was left to attempt the conquest of Greece the next year.

In the spring of B. C. 479, Mardonius endeavored to detach the Athenians from the Grecian league. Failing in this he invaded Attica. The Athenians a second time took refuge in Salamis, and their deserted city was occupied by the Persians. The Athenians demanded aid of Sparta.

An answer was delayed for ten days. The Athenian envoys, disgusted with the selfish policy of Sparta, now declared that unless aid were immediately forthcoming their countrymen would make terms with Persia, and leave Sparta to her fate. The Ephors now acted with vigor. They sent a force of 45,000 men, of whom 5,000 were Spartans, against the Persians, under their new regent Pausanias. Mardonius at once abandoned Athens, and retreated into Bœotia, where he took position near the city of Plataea. Pausanias, reinforced by the contingents from Athens and the other Greek states, followed him. A decisive battle was fought under the walls of Plataea, in which the Persians and their allies of northern Greece were routed with fearful loss. Mardonius was slain, and but 40,000 men of all his immense army escaped. His camp with all its treasures fell into the hands of the victors. The field of battle was made sacred by the Greeks, and its guardianship was intrusted to the Plateans, to attack whom it was solemnly declared was sacrilege.

On the same day another success crowned the Greek arms. The Persian fleet and a strong land force were defeated by the Greek fleet at Mycalé in Ionia, in Asia Minor.

Greece was now free from danger at the hands of the Persians. The victory of Salamis and the destruction of the army of Mardonius, had so disheartened Xerxes that he thought no more of military glory, but gave himself up to pleasure. His disasters might have been retrieved had he made the effort, but they changed his entire character, and from this time he ceased to be a formidable enemy of the Greeks. The power of the great king in the Mediterranean was so thoroughly destroyed that for twelve years no Persian sail ventured to show itself in those waters. The Greeks were thus at liberty to revenge the injuries their enemies had inflicted upon them. A fleet of fifty ships was fitted out for the purpose of rescuing every Greek city in Europe or Asia from the Persian dominion. Athens furnished the majority of the vessels, but the command was given to the Spartan Pausanias. He drove the Persians out of Cyprus, and then passing through the Hellespont, took Byzantium, and made it his residence for seven years. The Athenians, after a long siege, regained Sestos, the colony which had been founded in the Thracian Chersonese by Miltiades, the uncle of the hero of Marathon.

CHAPTER V.

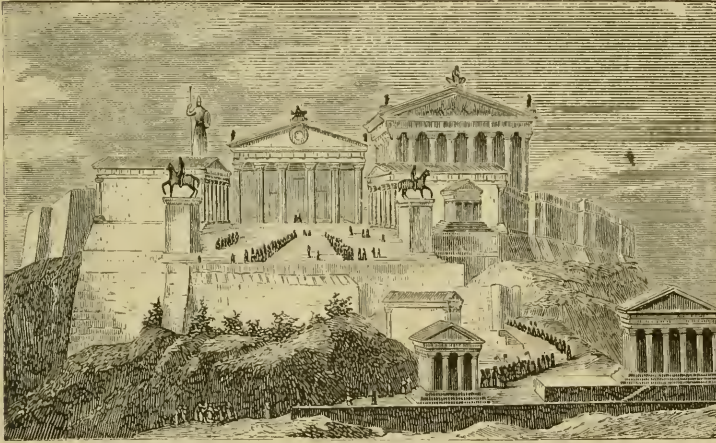
THE SUPREMACY OF ATHENS.

The Persian War really Beneficial to Athens—The City Rebuilt upon a Better Plan—It is Fortified—Jealousy of Sparta—Themistocles Baffles the Spartans—Importance of Athens in Greek Affairs—Pausanias Removed from the Command of the Greek Fleet—An Athenian Admiral Appointed—Formation of the Confederacy of Delos, with Athens at its Head—Seyros made Tributary to Athens—Athens the Leading State of Greece—Treason of Pausanias—His Death—Downfall of Themistocles—Death of Aristides—Cimon—Changes in the Confederacy of Delos—Successes of Cimon—Revolt of the Helots—Sparta asks Aid of Athens—Insults the Athenian Army—Fall of Cimon—Rise of the Democratic Party at Athens—Pericles in Power—His Measures against Sparta—The War with Persia Continued—Victories of Athens over Corinth, Epidaurus, and Ægina—The Long Walls of Athens Constructed—Efforts of Sparta against Athens—Patriotism of Cimon—He is Recalled to Athens—Battle of Cnophyta—Sparta Humbled—Quarrel About the Delphian Oracle—War with Sparta Renewed—Athens Loses Bœotia—Greatness of Athens under Pericles—He Beautifies the City—The Parthenon Built—The Intellectual Supremacy of Athens Established—Disaffection of the Members of the Confederacy of Delos—Rebellion of Samos—It is Crushed.

THE Persian war, though apparently so disastrous to Athens, proved in the end the source of her greatness. The sacrifices which it demanded from them aroused in the Athenians a patriotism, and revealed to them the possession of a power of which they had not been conscious. Themistocles had saved the Athenian people by causing them to abandon their city to its fate and trust to their ships, and the great victory of Salamis and the subsequent successes against Persia had shown him the true policy to be pursued in the future. In order to be a great state Athens must become a great naval power. To this end all classes of the people now devoted themselves.

Returning home from their enforced exile in Salamis, Ægina, and Troezen, the Athenians found their city a heap of ruins. Providing temporary shelter for their families, they began the rebuilding of the city upon a larger and more magnificent scale, and decided to fortify it with a wall. The construction of the wall gave great offence to the allies, who feared any increase in the strength of Athens, and the Æginetans appealed to the Spartans to put a stop to the work. Sparta could not decently undertake such a step by force, but, always jealous of Athens, endeavored to accomplish by craft what she did not venture to attempt

in a more open manner. She found her match in Themistocles, whose adroitness gained a delay for the Athenians which enabled them to carry their walls so far forward that it was no longer possible for Sparta to stop the work without open war. He then boldly defended the course of his countrymen, and Sparta was obliged to sanction the completion of the walls, and to acknowledge herself outwitted. Athens being safe, Themistocles enclosed Piræus and Munychia with a strong wall, and improved and enlarged the harbor that it might serve as a safe and ample shelter for the superb fleet he designed for his country. The work of rebuilding the city was rapidly prosecuted. Themistocles also secured important changes in the constitution by which the humblest citizens were made eligible to the highest honors in the state.



THE ACROPOLIS AT ATHENS, AS IT WAS.

Athens had now grown beyond the insignificant position in which the Persian war had found her, and had fairly entered upon her great career as the leading state of Greece. She had furnished thirty ships to the fleet sent out by the Greek cities to relieve their Asiatic brethren after Plataea and Mycalé. The command of the expedition had been assigned to Pausanias, as has been stated. Elated by his success at Plataea, Pausanias dreamed of becoming a still greater personage, and was willing to sacrifice his country to his ambition. He entered into secret negotiations with Xerxes, and his conduct towards his countrymen was so insolent and overbearing that the Greek commanders became alarmed, and suspecting his true intentions, demanded his recall. Before the arrival of the new Spar-

tan commander, the Ionian Greeks, distrusting Sparta, and feeling that the naval superiority of the Athenians entitled them to the first place in the expedition, requested Aristides and Cimon to assume the chief command of the allied fleet. Their request was at once granted, and when Dorcis, the new Spartan admiral, arrived, he did not venture to interfere with this arrangement.

Nor was this merely a measure which affected the fleet. It was a revolution of the entire Grecian system, and constituted a long step on the part of Athens to the supremacy in Greece. Under the wise guidance of Aristides, who was quick to secure the advantage thus offered, a league was formed in which the Athenians, Ionians, the islands of Rhodes, Cos, Lesbos, and Tenedos, Miletus, the Greek towns of the Chalcidian peninsula and Byzantium,

bound themselves to mutually assist each other in resisting the aggressions of Persia. The league was designed to embrace all who sought in the maritime power of Athens a protection against Persia. The details of the league were arranged by Aristides, who, while he secured the leadership to Athens, gave entire satisfaction to all the other members by his fairness. A tax, called *phoros*, was assessed upon

each member, and officers were appointed to levy and collect it. The treasury and place of meeting of the deputies charged with the direction of the league were located in the sacred island of Delos, from which the union was known as the Confederacy of Delos.

Soon after the formation of this league, Aristides returned to Athens, and was succeeded in the command of the fleet by Cimon. About B. C. 475, Cimon captured the city of Eion, on the Strymon, and about B. C. 470, expelled the inhabitants of the island of Scyros, who had been declared guilty of piracy by the Amphictyonic Council, and colonized it with Athenians, thus gaining an important naval station for Athens, and taking the first decisive step in the brief but brilliant career of

aggrandizement upon which the Athenians now entered.

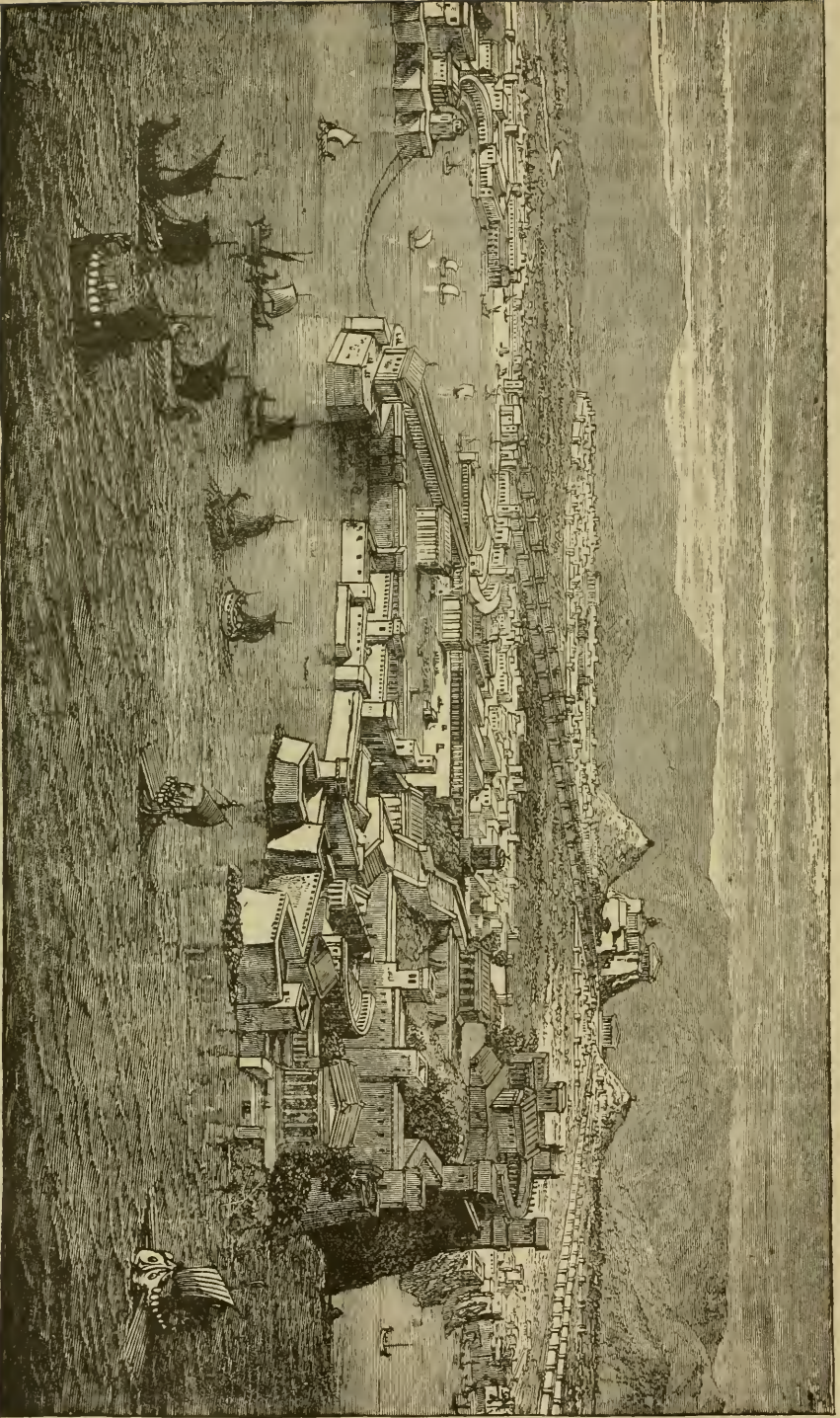
Sparta had bitterly resented the formation of the Confederacy of Delos, which she regarded as an encroachment upon her supremacy, but the dread that Persia might renew her efforts at conquest induced her to allow the Athenians to have their own way for the time. A little later the last vestige of supreme power was lost by the misconduct of her leaders, and was seized by the active and daring Athenians. The genius of Themistocles had raised Athens to a position which entitled her to the first place in Greece, and the wisdom and virtue of Aristides enabled her to gain it without offending her allies at a time when their friendship was all important to her. The influence of Aristides was now stronger in Athens than that of his rival. The utter lack of principle in the character of Themistocles, and the well-grounded belief of the Athenians that he had accepted bribes in his settlement of the affairs of the Greek islands, had greatly weakened their confidence in him. The aristocratic party, led by Cimon, opposed him because of his reforms, which increased the influence of the common people at their expense. When Pausanias was recalled from Byzantium, Themistocles was charged with complicity in his treason, but was triumphantly acquitted. His acquittal, however, gave rise to such intense bitterness of party spirit that he was ostracised. He retired to Argos, indignant at this treatment, which was a sorry return for his great services to the state. Five years later, Pausanias, being detected in his treasonable correspondence with the Persians, fled to the temple of Athené of the Brazen House for refuge. Unable to remove him without incurring the guilt of sacrilege, the ephors blocked up the entrances to the temple and removed the roof, and left him to die of starvation and exposure to the elements. When at the point of death, he was removed from the temple, lest his dead body should pollute the sanctuary. So died the victor of Plataea.

After the death of Pausanias, proofs were discovered among his papers which made it clear that Themistocles, who was undoubtedly an innocent man when first charged with the crime, had become a party to the plot with Persia. A council of the allies, assembled at Sparta, ordered his arrest. He sought safety in flight, and suc-

ceeded, after a series of remarkable adventures, in reaching the Persian court, where he was kindly received. He was assigned a residence at Magnesia, where he died, B. C. 449.

The death of Aristides, in B. C. 468, left Cimon, the leader of the aristocratic party, the most influential man in Athens. He was immensely wealthy, and he used his money freely in beautifying his native city, and in contributing to the expenses of the state. Naxos, the largest of the Cyclades, alarmed by the fact that Athens was using the power and wealth of the Confederacy of Delos for her own aggrandizement, withdrew from the league, and was reduced by Cimon at the head of a confederate fleet, and made tributary to Athens. About the same time the smaller states of the league asked and received permission to make an annual payment of money into the confederate treasury instead of furnishing their quota of ships. Thus they deprived themselves of their only means of resisting Athens, whose navy was maintained at its maximum strength. In the same year Cimon, with a fleet of 300 ships, 200 of which were Athenian, expelled the Persians from several towns in Caria, and Lycia, in Asia Minor, and defeated them by sea and land at the mouth of the Eurymedon, in Pamphylia. Returning home he encountered and destroyed a squadron of eighty ships coming to reinforce the Persian fleet, ignorant of its defeat. These successes entirely broke the Persian power, and drove them from the Mediterranean and the coast of Asia Minor, and were regarded as among the greatest ever won by the Greeks. Cimon, though a political opponent of Themistocles, pursued the domestic and foreign policy of that statesman with vigor. The Athenians now undertook to plant a line of colonies in Thrace. Being opposed by the people of Thasos, who had valuable possessions in Thrace, war ensued between Athens and that island. About B. C. 463, Thasos was subdued, and made tributary to Athens, into whose hands passed also the Thasian fleet and the possessions of that state in Thrace.

The Thasians in their extremity had asked aid of Sparta, which, though an ally of Athens, did not hesitate to prepare secretly to attack the latter. The execution of this design was prevented by the destruction of the city of Sparta and 20,000 of its citizens by a fearful earthquake, in



VIEW OF ATHENS, SHOWING PIRATES AND THE LONG WALLS.

B. C. 464. The Helots took advantage of the misfortunes of their masters to rise in rebellion, and being joined by the Messenians, they fortified themselves in Mount Ithomé, in Messenia, and pressed the Spartans so hard that they were obliged to ask aid of their allies, among others of Athens, whose destruction they were plotting at the moment of their misfortune. The earthquake was but the crowning event of a long series of disasters which had greatly weakened the power and influence of Sparta.

The Spartan appeal was warmly seconded by Cimon and the aristocratic party. The influence of that leader was already on the wane. His Thasian expedition had disappointed his countrymen, who had expected nothing less than the conquest of Thrace or Macedonia. Pericles indeed had charged him with being bribed by the Macedonian king to leave him in peace. His appeal in behalf of Sparta was successful, however, and he was despatched to her aid with a force of 4,000 heavy-armed troops. Conscious of their own treachery towards their ally, the Spartans suspected the fidelity of the Athenians, and took the first opportunity to dismiss them. This they did abruptly, saying they had no further need of their services. At the same time they retained the troops furnished by their other allies. The pretext was that the Athenians, who were noted for their skill in siege operations, had failed to take Ithomé. Cimon returned home not only unsuccessful, but under the cloud of this studied insult which had been put upon his country by the state he had so earnestly sought to serve. His political influence was for the time at an end.

The democratic party now rose into power under the leadership of Pericles. Pericles was of noble birth, his mother being descended from the princes of Sicyon and the Alcæonidæ, while through his father, Xanthippus, he was connected with Pisistratus, whom he is said to have resembled in person. He was grave and reserved in manner, of noble bearing and a strikingly handsome countenance. He kept himself secluded from society, and appeared in public only on occasions of note, wisely considering that such a course would increase, rather than diminish, the interest with which the people regarded him. As a military leader, he was inferior to either Themistocles or Cimon, but his

intellectual gifts were many, and had been carefully trained by constant intercourse with Anaxagoras, Protagoras, Zeno and other philosophers. He was a master of eloquence, which he had carefully studied, and is said to have been the first Athenian to commit his speeches to writing.

He promptly took advantage of the ill success of Cimon at Ithomé to strike a decisive blow at the aristocratic party. He made some important changes in the constitution, which weakened the influence of the aristocracy and increased the power of the commons. As a result of the controversy, Cimon was ostracised, and condemned to a ten years' banishment.

Pericles was thus without a rival at Athens. His policy aimed at securing to Athens the supremacy by land as well as sea, and was thus an advance upon that of Themistocles. Retaining her position as leader in the struggle against Persia, but treating this as a secondary matter, he directed her main efforts to acquiring such authority and influence in central and northern Greece as would make her superior to Sparta as a land power. To accomplish this he cultivated friendly relations and alliances with such of the Peloponnesian states as were jealous of Sparta, and took advantage of the bad feeling caused by the insult offered to Athens by the Lacedæmonians in dismissing her troops, to urge his countrymen to renounce the Spartan alliance. Argos had seized the occasion offered by the troubles of Sparta to conquer Mycenæ, Tiryns, and some neighboring towns, and with this state thus strengthened Athens made an alliance, and, a little later, with Megara. This last alliance gave Athens the control of the passes by which the Peloponnesian army must enter central Greece, and also the control of the Crissæan Gulf. Naturally this step gave serious offence to Sparta. In order to strengthen Megara the Athenians connected it with its port of Nisæa by two parallel lines of walls which they garrisoned with their own troops.

Meanwhile the contest with Persia was continued. The fleet of the Confederacy of Delos watched the Asiatic shore, and about B. C. 460 the revolt of Inarus, in Egypt, gave the Greeks an opportunity of weakening Persia in that quarter by aiding the rebellion of one of her most important provinces. Aid was sent to Egypt; with what result has already been related.

Corinth, Epidaurus, and Ægina, alarmed by the growth of the Athenian power, and the evident subordination of the confederacy to the purposes of Athens, endeavored to put a stop to what they considered a dangerous ambition. The allies were defeated in a naval battle near Ægina. The Æginetans lost the best part of their fleet. On land the Corinthians were decisively defeated, and the power of Athens was strengthened by these successes. Sparta was still engaged in the siege of Ithomé, and though anxiously desiring to see her rival crippled, was obliged to remain a spectator of the contest.

Foreseeing the troubles about to burst upon his country, Pericles now caused the construction of "the Long Walls" by which Athens was united to its ports of Piræus and Phalerum. The wall from Athens to Phalerum was four miles, and that to Piræus four and one-half miles in length. These gigantic works were the wonder of the time, and were the especial pride of the Athenians.

Sparta now resolved to strike a blow at Athens in spite of the Helot war. Under the pretext of assisting the Dorians, whose territory had been invaded by the Phocians, she sent a force of 1,500 heavy-armed Spartan troops and 10,000 allies into Doris. The Phocians at once retired, and the Spartan army began the execution of the real design of the expedition, which was the destruction of the Athenian power in Bœotia. Sparta herself had united in punishing Thebes for her alliance with Persia in the battle of Platæa. The Spartan army now sought to undo this work by rebuilding the walls of Thebes and reducing the Bœotian cities to obedience to her. The aristocratic party in Athens, which had vainly opposed the construction of the Long Walls, now invited the Spartans to invade Attica, put a stop to this work, and destroy the democratic rule. The Spartans accepted the invitation, and took position at Tanagra, on the border of Attica. The Athenian government, suspecting the design, rapidly collected such troops as could be spared from the siege of Ægina, which was still in progress, and marched against the Spartans, B. C. 457. A bloody battle ensued. The Thessalians deserted to the Lacedæmonians in the heat of the battle, and this defection gave them the victory. Their own losses, however, prevented them from invading Attica, and they retired into the Peloponnesus.

Previous to the battle, Cimon, who had been strongly suspected of being engaged in the treasonable plot of his party, hastened to the Athenian camp from his place of exile, and earnestly begged leave to fight against his country's enemies. His request was refused, and he withdrew, but first charged a large body of his most devoted friends, who were in the Athenian ranks, to spare no effort to relieve themselves from the foul suspicion of treachery. They bore themselves so gallantly in the battle that they entirely dispelled the suspicions which had attached to them and to their leader. Upon the return of the army to Athens, Pericles proposed and carried a decree revoking Cimon's banishment.

The next year, B. C. 456, the Athenians marched into Bœotia, and defeating the Bœotians at Œnophyta, revoked all the Spartans had done and re-established their own power, together with a democratic form of government. Phocis and Locris were soon afterwards added to these acquisitions. In B. C. 455 Ægina was reduced and made a tributary ally, and the Long Walls were completed. An Athenian fleet sailed around the Peloponnesus and burned the Lacedæmonian ports of Methoné and Gythium. Ithomé had been evacuated by the Helots and Messenians in the same year, and these were settled by the Athenian admiral in Naupactus, a town of the Ozolian Locrians, near the mouth of the Corinthian Gulf. This expedition also compelled the islands of Zacynthus and Cephalenia to join the Athenian alliance. Athens was now the supreme power in central and northern Greece and in the Mediterranean.

Sparta made no further effort to resist the advance of Athens, but in B. C. 452 concluded a five years' truce with that city. In the same year Cimon sailed to Cyprus to wrest that island from the Persians. He formed the siege of Citium, after sending a part of his fleet to Egypt to assist the revolted King Amyrtæus, who still held out in the Delta; but he died shortly after the siege began. The command now devolved on Anaxicrates, who, being short of provisions, raised the siege of Citium and sailed for Salamis, in the same island, where he defeated and destroyed the Phœnician and Cilician fleet in the service of Persia. This success was followed by peace with Persia, as has been related in the history of that country.

Trouble again arose with Sparta. The

inhabitants of Delphi, of Dorian origin, asserted their right to manage the affairs of their sacred city without the interference of the Phocians, in whose territory their city stood. Sparta intervened in their favor, drove out the Phocians from the city, and restored to the Delphians their former privileges. Delphi declared itself an independent state, and rewarded the Spartans for their assistance by granting them the right of precedence in consulting the oracle. A brazen wolf was erected in the city and inscribed with this decree. The privilege of obtaining the first response from the oracle was of great value, as its moral effect upon the religious Greeks was all-powerful. Athens, which had hitherto enjoyed it, was unwilling to resign it. The Spartans had scarcely left Delphi when Pericles marched into it and restored the temple to the Phocians, who inscribed on the brazen wolf a decree confirming Athens in her ancient privilege.

Assured that Sparta would resent this action and take up their cause, a number of the exiles of Bœotia, who had been driven out upon the re-establishment of the Athenian supremacy in their country, seized Orchomenus, Chæronea, and several unimportant towns in Bœotia. The more hot-headed Athenians clamored for war, but Pericles advised his countrymen to remain quiet for the present, as the season was unfavorable. With a supreme contempt for their enemies, and in disregard of the counsels of Pericles, a thousand young Athenians, under Tolmides, marched into Bœotia. Chæronea was taken and garrisoned by the Athenians, but as the little army was leaving the place it was surprised and cut to pieces by the Bœotians, Tolmides himself being among the slain. The remaining Athenians were made prisoners. In order to secure the return of the captives Athens was obliged to restore the exiles, evacuate Bœotia, and consent to the re-establishment of the oligarchies she had overthrown. The rashness of the Athenians had cost them their supremacy in Bœotia, which, with the exception of Platæa, was now to be counted among their most determined enemies. Phocis and Locris were also lost to Athens, and Eubœa and Megara revolted from her. At the same time the five years' truce between Athens and Sparta expired, and the Spartans prepared to avenge the insult put upon them at Delphi. Pericles had set out upon

an expedition to reduce Eubœa, when he was recalled by the advance of the Spartans, who marched to the neighborhood of Eleusis and threatened Athens. Pericles is said to have saved the capital by bribing the Spartau King Pleistoanax, and Cleandrides, his guardian and counsellor, to evacuate the country. Pericles then resumed his Eubœan expedition, and compelled the submission of the island. The Athenians gained no further successes, however, and, alarmed by the dangers which threatened them, they concluded (B. C. 445) a thirty years' truce with Sparta and her allies, by which they abandoned all their acquisitions in the Peloponnesus and consented that Megara should become an ally of Sparta. Pericles, whose wisdom had been vindicated by the results of the war, was now more than ever trusted by his countrymen.

Under Pericles Athens reached the height of her glory and power. The proudest period of her history may be stated as that which elapsed between the victory of Cœnophyta, B. C. 456, and the defeat at Chæronea, B. C. 447. After the conclusion of the thirty years' truce, Pericles put into execution a policy which made Athens the most illustrious city of Greece. Party disputes almost ceased. The aristocratic party honored him as one of the most famous men their order had ever produced; he won the confidence of the mercantile class by his protection and encouragement of commerce; and the esteem of all classes by the interest which he took in, and the new life which he infused into, their respective callings. He sought to make Athens the most famous and beautiful city in the world, the centre of art and refinement, and the source from which democratic institutions should flow out to all nations. He was liberally aided by the wonderful genius and great liberality of his fellow-citizens, and by the enormous resources at his command. In the brief period which elapsed between the thirty years' truce and the beginning of the Peloponnesian war, Athens became the admiration of the ancient world and the wonder of modern times. The city was adorned with noble public buildings. The magnificent Parthenon, or Temple of Athené, was built on the Acropolis, from the plans of Ictinus and Callicrates. Phidias superintended its erection and adorned it with the most beautiful sculptures and with a colossal statue of Athené, in ivory,

forty-seven feet in height. The Odæum, a theatre designed for musical performances, was built on the southeastern foot of the Acropolis. The reconstruction of the Erechtheum, or the ancient temple of Athené Polias, was begun, but the Peloponnesian war put a stop to the work upon it. The Acropolis was adorned with a magnificent entrance on the western side, called the Propylæa. The city was beautified and the arts flourished. A third wall, parallel to the Long Walls, was built between Athens and Piræus, thus rendering the communication with the port more secure. Pir-

trammels, became more vigorous. This period is adorned with the names of Æschylus, the true father of the Greek tragedy; and Sophocles and Euripides, his worthy successors. Aristophanes made comedy famous at Athens; Thucydides and Xenophon raised history to its true dignity; and Socrates laid the foundations of the purest and loftiest philosophy of Greece. The great works of Phidias, those noble sculptures which are still the models of artists, belong to this period; and Polygnotus, Apollodorus, Zeuxis, and Parrhasius raised the art of painting to a high degree



RUINS OF THE PARTHENON, ATHENS.

æus itself was beautified and improved, and a new dock and arsenal were constructed.

In order to extend the influence and power of Athens a system of colonization was begun in the Thracian Chersonese, in Naxos, Andros, and even upon the shores of the Euxine. Lemnos, Imbros, Seyros, and the northern end of Eubœa were also planted with Athenian settlers.

Under Pericles Athens established her true empire, of which her reverses never deprived her, an empire of taste and genius, which has extended down to the present day. Literature, freed from its ancient

of excellence. The mental activity of this period is simply wonderful.

The members of the Confederacy of Delos had long regarded the course of Athens with dissatisfaction and alarm. That state had used the power and resources of the league to advance her own interests, and had made all its members, save the islands of Chios, Samos, and Lesbos, tributary to her. The revenue of the league was 600 talents annually, and this comprised more than one-half of the total revenue of Athens. The Athenians justified their use of the fund by arguing that whatever strengthened Athens carried out

the object of the league by enabling her to be in readiness to take the field in its defence at any moment. The treasury of the league had been removed from Delos to Athens, and the members felt that they were simply paying tribute to their mistress, although Pericles annually laid aside a reserve fund for the uses of the confederacy, which sum amounted to 6,000 talents, or over \$7,000,000, at the breaking out of the Peloponnesian war.

Samos having become involved in a dispute with the Milesians, the latter referred the matter to the arbitration of Athens. Samos was the largest and most important of the members of the confederacy which were still free, and refused to accept the arbitration. Athens resolved to compel it to do so by force. An expedition of forty ships was sent against the island under command of Pericles, who compelled its submission and established a democratic government in the island, in place of the oligarchical form which had previously existed. Upon his departure the Samnians expelled the government he had established, restored their own system, and, being joined by Byzantium, openly rebelled against Athens, B. C. 440. The revolt was put down after a struggle of nine months, and Samos and Byzantium were severely punished. The victory of Athens increased to a marked degree the hostility with which she was regarded by a large number of the Greek states, and it was clear that the most trifling circumstance would array against her the powerful coalition of which Sparta was the leading spirit.

CHAPTER VI.

THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR.

Coreyra Rebels against Corinth—Athens Assists Coreyra—Sparta's Demands—Athens Prepares for War—Commencement of the Peloponnesian War—The Ten Years' War—The Spartans Invade Attica—Athens Overcrowded—Wisdom of Pericles—Attacks upon him—Cleon the Tanner—The Plague at Athens—Pericles Vindicated—Death of Pericles—Grief of the Athenians—Destruction of Plataea—Revolt of Mitylene—Cleon Causes the Inhabitants to be Sentenced to Death—Reversal of the Decree—Progress of the War—Victory of the Athenian Fleet at Pylos—Sparta Sues for Peace—Cleon Prevents a Settlement—The Tanner's Good Luck—He Defeats the Spartans at Sphacteria—Reverses of Athens—Negotiations for Peace—Death of Cleon and Brasidas—The Peace of Nicias—Alcibiades—Argos Submits to Sparta—The Sicilian Expedition—The Siege of Syracuse—Loss of the Athenian Army and Fleet—Consternation at Athens—The Decelian War—Treachery of Alcibiades—The Athenians Rise Superior

to their Reverses—Fidelity of Samos—Successes of Athens in the East—Alcibiades Seeks to Return to Athens—Aids his Countrymen—Vigorous Efforts of Athens—Persian Policy towards the Greeks—Battle of Cynossema—Return of Alcibiades to Athens—Persia Gives more Active Aid to Sparta—Lysander—Downfall of Alcibiades—Battle of Arginusæ—Battle of Egospotamæ—The Athenian Supremacy Destroyed—Athens Surrenders to the Spartans—The Thirty Tyrants—A Reign of Terror—Murder of Alcibiades—Reaction Against the Thirty—Return of the Exiles under Thrasylbulus—Fall of the Thirty—Law and Order Restored at Athens.

THE apprehensions of the Athenian leaders were soon realized. A quarrel having broken out between Corinth and its colony of Coreyra, in B. C. 435, Athens interfered in behalf of the Coreyrans. Matters soon came to a crisis. A congress of the Peloponnesian states was held at Sparta, and this body resolved to make war upon Athens, under the leadership of Sparta, B. C. 431. Sparta, as the champion of the Dorian confederacy, demanded certain concessions of Athens; among others the banishment of Pericles and the abdication by Athens of her leadership of the Confederacy of Delos. As a matter of course these demands were refused. Athens, though resolved not to begin the war, prepared to meet it.

Hostilities were precipitated by the treacherous attack of the Thebans upon the little city of Plataea, which had remained friendly to Athens. The attack was defeated, and the Thebans made prisoners. The Plateans, with equal treachery, massacred their prisoners, and so drew upon themselves the vengeance of the enemies of Athens.

All parties now prepared energetically for war. On the side of Sparta were all the Peloponnesian states (except Achaia and Argos) together with Megara, Bœotia, Phœcis, Opuntian Loeris, Ambracia, Leucadia, and Anactoria. Their army was strong and well prepared, but their navy was inferior to that of Athens. Still the allies hoped to be able to equip a fleet of 500 galleys, and to secure the assistance of the Phœnician fleet through an alliance with Persia. The allies of Athens were, on the main land, Thessaly and Acarnania, and the cities of Naupactus and Plataea. To these must be added her tributaries on the coasts of Thrace and Asia Minor and in the Cyclades, and her insular allies, Chios, Lesbos, Coreyra, Zacynthus, and, at a later period, Cephallenia.

The Spartans and their allies assembled an army estimated variously at from 60,000 to 100,000 men, at the isthmus of Corinth. The command was assigned to Archidamnus, King of Sparta, who advanced into Attica about the middle of June, B. C. 431.

The *Peloponnesian War*, which thus began, lasted twenty-seven years, and is usually divided into three distinct parts: 1. The Ten Years' War; 2. The Sicilian Expedition; 3. The Decelian War. It brought more misery to Greece than the peninsula had ever known.

I. *The Ten Years' War*, B. C. 431-421.

miles from, Athens. They laid waste the country in every direction, committing their ravages under the eyes of the Athenian army within the city, which clamored loudly to be let out against them. Pericles was not willing to risk an encounter in the field with his inferior force. His design was to draw the enemy out of Attica by assailing the Peloponnesus. He pursued this policy with firmness in the face of incessant attacks upon his courage and patriotism. Conspicuous among the leaders of these assaults upon the great statesman was Cleon, a noisy demagogue, who was



RUINS OF THE TEMPLE OF VICTORY—ATHENS.

Upon the invasion of Attica by the Peloponnesians, the inhabitants of the open country and defenceless villages took refuge within the walls of Athens. The city was crowded, as was also Piræus. The marketplace, the public squares, the space between the Long Walls—every available foot of ground, was covered with huts and tents for the temporary accommodation of the rural population. Men even dwelt in casks placed against the Long Walls.

Meanwhile the Peloponnesian army, after ravaging the fertile Thriasian plain, advanced to Acharnæ and encamped on rising ground within sight of, and seven

destined to play an important part in the affairs of this period. Pericles promptly collected a fleet of 100 Athenian and fifty Coreyran ships, and sent it to ravage the Peloponnesus, while a smaller fleet of thirty ships was sent to attack Phocis and Locris. These expeditions were so successful that the Peloponnesians were obliged to abandon Attica after an indecisive campaign of three weeks, as they were needed for the protection of their own country.

In the spring of B. C. 430 the Peloponnesians, under Archidamnus, again invaded Attica, and at the same time the plague broke out in Athens, and committed fright-

ful ravages among the over-crowded population. All classes turned against Pericles, whose prudent policy, while it was really their salvation, was denounced as the cause of their woes. Pericles, however, pursued his designs with unshaken firmness. He knew that on land Athens was no match for her enemies, and that to risk a battle would be to stake the fate of his country upon a single venture. To relieve Attica he fitted out another naval expedition, and led it in person to ravage the coasts of the Peloponnesus. Returning to Athens he found that the opposition had grown stronger and bolder in his absence, and that an embassy had even been sent to Sparta to sue for peace. The Spartans had contemptuously dismissed the envoys without a hearing, and this had actually increased the opposition to Pericles. The great statesman at once summoned a public assembly, and succeeded in persuading his countrymen to continue the war, but he did not quiet the feeling of distrust with which the people regarded him. Cleon openly charged him with embezzling the public funds. His enemies hoped by fastening this charge upon him to disqualify him for the office of strategus or general. He was tried before the dicastery on this charge, and sentenced to pay a considerable fine. It now became evident to the mass of the people that they were simply lending themselves to an unjust persecution of their great leader and a strong reaction set in in his favor. He was re-elected general, and appears to have regained the confidence and affection of his countrymen. This tardy justice came too late, however.

The plague had numbered among its victims many of his most devoted personal and political friends. It now swept away his sister and his two legitimate sons. During the funeral ceremonies of the younger son, the firmness of Pericles gave way, and he burst into tears in the presence of the people. His ancient house was now without an heir. His only remaining son, the child of Aspasia, was illegitimate. The Athenians, as a partial atonement for their unjust treatment of the father, legitimized this son, who bore the name of Pericles. A year later, the great leader himself lay upon his death-bed. As his weeping friends were recalling his exploits, he turned to them and said: "What you praise in me is partly the result of good fortune, and at all events common to me with many other command-

ers. What I chiefly pride myself upon, you have not noticed—no Athenian ever wore mourning through me." He died, B. C. 429, the greatest man of Greece.

Meanwhile the war went on. In the second campaign, B. C. 430, the Peloponnesians ravaged all Attica, and even plundered the silver-mines of Laurium. Their fleet destroyed the Athenian fisheries, and devastated the island of Zacynthus. The only success of the Athenians was the capture of Potidæa, which surrendered after a blockade of two years. It was occupied by an Athenian colony of one thousand persons.

In B. C. 429 the Spartans marched against Plataea, and laid siege to it. The Plataeans endeavored to hold them back by reminding them of the solemn oath of the Spartan regent Pausanias after the great victory of Plataea, that the little city should be sacred



PERICLES AND ASPASIA.

forever from invasion. The Spartans replied that they would respect this oath if Plataea would abandon the cause of Athens, and reminded the citizens that they had justly incurred the vengeance of the allies by their massacre of the Theban prisoners. The Plataeans refused to desert their Athenian allies, and their city was taken after a heroic defence of two years. All the inhabitants were put to death; the city was utterly destroyed, and its territory was assigned to the Thebans. In B. C. 427 an Athenian squadron of twenty ships defeated a Spartan fleet of forty-seven ships; and also won a second victory over a fresh Spartan fleet of seventy-seven vessels. Both engagements occurred in the Corinthian Gulf.

In the fourth year of the war Mitylene, the capital of the island of Lesbos, revolted from Athens, and, appealing to Sparta for

protection, was received into the Peloponnesian league. A Spartan fleet was sent to the assistance of the revolted city in the spring of B. C. 427, but the Athenians had regained the town before its arrival. They had proceeded to blockade Mitylene immediately upon its revolt, and the majority of the inhabitants, who preferred the rule of Athens to that of their own oligarchs who had made the insurrection, compelled the governor to surrender to the Athenian fleet. The city was reoccupied, and its fate referred to the people of Athens. Influenced by Cleon, the assembly ordered that the men of Mitylene should be put to death and the women and children reduced to slavery. Fearing a reaction from this barbarous decision, Cleon caused a galley to be despatched instantly to Lesbos with the orders of the assembly. The night brought reflection, and next morning the Athenians demanded a new assembly, which was granted by the strategi, though contrary to law. The vote of the previous day was reconsidered, and the barbarous decree rescinded. A swift galley, manned by a picked crew, who were stimulated to the greatest exertions by the promise of large rewards if they arrived in time, was despatched to Lesbos, with the decree countermanding the order for the execution of the men of Mitylene. Every nerve was strained, the rowers scarcely paused for sleep, and ate their food while laboring at the oars. The weather was fair, and they reached Lesbos just as the Athenian commander was preparing to execute the first order. The city was punished by the destruction of its walls, and the surrender of its fleet to the Athenians. The oligarchical leaders were put to death.

Corinth now attempted to win over the island of Coreyra from the Athenian alliance by releasing the Corcyran prisoners who had been captured in B. C. 432. These reaching home brought about a civil war which came near resulting in the total extermination of the Corcyran oligarchy.

The year B. C. 426 was marked by no military events. Fire and floods agitated Greece throughout its whole extent, and Athens was again visited with the plague. The next year witnessed another invasion of Attica by the Spartans under their King Agis. They soon withdrew in haste, alarmed by the success of the Athenians in establishing a naval station at Pylos, on the coast of Messenia, from which they were endeavor-

ing to excite a revolt of the Helot population. The Spartan army at once marched against Pylos, which was held by a small Athenian force commanded by Demosthenes. Two assaults were repulsed by the little garrison, and a third was prevented by the prompt arrival of an Athenian fleet. The Athenian admiral the next day attacked the Spartans in the harbor of Pylos, and inflicted a severe defeat upon them. The Peloponnesians lost several of their ships, and only saved the remainder by beaching them. The Athenian fleet now blockaded the island of Sphacteria, in which the flower of the Spartan army had been posted. So great was the danger which thus threatened these troops, many of whom were native Spartans of the highest rank, that the ephors, having come to Pylos, and having examined the situation for themselves, saw no hope of rescuing them but by making peace. An armistice was arranged at Pylos, and an embassy despatched to Athens to sue for peace.

The Athenians were greatly elated at beholding the proud Spartans as supplicants for peace. The wiser citizens hoped that a settlement of the dispute might now be peacefully arranged; and such would have been the result had not the demagogue Cleon induced his countrymen to insist upon conditions which the Spartans rejected with indignation. Hostilities were renewed. Demosthenes, fearing that the wintry weather which was now approaching would compel him to raise the blockade of the island of Sphacteria, and thus allow the Spartans to escape to the mainland, resolved to make an immediate attack, but regarding his force as too weak to attempt it, sent to Athens explaining his plan and asking for reinforcements. The assembly, disheartened by this report, accused Cleon of having caused it to lose the opportunity for securing an honorable peace. The noisy Cleon retorted by declaring that the messengers of Demosthenes had not stated the facts of the case truly. Driven from this plea, he began to accuse the commanders of incompetence, and declared that if he were Strategus he would take the island at once. Nicias, his political opponent, asked sarcastically, "Why don't you go then?" The assembly, which had burst into a fit of laughter at the boast of Cleon, the tanner, now took up the words of Nicias, and insisted that Cleon should take the command at Pylos, and make good his boast. After

vainly trying to excuse himself from accepting so dangerous an honor, he agreed to undertake the task. Declining a reinforcement of Athenian troops, and taking with him only a small force of auxiliaries, he sailed from Athens, promising to take the island within twenty days, and either exterminate the Spartan force, or bring them in chains to Athens. Reaching Pylos, where Demosthenes had made every preparation for the attack, and was only awaiting reinforcements, Cleon assumed the command. By a combination of most singularly fortunate accidents, Cleon's attack was successful. The island of Sphacteria was taken, and all its defenders who survived were made prisoners. The harbor of Pylos was strongly fortified and garrisoned by Messenian troops and made a base for future operations against Sparta. Cleon and Demosthenes sailed for Athens with their prisoners, returning within the twenty days. Having thus gained one of the most important victories of the war, Cleon's influence at home was greatly increased, a result due entirely to his own accidental good fortune and the prudence of Demosthenes. The possession of the Spartan prisoners enabled the Athenians to exercise a constant restraint over the movements of their enemy, and to prevent the invasion of their territory by threatening to put their prisoners to death. The Spartans, sensible of the disadvantage under which they now labored, repeatedly made overtures of peace, to all of which the Athenians turned a deaf ear.

The eighth year of the war, B. C. 424, opened most encouragingly for the Athenians. Thus far the results of the war were largely in their favor. In the early part of the year their prospects were still more improved by the conquest of the island of Cythera by Nicias, who placed Athenian garrisons in its two principal towns; after which he ravaged the coast of Laconia, and captured the town of Thyrea, in which the Æginatians had been settled by the Spartans after the loss of their island. All the surviving natives of Ægina were barbarously put to death by the Athenians.

The Athenians were so greatly elated by their successes that they undertook to regain all the territory they had held previous to the thirty years' truce. They won some trifling successes in Megara, but were totally defeated in Bœotia. About the same time the Thracian dependencies were partly

conquered and partly won over to the Peloponnesian alliance by the Spartan commander Brasidas. He also subdued the most eastern of the Chalcidian peninsulas.

Athens was now sorely disheartened, and the Spartans were eager to recover their relatives taken captive at Sphacteria, who were held by the Athenians. Both parties being anxious for peace, a year's truce was concluded, B. C. 423, and negotiations for a permanent peace were begun. They were interrupted a few days later by the revolt of the town of Scioné, which went over to Brasidas. As the truce had forbidden any change in the situation of affairs, the Athenians demanded the restoration of the town. Brasidas refused to comply with the demand, and at the instigation of Cleon, an expedition was despatched under his command to retake Scioné and put the inhabitants to death. He took the towns of Toroné and Galepsus, and was advancing upon Amphipolis, when he found his progress barred by Brasidas. A severe battle ensued, in which the Athenians were defeated. Cleon was slain, and his country was thus relieved of his pernicious influence. Brasidas was mortally wounded.

The deaths of Cleon and Brasidas removed the principal obstacles to a general peace, and in the spring of B. C. 421 a treaty was concluded between Athens and Sparta, establishing a peace for fifty years. This treaty is known as the "Peace of Nicias." Some of the Spartan allies complained that Sparta had sacrificed their interests in order to carry out her own plans. These withdrew from the Peloponnesian league, and formed a new confederacy under the leadership of Argos. Athens immediately concluded an alliance with Argos, Elis, and Mantinea for a hundred years, B. C. 420.

The Athenians had been led to this step by the efforts of Alcibiades, who had at first been friendly to Sparta, but had been changed into a bitter enemy of that country by the contempt with which the Spartans had met his advances. He was one of the most accomplished of the Grecian leaders, possessed of great abilities, but utterly without principle, and a man of dissolute habits. Upon the death of Cleon he became the leader of the popular party, not from sympathy with the cause of the people, but as a means of furthering his own ambition.

The disputes between Sparta and Argos soon culminated in war, and Agis, the Spartan king, won the important victory of

Mantineæ, B. C. 418. This defeat strengthened the oligarchical party at Argos, which overthrew the government, repudiated the Athenian alliance, and made a treaty with Sparta. The people succeeded in expelling this party finally, and applied to Athens for aid. An Athenian fleet and army were despatched to help them, under the command of Alcibiades. Nothing decisive resulted from this expedition. The peace between Athens and Sparta continued to be nominally observed. All this while the Athenian garrison at Pylos was committing ravages in Laconia, while the Spartans in retaliation sent out privateers to prey upon Athenian commerce.

II. *The Sicilian Expedition*, B. C. 415-413. About B. C. 416 the quarrels of the Greek colonies in Sicily revived the great struggle between the Ionian and the Dorian races. The cities of Egesta and Selinus having become involved in a quarrel, the former appealed to Athens for aid, which was granted, the Egestans having deceived the Athenians as to their ability to bear their share of the expenses of the war. A fleet was despatched to Egesta under the command of Nicias, Alcibiades, and Lamachus, B. C. 415. Alcibiades had been publicly accused of sacrilege, and was suffered to depart with this accusation hanging over him. Upon reaching the coast of Sicily the Athenian commanders learned the deception that had been practised upon their countrymen by the Egestans, and were at a loss what course to pursue. Each one suggested a different plan. That of Alcibiades was adopted, however, namely, to secure new allies among the Greek cities of Sicily, and with their aid to attack both Selinus and Syracuse. It was the least promising plan of the three. The expedition proceeded to the coast of Sicily, took Catania, and made it the base of the operations designed against Syracuse. Alcibiades was now recalled to Athens to answer to the charge of sacrilege, but instead of proceeding to Athens escaped to Italy, from which he passed over to Sparta and betrayed the plans of his countrymen. The operations of Nicias against Syracuse were not successful, and he went into winter quarters at Naxos. The winter was spent by the Syracusans in strengthening the fortifications of their city.

In the spring of B. C. 414 the Athenians began the siege of Syracuse, and at first gained such advantages that the capture of the city

must have ensued had Nicias, the Athenian commander, acted with vigor and decision. His hesitation gave the Syracusans time to receive aid from the Peloponnesian confederacy. Gylippus, the Spartan admiral, a brave and active commander, reached Sicily, and assembling an army from the Dorian cities of the island, threw himself into Syracuse with this force. By his energetic movements he infused new spirit into the Syracusans, and the tide at once turned. The Athenian investment was broken, and about the same time Gylippus was reinforced by a squadron of thirty Peloponnesian ships, and the cities of Sicily, which until now had remained neutral, embraced the cause of Syracuse. Nicias was obliged to abandon the attempt to blockade Syracuse. He therefore occupied the peninsula of Plemmyrium, where he formed a naval station. His prospects of success were so poor that he wrote to Athens for reinforcements, and asked to be recalled.

Matters were very bad at Athens. The Spartans had invaded Attica in the spring of the year (B. C. 413) and had established a permanent camp at Decelea, on the ridge of Mount Parnes, about fourteen miles from the capital and overlooking the Athenian plain. Provisions were scarce, and the revenue almost exhausted. Nevertheless the Athenians refused to recall Nicias, and sent him a reinforcement of seventy-five ships under Demosthenes and Eurymedon. This squadron arrived in time to rescue Nicias from a perilous position in the great harbor to which he had been driven by Gylippus. Finding it impossible to restore matters to a favorable footing, Demosthenes advised Nicias to abandon the attempt upon Syracuse, and return home and drive the Spartans from Attica, but the latter was not willing to return to Greece with the disgrace of a failure resting upon him. He consented to retire to Catania, a less dangerous position, but delayed his movement so long that the Syracusans were informed of it, and attacked him at once. The Athenian fleet was defeated, but the army repulsed the attack upon it. The Syracusans then endeavored to cut off the retreat of the Athenians by closing the mouth of the great harbor with a line of ships which they moored across it. In the attempt to break through this barrier, the Athenians were defeated with the loss of half their fleet. The disheartened crews refused to renew the attempt. The Athenian army was still

40,000 strong, and it was resolved to abandon the fleet and retreat by land to some friendly city, from which they could take shipping back to Greece. Nicias delayed the attempt until the favorable moment had passed, and in the effort to escape the army was defeated, scattered, and forced to surrender. Both Nicias and Demosthenes were made prisoners. Being condemned to death in spite of the efforts of Gylippus and the Syracusan commander Hermocrates to save them, they were rescued by those commanders from the indignity of a public execution by being secretly furnished with the means of ending their own lives. The other captives, after undergoing many hardships, were sold into slavery.

III. *The Decelian War, and the Decline of Athens*, B. C. 413-404. The news of the fate of the Sicilian expedition was received at Athens with the wildest grief and alarm. It is said to have been communicated by a stranger in a barber's shop in the Piræus. The story was so terrible and appeared so incredible, that the man was put to the torture as an impostor and spreader of false news. It was confirmed at length by the arrival of fugitives from the scene of the disaster, and Athens found herself face to face with the greatest calamity she had ever suffered. The private grief of the citizens for the loss of relatives and friends was mingled with a general alarm for the safety of the state. The Spartan post at Decelea was a source of incessant annoyance to Athens. It was a constant menace to the city, and kept the garrison always on duty. To add to the gravity of the situation, the allies of Athens now began to desert her. Alcibiades was busy stirring up revolts in Chios, Lesbos, and Eubœa, which applied to Sparta for aid, and Sparta basely entered into a treaty of alliance with Persia, the great enemy of Grecian liberty, to crush Athens and restore the Persian authority over all the countries to which it had formerly extended, including the islands of the Ægean, and Thessaly and Bœotia. Persian gold, which was freely expended in her behalf, enabled Sparta to maintain a fleet superior to that of Athens, and the Peloponnesian navy was largely reinforced by the addition of the powerful Sicilian contingent.

Recovering from their first alarm, the Athenians addressed themselves cheerfully to the task of repairing their losses. The most rigid economy was introduced into the

public service, and a new fleet was ordered to be constructed without delay. The garrison lately established on the Laconian coast was recalled, and the promontory of Sunium was fortified, in order to secure the communication with Eubœa, from which island the Athenians drew the greater part of their provisions.

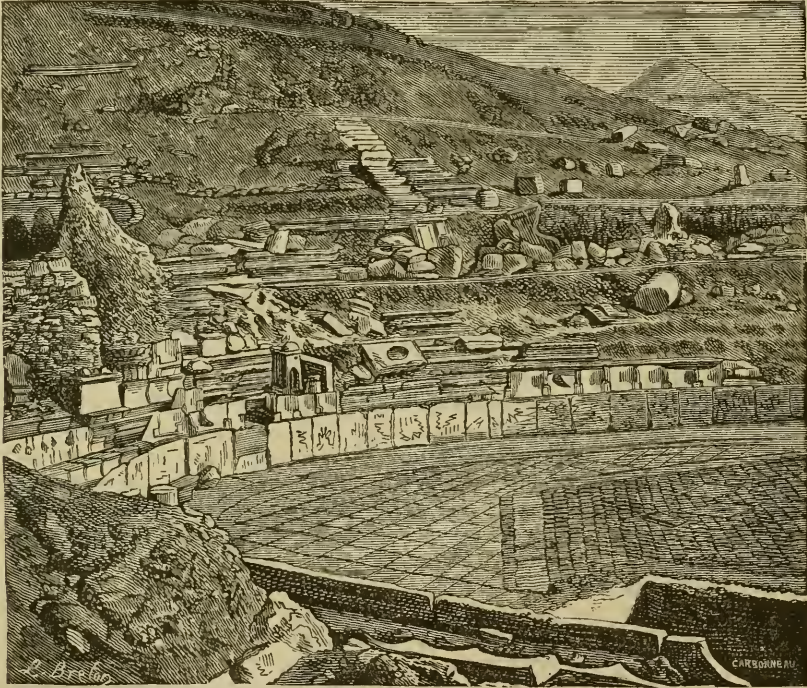
Of all the dependencies of Athens, Samos alone remained faithful. Warned by the revolution in Chios, the Samians rose against their oligarchical government, slew a number of that party, banished the rest, and instituted a democratic government. Athens at once acknowledged Samos as an equal and independent ally. The reserve fund of one thousand talents, which had been set aside by Pericles to meet the needs of an actual invasion, had until now remained untouched, being guarded by the penalty of death which had been denounced against any one who should venture to use it until the emergency for which it had been provided should have arisen. The laws guarding it were now repealed, and the fund was applied to the construction and equipment of the fleet, which, when completed, sailed at once against Chios.

The war was now transferred to the eastern end of the Mediterranean and to Asia Minor. The task which devolved upon Athens was not only to defeat the coalition against her, but to reduce her revolted provinces to obedience. In the first campaign which ensued Athens seemed to have recovered from her losses in Sicily. Lesbos and Clazomenæ were recovered, and the Chians were defeated and their territory laid waste. Samos was made the headquarters of the Athenian fleet, and remained their base of operations during the rest of the war. A battle was fought near Miletus in Asia Minor, in which the Spartans themselves were defeated. The wonderful elasticity with which Athens rose superior to her misfortunes, and the courage, patience and patriotism of her people, which lifted her out of her adversity and placed her on a footing which made the issue of the war doubtful once more, merited and have commanded the admiration of succeeding ages.

Much of this success was due to the genius of Alcibiades, who, influenced by his desire to regain his lost place in Athens, had applied himself to the task of detaching Persia from the Spartan alliance. He moved adroitly, and succeeded in persuad-

ing the satrap Tissaphernes that it was not to the interest of Persia to permit either Athens or Sparta to conquer in this war, but that her true policy lay in allowing them to exhaust each other, and then to seize the dominions of both when they had become too weak to resist her. Influenced by this advice, which was sound, the Persian satrap held back at the moment when a vigorous support given to Sparta would have enabled her to bring the war to a close. He succeeded in overcoming the impatience of the Spartan commanders by

and feared the people. Believing that their only hope of success in the war lay in the assistance of Persia, the Athenians reluctantly accepted these hard terms, and abolished their democratic government. A Council of Four Hundred, chiefly self-appointed, seized the administration of affairs. It soon became apparent that Alcibiades had simply duped his countrymen, and the four hundred were overthrown, and the republic was restored. This revolution had been hastened by the defection of the island of Eubœa to the Spartans, B. C. 411.



THEATRE OF DIONYSUS—ATHENS.

liberal bribes. Sparta had also begun to be ashamed of her unnatural alliance with the ancient enemy of Greece.

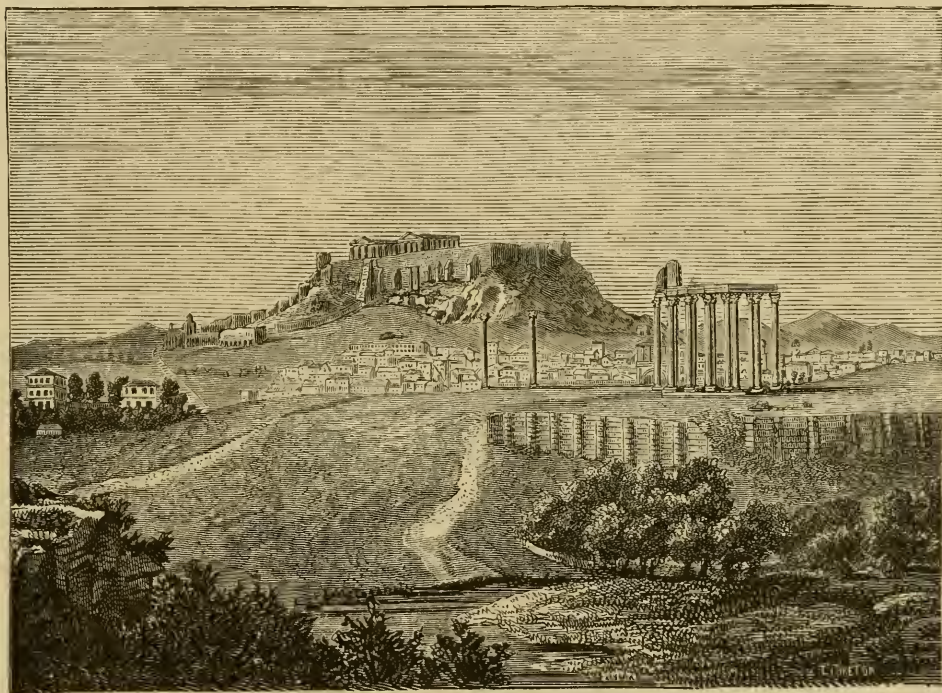
Alcibiades exerted himself to widen the breach which had thus opened between Persia and Sparta. He succeeded in duping the Athenian commanders at Samos into the belief that his influence with Tissaphernes was strong enough to draw him into an alliance with Athens, and offered to effect this result on condition of his being allowed to return to Athens and regain his former position. He stipulated that the republic should be overthrown, and an oligarchy set up in its place, as he both hated

The Athenians were obliged to put forth every energy to maintain their national existence. Their losses during the war had so seriously crippled them that they were compelled to conduct a mainly defensive struggle, and the Persian policy of aiding the state which needed it most prevented them from reaping any of the advantages of their successes.

The Persian policy did not please the Spartans any more than the Athenians. Mindarus, the Spartan commander in Asia Minor, left Miletus in disgust and sailed for the Hellespont, where he hoped to find the other satrap more active in his support.

He was followed by an Athenian fleet of inferior force, under Thrasybulus, and was defeated in an engagement in the strait between Sestos and Abydos. The Spartan admiral now endeavored to rejoin the allied fleet at Eubœa, but his vessels were lost in a storm off Mount Athos. Mindarus himself escaped. The Athenians followed up their advantage by capturing Cyzicus, which had revolted from them. A month or two later a great battle was fought between the Athenian and Peloponnesian fleets at Cynossema, off Abydos, and was decided in favor of the former by the timely

Mindarus, with the Spartan fleet, assisted by a Persian army, under the Satrap Pharnabazus, now undertook the siege of Cyzicus, and the Athenians decided to relieve it. A fierce battle ensued, in which the Peloponnesian fleet was driven ashore, where the Persians, under Pharnabazus, endeavored to defend the ships. Alcibiades landed at the head of his men and routed the Persians, while the Athenians attacked the fleet drawn up on the shore. Mindarus was slain and the whole Peloponnesian fleet captured, except the Syracusan ships, which were burned by their commander.



RUINS OF THE ACROPOLIS—ATHENS.

arrival of Alcibiades with a squadron of eighteen ships from Samos, B. C. 410.

The wily Athenian had lost the confidence of his Persian friends. The Persian king was not satisfied with the policy he had advised, and had ordered Tissaphernes to give active aid to Sparta. One of the first acts of the satrap was to arrest Alcibiades and imprison him at Sardis. At the end of a month he made his escape, reached Clazomenæ, and, determining to risk everything in an effort to secure his recall to Athens, raised a force of eighteen galleys at Samos, and joined the Athenian fleet just in time to decide the victory in their favor.

To this great victory no one had contributed more than Alcibiades. By their success the Athenians became once more masters of the Propontis and the trade of the Euxine. Supplies of grain were collected in the Euxine and sent to Athens, to the great disappointment of the Spartans at Decelea, who had hoped to starve the city into submission.

In B. C. 409 the Athenians gained still greater successes. Chalcedon surrendered to them in spite of the efforts of Pharnabazus to save it, and Alcibiades took Selymbria. In B. C. 408 Byzantium surrendered to him.

The great services of Alcibiades had now gone far to atone for his past misconduct, and in B. C. 407 he ventured to return to Athens. He met with an enthusiastic welcome from the whole population, the senate reversed his sentence, the curse was removed from him, and as he seemed the only leader capable of restoring to Athens her lost power and glory, he was made general, with unlimited powers, and was given command of a force of 100 galleys, 1,500 heavy-armed troops, and 500 cavalry. Alcibiades, with characteristic levity, believed that he had regained the affection and confidence of his countrymen, and seemed blind to the fact that the Athenians were simply according him a new trial, and that he had many influential enemies at Athens, who still doubted him.

Meanwhile the execution of the Persian plans had fallen into more vigorous hands. Cyrus, the younger son of Darius II., the reigning King of Persia, was made satrap of the Asia Minor provinces. He was a man of genuine ability, and of unbounded ambition. As a means of furthering his own schemes he resolved to give a cordial aid to Sparta in her efforts to crush Athens. At the same time the command of the Spartan fleet was given to Lysander, one of the ablest men his country ever produced. These two personages conceived a marked respect for each other's abilities, and agreed upon a hearty and vigorous co-operation. Cyrus reached Sardis in the spring of B. C. 407, and in September of the same year Alcibiades sailed from Athens to Andros, which was held by a Lacedæmonian force. Finding the resistance offered greater than he had expected, Alcibiades left Conon with twenty ships to continue the siege, and with the rest of his fleet sailed for Samos. Here for the first time he learned that Persia had become the open enemy of Athens. Being short of funds he attempted to raise money by levying a contribution upon Cymé, an unoffending dependency of Athens. His demand was refused, and in revenge he ravaged the territory of that city, which lodged a formal complaint against him at Athens. While engaged in this attempt his fleet, which he had left in command of his pilot, Antiochus, was defeated by the Peloponnesians off Notium, with the loss of fifteen ships. Antiochus was himself slain. The conduct of Alcibiades was dissolute and profligate on shore, and his men began to

show signs of grave disaffection. Besides, though in command of a splendid force, he had spent three months in idleness. These things showed to the Athenians that Alcibiades had not changed his character, nor profited by his adversity. A few years of success had revived his old traits. He was accordingly removed from his command, and replaced by ten generals, with Conon at their head. About the same time the command of the Spartan fleet was transferred to Callicratidas, who, in spite of the efforts of Lysander to hamper him and thus secure his own reappointment to the command, showed such energy and self-reliance, and such indifference to the Persian alliance, that Cyrus, who had resented his appointment over Lysander, came to his aid with an abundant supply of money. Previous to this action of Cyrus, Callicratidas had proved his ability by attacking the Athenian fleet in the harbor of Mitylene, and defeating it with the loss of thirty ships. The remaining forty were saved by being hauled ashore under the walls of the town. The Spartan admiral then blockaded the harbor of Mitylene by sea and land.

When the situation of Conon became known at Athens, great efforts were made to aid him. A fleet was immediately fitted out and despatched to Samos, where it was joined by the allies, and its strength increased to 150 sail, after which it proceeded to the relief of Mitylene. Upon the approach of the Athenian fleet Callicratidas detached fifty ships to continue the blockade, and with the remainder of his force advanced to meet the enemy. The hostile fleets encountered each other off the island of Arginusæ, near the southeastern cape of Lesbos, and a severe battle ensued. The result was doubtful until Callicratidas fell into the sea and was drowned. The Spartans, deprived of their leader, were defeated with the loss of seventy-seven ships. Their squadron at Mitylene at once took flight, and Conon was able to leave the harbor and join his friends. The united Athenian fleet then sailed for Samos.

At the beginning of B. C. 405 Lysander was again given the command of the Spartan fleet. Being inferior in force to the Athenians, he avoided an engagement, and eluding the enemy's fleet, crossed the Ægean to the coast of Attica, where he had a conference with Agis. The result of this conference was the departure of the Spartan fleet for the Hellespont, which their adver-

sary had left unguarded. Lysander took position at Abydos.

The Athenians were at this time ravaging Chios. They were withdrawn from this work by the news of Lysander's presence in the Hellespont and of the commencement of the siege of Lampsacus. They at once moved their fleet to the Hellespont, but arrived too late to save Lampsacus. They took position at Ægospotami, or the "Goat's River," on the northern side of the channel, with the intention of bringing the Spartans to battle. The Spartans were well supplied with provisions and occupied a strong position, and the delay was in their favor. The Athenians, on the other hand, held a wretched position—a mere sand-beach, distant from Sestos, whence they drew their supplies, and without anything to recommend it. The sailors were obliged to go ashore to get their meals, and the discipline of the fleet was relaxed to an alarming extent. Alcibiades, who, since his dismissal, had been residing in his castle in the vicinity, saw the danger to which his countrymen exposed themselves by retaining this position, and advised their leaders to move to Sestos, where they would be more secure. His advice was received with insults. There is a reasonable ground for the suspicion that some of the Athenian commanders had been bribed by Cyrus to bring about the state of affairs which now existed. Lysander was aware of the lax discipline of his enemies, and while declining battle, was on the alert to profit by some of their errors. On the fifth day after the arrival of the Athenian fleet he seized the opportunity offered him by the absence of the Athenian seamen, who had gone ashore and were scattered over the country, to cross the strait with his entire force and attack the enemy's ships. He found the entire Athenian fleet, with the exception of eight or ten galleys, deserted and defenceless. He seized them without striking a blow and carried them off. Only eight or ten galleys, including the flag-ship, commanded by Conon, succeeded in escaping. Conon was afraid to return to Athens, and took refuge in Cyprus. The Spartans now held the Athenian fleet and four or five thousand prisoners. The latter they put to death in retaliation for the cruelty with which the Athenians had lately treated their captives. The Spartan success at Ægospotami was the death-blow of the Athenian empire; all

the Athenian possessions fell into the hands of the victors; the democratic governments were overthrown, and oligarchical establishments were set up in their place, consisting of ten citizens, at whose head was a Spartan officer called a *hormost*.

The news of this crushing disaster reached Athens in the night. The citizens, roused from their slumbers by the fearful tidings, slept no more that night. The situation of the city was desperate in the extreme. The sources from which the Athenians drew their provisions were now in the hands of Spartans, and the city could be easily starved into submission, even if the enemy did not attack it. The Public Assembly met the next morning, and it was agreed to overlook all crimes except the most serious, and release the prisoners to enable them to take part in the public defence. All debtors were released on the same condition, and the citizens, assembled in the Acropolis, swore a solemn oath of mutual forgiveness and harmony. Although the result was evident to all, no one spoke of yielding.

The battle of Ægospotami took place in September, B. C. 405, but Lysander, who had spent the intervening time in reducing the Athenian dependencies and establishing oligarchical governments in them, did not appear in Athenian waters until November, when he reached Ægina with a fleet of 150 sail, and proceeded to ravage Salamis and blockade Piræus. At the same time the Peloponnesian army advanced into Attica and encamped in the groves of the Academia, at the gates of Athens.

The fall of the city was only a question of time, for famine had already made its appearance within the walls; but the spirit of the Athenians was unsubdued. They offered to capitulate upon condition of retaining their Long Walls and the port of Piræus. The Spartan ephors rejected their conditions and insisted that the Long Walls should be destroyed for a distance of ten stadia at least. The senator Archestratus proposed to accept the Spartan terms, and was imprisoned by the indignant citizens for his proposal, though many of them were actually dying with hunger. At last Theramenes, formerly one of the Four Hundred, who pretended to have great influence with Lysander, offered to ascertain his real intentions respecting Athens. He wasted three months—three months of terrible suffering to his countrymen—and at last re-

turned to Athens with the answer that the ephors alone had the power to make peace. Upon his return to the city the suffering from the famine had become so great that he was sent back to conclude a peace on the best terms that could be obtained. A council of the allies was held at Sparta to decide the fate of Athens. The Thebans and Corinthians urged that the city should be destroyed, its name obliterated, and the entire population sold into slavery. The Spartans now exhibited the only generosity that ever marked their history. They declared with a magnanimity which is suspicious, to say the least, that they would never consent to annihilate or enslave a city which had rendered such eminent services to Greece. The truth is most probably this: they wished to secure in Athens a useful dependency. The terms finally agreed upon were that the Long Walls and fortifications of Piræus should be destroyed; that the Athenians should relinquish all their foreign possessions and confine themselves to their own territory; and that they should surrender all that remained of their navy, readmit all their exiles, and become allies of Sparta. So reduced were the Athenians by the famine that they eagerly accepted these terms, and about the middle of March, B. C. 404, Lysander took formal possession of Piræus and the Spartan army entered Athens. Lysander at once set to work to execute the terms of the treaty. All the Athenian ships but twelve were carried away, the fortifications of Piræus, the docks, arsenals, ships on the stocks, and the Long Walls were demolished. The work was performed amidst the rejoicings of the Peloponnesians, who made it the occasion of a festival which was a needless insult to the vanquished.

Thus fell the Athenian empire, twenty-seven years after the beginning of the Peloponnesian war, and seventy-three years after the formation of the Confederacy of Delos. The Spartans, in alliance with Persia, were now supreme in Greece. Free governments were everywhere destroyed and oligarchies set up in their stead. Athens was given a genuinely Spartan constitution, which was framed by a provisional government of five ephors presided over by Lysander. Lysander caused these to intrust the government to thirty officers, who are known in history as the "Thirty Tyrants." At their head was Critias, who had been banished by a vote of the people, and who

had been permitted to return by the terms of the surrender. He now used his power to take vengeance upon his enemies. He caused the best and noblest citizens to be put to death, and inaugurated a reign of terror in Athens. A more moderate party, under Theramenes, endeavored to stop this violence by causing the selection from the friends of the Thirty of 3,000 citizens, whose assent was required in all important proceedings. The only result of this measure was to exempt these 3,000 citizens from the illegal acts of the Thirty; all the rest of the Athenians were placed without the pale of the law and might be put to death at the pleasure of the tyrants. A list of suspected citizens and intended victims was now made, and to this list any one belonging to the ruling party might add the name of an enemy. As the estate of the victim went to his informer, the blow fell first upon the rich, and the persecution thus lost its political character and became an effort to secure plunder. Theramenes being urged to destroy a prominent alien resident and enrich himself with his wealth, indignantly refused. He was denounced as a public enemy by Critias, dragged from the altar in the senate house where he had sought sanctuary, and compelled to drink the fatal hemlock. Thus released from all restraint, Critias and his party indulged their cruelty unsparingly.

One of the victims of Sparta was Alcibiades, who had been allowed by the Persians to retire into Phrygia after the battle at Ægospotami. Orders were sent from Sparta to put him to death. His house was surrounded by the Persians and set on fire, and he was slain by the arrows and javelins of his assailants, who shrank from meeting him face to face.

Meanwhile the cruelties of the Thirty had aroused a strong reaction in Greece against them and against Lysander, whose tools they were. The Thebans and Corinthians had come to regard the Thirty as the willing instruments of promoting the ambition of the Spartans, whom they now saw aimed at being the masters rather than the liberators of Greece. A number of the Athenian exiles who had taken refuge in Bœotia now returned, under the leadership of Thrasybulus, accompanied by some Theban citizens, and seized the frontier fortress of Phylé. The Thirty, at the head of the Spartan garrison and the Three Thousand, marched out to attack them, but were de-

feated. The Thirty, conscious that their downfall was close at hand, seized Salamis and Eleusis as places of refuge, removed their inhabitants, and garrisoned them with their own adherents. Critias then convoked an assembly of the Three Thousand and the Spartan garrison, and compelled them to decree the death of the prisoners, who were immediately executed. Thrasylulus now marched to Piræus, defeated the Thirty and their adherents, and seized the hill on which the citadel of the port had formerly stood. Critias was slain in the conflict, and the moderate party formerly led by Theramenes overthrew the Thirty after a reign of eight months, and instituted a new oligarchy known as the Ten. The Thirty and the Ten both asked aid of Sparta, and a new Spartan army under Lysander entered Athens, while their fleet under the brother of Lysander blockaded Piræus.



GREEK RUNNER CARRYING A MESSAGE TO A CITY.

At this juncture, however, the Spartans, becoming suspicious of the designs of Lysander, removed him from the command, which was assumed by Pausanias, the new Spartan king. After some conflicts, in which the Spartans were at first defeated by Thrasylulus, but were at length successful, peace was restored upon condition that the exiles at Piræus should be restored to Athens. Amnesty was granted to all the Athenians except the Thirty, the Ten, and the Eleven, the last of whom were the executioners of the barbarous decrees of the Thirty. The rule of the archons, the judges, and the Senate of Five Hundred was restored, and a revised code of the laws of Draco and Solon was ordered to be prepared by a subsequent assembly of the people. Thrasylulus and his party now marched into the city and were crowned with olive wreaths as the deliverers of Athens.

CHAPTER VII.

THE SPARTAN AND THEBAN SUPREMACIES.

Conservative Reaction at Athens—Socrates Condemned to Death—His Character—War between Sparta and Persia—Agesilaus—Sparta and Thebes at War—The League against Sparta—Conon Secures Persian Aid for Athens—The Long Walls Rebuilt—The Peace of Antalcidas—Persia the Arbitrator of Grecian Affairs—Sparta Supreme in Greece—Sparta Seizes the Cadmeia—The Thebans Recover the Cadmeia—Epaminondas—Battle of Leuctra—Danger of Sparta—Rise of Thebes to Power—Decline of the Spartan Supremacy—Jason—His Death—The Arcadian Confederation—Mantineia Rebuilt—Epaminondas Restores the Messenian State—His Triumphs in the Peloponnesus—The "Tearless Battle"—Persia Upholds the Supremacy of Thebes—The Violation of the Sanctity of the Olympian Games by the Arcadians—Results of this Act—Battle of Mantineia—Death of Epaminondas—Agesilaus goes to Egypt—His Reception there—His Revenge and Death—Wars of Athens and Phææ—The Social War—The Sacred War—End of the Theban Supremacy.

THE victory of Thrasylulus and his party restored to Athens her ancient laws and customs, and so profound was the rejoicing which it occasioned, that a conservative reaction took place in the city. It was made painfully memorable by the condemnation and death of the philosopher Socrates, one of the wisest and purest men of Greece. Twenty years before, Aristophanes, in his comedy of "The Clouds," had charged him with being an enemy of religion and a corrupter of youth; but this attack had failed at the time. He was now accused of not believing in the gods which the state worshipped, with teaching a new religion, and with corrupting the Athenian youth. He was condemned to death by a majority of six, but his proud speech in reply to his accusers raised the majority against him to eighty. The true secret of the hostility with which he was treated lay in the fact that he had offended many of the Athenians by his outspoken denunciations of their faults, and by his peculiar method of arguing, which compelled them to become the denouncers of their own acts. As the sacred ship or Paralus had sailed to Delos at the time of his sentence, and no execution could take place until its return, Socrates spent the thirty days of its absence in prison, in noble and inspiring conversation with his friends. He spoke of his past life without regret, and expressed his firm belief in the immortality of the soul. When the fatal moment arrived, he took the cup of deadly hemlock, and drank it

with a cheerful countenance, and calmly expired. His last words were a request to his friend Crito, that he would offer a cock to Æsculapius for him, as was customary with persons who had recovered from a dangerous illness, thus testifying his conviction that death was but the entrance to a new and better life. Posterity has done justice to his memory, and has accepted the estimate formed of him by his friend and pupil, Xenophon, who says of him: "To me, most emphatically (being, as I have de-

those who were in error, and persuading them to the pursuit of virtue and all that was honorable and good), he seemed to be such an one as the very best and happiest man could be."

In B. C. 398 Agis, the Spartan king, died, and was succeeded by his brother Agesilaus, one of the bravest and most capable of the Lacedæmonian leaders. He soon found a fitting field for the exercise of his powers. The aid rendered to Cyrus by the Spartans gave mortal offence to Persia, and when



SOCRATES PARTING FROM HIS FRIENDS.

scribed him, so pious, that he undertook nothing without the counsel of the gods; so just, that he never injured any one—no, not even in the slightest degree—but was of the greatest service to those that associated with him; so temperate, that he never preferred pleasure to virtue; so sensible, that he never erred in distinguishing the better from the worse, without requiring aid from any one else, but being of himself perfectly competent to discriminate between them; so capable of discoursing upon and defining such matters; and so skilled in estimating the character of others, and in convincing

Tissaphernes, the successor of Cyrus, returned to the coast, he brought orders to harass the Greek cities of Asia Minor, now under the protection of Sparta. The Spartans resolved to strike the first blow and thus secure whatever advantages might result from it. For six years, from B. C. 399 to 394, they waged war in Asia Minor. Their first commanders were but indifferent generals, but when Agesilaus was sent to Asia Minor, to direct the war, directly after his accession to the crown, a change was immediately perceptible, and from this time the Spartan successes were so numerous and

so marked, that it seemed certain that Persia would be stripped of her provinces in that quarter. A very considerable part of the Spartan army was composed of the Ten Thousand, whose exploits we have related in our account of the history of Persia, and who had returned from their expedition under Cyrus.

Persia, grown wiser since the days of Xerxes, now brought about an alliance against Sparta of the secondary Greek states—Athens, Thebes, and Corinth—B. C. 395. Thebes had already drifted into war with Sparta, and had defeated the Lacedæmonian army under Lysander at Haliartus. Lysander had been slain in this conflict, and Pausanias, who had arrived too late to relieve him, had sought refuge in the Temple of Athené, at Tegea, being afraid to return home after his failure. He had been succeeded on the throne by his son Agesipolis. In this emergency it became necessary for Agesilaus to discontinue his conquests in Asia Minor, and return home. About the same time the league against Sparta was strengthened by the accession of Eubœa, Acarnania, Western Locris, Ambracia, Leucadia, and Chalcidice in Thrace. In the spring of B. C. 394 a congress of the allies was held at Corinth, and it was proposed to march on Sparta at once. The movement was prevented by the rapid advance of the Spartans, who defeated the allies near Corinth. A second battle was fought soon after under Agesilaus, who had assumed the command of the Spartans, and the allies were once more defeated.

These successes were neutralized in the same year by the successes of Conon, who had come forward from his exile in Cyprus, and had been furnished with a fleet by Persia. He defeated the Spartan admiral Pisander off the peninsula of Cnidus in Caria, in B. C. 394, and released all the Asiatic Greeks from their dependence upon Sparta. Thus the maritime empire of the Spartans was lost more rapidly than it had been acquired. Persia had associated an admiral of her own with Conon in the command of the fleet. This officer, Pharnabazus, met the allied commanders at Corinth, and assured them of his hearty support. At the request of Conon he employed the sailors of the fleet in fortifying Piræus and rebuilding the Long Walls of Athens, and granted a considerable sum of money for that purpose. The grateful Athenians forgave Conon the disaster of Ægospotami,

and he was hailed as the restorer of his country.

The war was now conducted within the territory of Corinth, which was the principal sufferer. Sparta was so successful that Thebes, despairing of defeating her, attempted to make a separate peace with her. The Theban envoys were treated with contempt by Agesilaus, but their hopes were revived during their interview by the news of a victory over a Spartan detachment by a body of Athenians under Iphicrates. The effort for peace was at once discontinued. Other successes on the part of the Athenians caused Sparta to renew the efforts she had been making for some time to induce Persia to compel a general peace between the Greek states. This time she was successful. The Persian king dictated the terms of the treaty, known as the "Peace of Antalcidas," from the Spartan of that name who induced Artaxerxes to take the step. By intercepting the supplies of corn from the Euxine, the Persian fleet compelled Athens to accept the peace. The other states ratified it at once, B. C. 387. By the terms of this disgraceful treaty, the Greek cities of Asia were surrendered to Persia, who became the recognized arbiter of the affairs of European Greece.

The immediate consequences of the treaty were the separation of Corinth from Argos, and the loss to Thebes of her leadership of the Bœotian confederacy. The Spartans, as a means of weakening Thebes, re-established the little city of Plataea, and brought back to it as many as possible of its original inhabitants. Athens naturally supported this step, moved by her ancient friendship for the Plataeans, whose fidelity to her had caused their disaster, and Thebes became to a certain extent estranged from her. Under the pretext of looking after the enforcement of the terms of the treaty, Sparta extended her influence on all sides, and it was now more than ever evident to the Greeks that she designed bringing the entire peninsula into subjection to her. In B. C. 382, in a time of profound peace, a Spartan force seized the Cadmeia, the citadel of Thebes, and the Spartan government refused to surrender it in spite of the protestations of Thebes and the fact that the two states were on nominally friendly terms. By her insolence Sparta thus succeeded in rendering Thebes her implacable enemy.

The restless ambition of the Lacedæmonian state, having no proper field in the

peninsula in which to expend its energies, was now directed against a powerful confederacy on the northern border of Greece, composed partly of Greek and partly of Macedonian cities, under the leadership of Olynthus. The Olynthian war lasted four years, from B. C. 382 to 379, and resulted in the triumph of Sparta, who thus succeeded in removing the only formidable rival of Macedon—the only state which might have formed a barrier between Greece and the Macedonian conquerors.

Sparta was now at the height of her power. She was supreme on land, and at sea was as powerful as Athens. She had gained her predominance by her efforts against the liberties of Greece, and now sought to maintain it in the same way. Her unpopularity in Greece, which was due to the harshness with which she administered her authority, was increased by the intimacy of her alliance with the bitterest enemies of Grecian freedom—the Persians, the Macedonians, and the Syracusans. Fortunately she did not long hold her power. The day of retribution was close at hand.

Thebes had been for three years in the hands of the Spartan party, and its citadel was held by a Lacedæmonian garrison. A plot for its deliverance was formed by Pelopidas and other Theban exiles at Athens, and was entirely successful. The Spartan party in Thebes was overpowered, its leaders were put to death, and the city was regained by the patriotic party. At the same time Epaminondas, the noblest of the Thebans, reached Thebes and took part in the struggle. The Spartan garrison was besieged in the citadel, and surrendered on condition of being allowed to march out with the honors of war. The Spartans at once prepared to punish Thebes. By an unjustifiable outrage upon Athens they drove that city into alliance with Thebes, and she took her place at the head of the league against Sparta, B. C. 378. In the war which ensued Sparta was mainly unsuccessful. She was not able to cope with the Athenian fleet, which inflicted several severe defeats upon her navy. The Thebans, under their great leader Epaminondas, after suffering some preliminary reverses, succeeded in freeing their country. Athens now became jealous of the success of Thebes, and made an unsuccessful effort to secure a separate peace with Sparta. In B. C. 371 a general congress of the Greek states was held at Sparta, and a general peace con-

tracted, from which Sparta excluded Thebes. The bitter hatred existing between these states would permit no adjustment between them. The treaty is known as the "Peace of Callias."

War existed now only between Sparta and Thebes, and the latter city was regarded by the rest of Greece as doomed to certain destruction. Such would most likely have been the result of the war had not Thebes possessed in Epaminondas a leader equal to the emergency. He was the greatest general, and one of the noblest characters Greece ever produced, and withal a patriot who sought his country's good without a thought for himself. The Spartans promptly invaded Bœotia under Cleombrotus, from the direction of Phocis. They surprised and captured the port of Creusis on the Crissean Gulf, and took twelve Theban galleys. Continuing their advance into Bœotia, they were decisively defeated by the Theban army under Epaminondas in the great battle of Leuctra, with terrible loss, and were besieged in their fortified camp. So great a disaster had not befallen Sparta since the battle of Thermopylæ.

The news of the battle of Leuctra was received at Sparta with a characteristic assumption of indifference; all signs of mourning were forbidden; but every effort was put forth to rescue the defeated army from its perilous position. The whole remaining military force of the kingdom was despatched by sea from Corinth to Creusis. Before it could reach Bœotia the Thebans had asked assistance of Jason, the tyrant of Phæræ in Thessaly, which had been granted. By the advice of Jason, they permitted the besieged Spartans at Leuctra to evacuate the country, and this force marching to Creusis, and thence to the Megarid, met the army despatched to their relief on its march. The entire Spartan force at once returned to their own country.

Leuctra was fatal to the Spartan supremacy, which fell instantly to the ground. The defeat was the greatest disaster that had ever befallen Sparta, and it destroyed her influence over even the cities of the Peloponnesus. Her dependencies north of the Corinthian Gulf were lost to her, and were divided between the Thebans and Jason. For thirty-four years—since her victory at Ægospotami—Sparta had been supreme in Greece. She was now obliged to accept the loss of her power and take her place among the secondary states. The

next year, B. C. 370, another danger to Greece was removed by the assassination of the ambitious Jason, who had begun to show his intention to make himself master of the peninsula. His death was felt as a relief by all the Greek states. Athens, jealous of Thebes, called upon all the states to form a new alliance upon the terms of the peace of Antalcidas. The majority of the Peloponnesian states joined the league, which was known as the Arcadian confederation, and which secured the independence of every member. Elis refused to do so on the plea that she would thus deprive herself of her sovereignty over the Triphylian cities. Thus the Peloponnesian states became independent of Sparta, even those in which her authority had been undisputed for centuries.

The Mantineans seized the occasion to avenge the wrongs inflicted upon them by Sparta. They rebuilt their city, and invited Epaminondas to aid them. Towards the close of B. C. 370, Epaminondas entered Arcadia with an army which was swelled by Argive and Elean volunteers to 70,000 men, and advanced against Sparta itself. The advance was checked by Agesilaus, and Epaminondas contented himself with ravaging the valley of the Eurotas. He then returned to Arcadia, and devoted himself to the task of establishing the Arcadian league on a firmer basis. To avoid jealousies, he advised the members of the league to build a new city, which was called Megalopolis. It was made the capital of the league, and was peopled by settlers from forty Arcadian towns.

Epaminondas completed the humiliation of Sparta by restoring the Messenian state. The town of Messenê was rebuilt; its citadel was placed on the summit of Mount Ithomé, which had been the scene of the principal struggles of the first and second Messenian wars. The Messenians—descendants of those who had been exiled three centuries before by Sparta—came back at the call of Epaminondas, and the Messenian territories were restored very nearly as they had formerly existed.

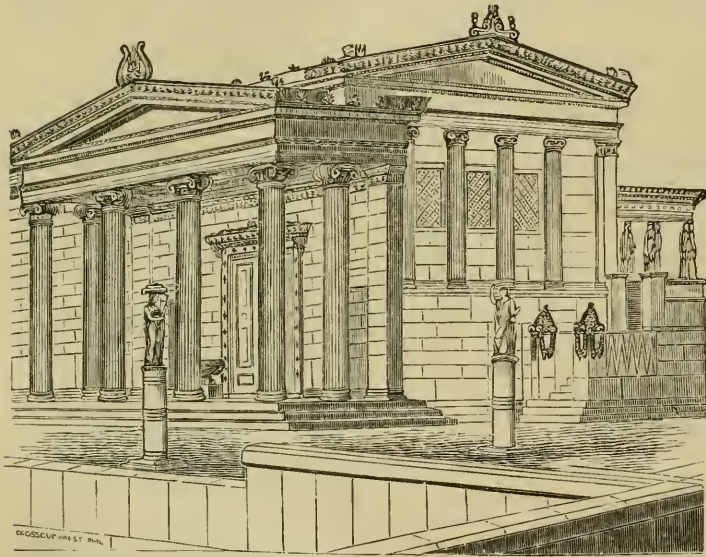
Sparta was now so thoroughly humbled that she sought the alliance of Athens, and the latter, alarmed by the growing power of Thebes, came to the help of her old enemy. Their combined forces were posted to hold the mountain passes of the isthmus in order to prevent the Thebans from reaching southern Greece, but Epaminondas

defeated a Spartan detachment, forced their line, and formed a junction with his allies in the Peloponnesus. At the same time Sicyon abandoned Sparta and joined the Theban league. An effort of the Thebans to take Corinth was repulsed, and about the same time a fleet bearing 2,000 mercenaries from Gaul and Spain, sent by Dionysius of Syracuse, arrived at Lechæum to the assistance of Athens and Sparta, B. C. 369. In B. C. 368 the Arcadians undertook to conquer the Messenian territory which remained in the hands of Sparta. They were defeated in an engagement known as "The Tearless Battle," so called because the Spartans gained their victory without the loss of a man. The Thebans viewed the defeat of their allies with complacency, as it taught them their dependence upon them for protection. They confined their efforts in this year to organizing a confederacy of the cities of Thessaly, and entered into an alliance with Macedonia. Among the hostages sent by the Macedonian King Amyntas II. to Thebes was his son Philip, then a youth of fifteen, but destined to become the master of Greece. He remained some years at Thebes.

The Thebans now (B. C. 367-366) entered into negotiations with the Persian king, who, since the peace of Antalcidas, had been the recognized arbiter of the fate of Greece, and succeeded in obtaining the sanction of Artaxerxes to the supremacy of Thebes. The independence of Messenê and Amphipolis was confirmed by the Persian king, and the Athenians were directed to lay their fleet up in ordinary. Elis was confirmed in the sovereignty of the Triphylian cities. The Thebans had great difficulty in procuring the acceptance of the Persian rescript by the other states. When Pelopidas visited Thessaly to secure its enforcement, Alexander of Pheræ threw him into prison, and defeated a Theban force sent to rescue him. Epaminondas then accomplished the release of Pelopidas, but he was prevented by the necessity of securing his friend's liberty from destroying the power of Alexander. In B. C. 363 the Thebans again invaded Thessaly under Pelopidas. He defeated Alexander, but was slain at the moment of victory, and his loss was regarded by his countrymen as outweighing their success. They wrested all of Alexander's possessions from him except the city of Pheræ, and brought the whole of northern Greece under the dominion of Thebes.

The Peloponnesus was now divided by an act of sacrilege. The Arcadians and their allies sent an army into Elis during the celebration of the Olympian Games, seized the sacred grove, expelled the Eleans from the management of the festival, and confided it to the Pisatans. The Eleans and Achæans attacked the invaders in the midst of the games, and a battle was fought upon the holy spot. The Arcadians repulsed the attack and plundered the temples of Olympia of their treasures. The Mantinean assembly sternly denounced the sacrilege and refused all participation in the sacred spoil. The Mantineans were then proclaimed traitors to the Arcadian league. The result was the disruption of

formed of this movement, regained Sparta by a forced march in time to meet the Theban attack, and, in a battle fought in the streets of his capital, compelled the invaders to withdraw. The Thebans then sought to surprise Mantinea. The citizens were unarmed and scattered through the harvest fields, and Mantinea must have fallen but for the opportune arrival of a detachment of Athenian cavalry, which, though hungry and weary with a long march, met and repulsed the Theban attack. The arrival of the Spartan army soon after obliged Epaminondas to fall back to Tegea. On the same day the two armies met in the upland plain—2,000 feet above the sea—between Tegea and Mantinea. In the bloody battle of Mantinea which ensued, the Mantineans and Spartans were utterly defeated. The Theban victory was dearly purchased. Epaminondas fell mortally wounded at the moment of victory. Realizing the loss his countrymen would suffer in his death, he spent his latest breath in advising them to make peace. With the death of her great hero the supremacy of Thebes came to an end. Having no one to take his place,



THE ERECHTHEUM—ATHENS.

that league. Peace was made with Elis, but Mantinea became the ally of Sparta, while Tegea, and the rest of the confederation, remained faithful to Thebes. Hostilities were so frequent between the two parties that Thebes was asked to intervene by her friends, while the Mantineans besought the assistance of Sparta.

In the summer of B. C. 362 Epaminondas invaded the Peloponnesus, and was joined at Tegea by his allies, while Agesilaus, with the Spartan army, marched to the assistance of Mantinea. By this movement Agesilaus uncovered his capital and placed Epaminondas nearer to it than himself. The Theban general was quick to profit by his adversary's error, and marched rapidly upon Sparta. Agesilaus, being in-

she soon fell back into her ordinary position. In accordance with the advice of Epaminondas, peace was made, matters being left in the condition in which the war had found them. Sparta refused to sign the treaty, but was unsupported by her allies, and was thus harmless.

Agesilaus, the Spartan king, though eighty years old, now set out for Egypt at the head of 1,000 heavy-armed troops, to assist Tachos in his revolt against Persia. The Egyptians, astonished at the appearance of the little, lame old man, which seemed to them unworthy of a king, mortally affronted him with their ridicule, and refused him the command of their army. He avenged himself by supporting the rebellion of Nectanebo and gaining the Egyp-

tian throne for him. The successful king repaid this service with 230 talents of gold, and Agesilaus set out on his return to Sparta. He died on his way home, and his body was embalmed in wax, carried to Sparta, and buried with great pomp. It has been said of him that he was "Sparta's most perfect citizen and most consummate general; in many ways, perhaps, her greatest man."

The peace of B. C. 362 remained unbroken on the continent of Greece for six years. During this time Athens and Alexander of Phæræ were engaged in hostilities at sea, and war was waged beyond the proper limits of Greece, between Athens on the one hand and Amphipolis, Macedon and the Thracian princes on the other. In B. C. 358 Eubœa, Amphipolis and the Chersonesus were again subdued, and Athens was once more the most powerful state of Greece. This year marks the culminating point of her second period of glory, and the beginning of her decline. In this year began what is known as "The Social War." Rhodes, Cos, Chios and Byzantium revolted from her, and were joined by Sestos and the other Hellespontine towns subject to Athens, and Caria sent aid to the insurgents. The war was very exhaustive to the Athenian treasury, and brought no profit to it. Funds for the payment of the sailors of the fleet being scarce, the Athenian commanders secured them by aiding Pharnabazus in his revolt against Persia. The great king now prepared to take part in the quarrel, against Athens, and the republic was obliged to avert his anger by consenting to the independence of the four revolted states and making peace. While the attention of Athens was thus engaged, Philip of Macedon rapidly seized her dependencies on the Thermaic Gulf, and made himself master of the entire region between the Nestus and the Peneus, and thus secured a footing in Greece.

In B. C. 357, during the prevalence of the social war, another struggle, called "The Sacred War," broke out in Greece. The hatred of Thebes towards the Phocians compelled the latter to fight for their existence. The Phocians seized the treasures of the temple of Delphi, and by a prudent use of them raised a large army of mercenaries, and even bought the alliance or neutrality of Athens, Achæa and Sparta at critical times. The Phocians, though de-

feated at first, were able, under Onomarchus, to conquer Socris and Doris, and to invade Bœotia and conquer Orchomenus in B. C. 353.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE MACEDONIAN SUPREMACY.

Description of Macedon—Origin of the Nation—Foundation of the Macedonian Monarchy—Tributary to Persia—Recovers its Independence—Early History of Macedon—Philip II.—He Conquers the Illyrians—Plans the Subjugation of Greece—His Vigorous Measures at Home—Encroachments upon the Athenian Possessions—Intervenes in the Affairs of Greece—Thebes asks Aid of Philip—He Makes Himself Master of Greece—Demosthenes—His Philippics—Philip Destroys the Olynthian Confederacy—The Second Sacred War—Battle of Charonea—Philip Supreme in Greece—He Induces the Greek States to Declare War Against Persia—Humiliation of Sparta—Death of Philip—Alexander the Great Becomes King of Macedon—His Early Training—Vigorous Measures of Alexander—He is Appointed to Command the Persian Expedition—Wars with the Barbarian Tribes—Revolt of Thebes—Alexander Takes the City and Destroys it—Alexander Crosses the Hellespont and Begins the Persian War—Battle of the Granicus—Conquest of Asia Minor—Alexander Cuts the Gordian Knot—Battle of Issus—Conquest of Syria, Phœnicia, and Egypt—Alexandria Founded—Battle of Arbela—Fall of the Persian Empire—Death of Darius—Capture of Babylon and Susa—Conquests of Alexander in the East—Excesses of the Conqueror—Murder of his Generals—Alexander Pushes his Conquests into India—Conquers Perus—Reaches the Hyphasis—His Troops Refuse to Advance Further—His Return to Susa—A Terrible March—Alexander Shares the Hardships of his Men—Orientalization of the Court of Alexander—His Wives—His Plans—His True Claim to Greatness—Preparations for the Conquest of Arabia—Last Illness and Death of Alexander.

THE struggle now took a wider range and drew a new and fatal element into the quarrels of Greece. This was none other than the Macedonian kingdom, which for several centuries had been acquiring strength on the borders of Greece, and had long desired to extend its authority over that country.

Macedonia lay beyond the borders of Greece proper, and immediately north of Thessaly. Its limits varied at different times, but the following may be taken as a fair description of its boundaries. On the north it was separated from Moesia by the mountains called Orbelus and Scomius; on the east from Thrace by the river Strymon; on the south from Thessaly by the Cambunian range; on the west from Illyria by a continuation of the great chain of the

Pindus mountains, known here as Scardus and Bernus. Macedonia proper comprised an area of about 6,000 square miles. The country was generally fertile, and was extremely varied in its character. High mountain chains, covered with snow during the greater part of the year, cut the kingdom in every direction, and enclosed a number of large and distinct basins which gave to this region its peculiar character. Some of these basins have a lake in their centre which receives the drainage; others are drained by rivers, which, with one ex-



MACEDONIAN COIN.

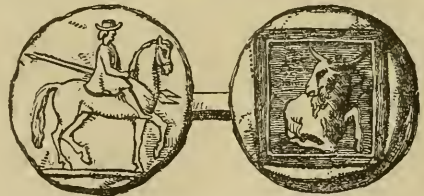
ception, flow eastward into the Ægean. "In both cases the basins are of large extent, offering to the eye the appearance of a succession of plains. The more elevated regions are for the most part richly wooded, and abound with sparkling rivulets, deep gorges, and frequent waterfalls; but in places this character gives way to one of dulness and monotony, the traveller passing for miles over a succession of bleak downs and bare hillsides, stony and shapeless."

The Macedonians were probably of Illyrian origin, and were regarded by the Greeks as barbarians, or people not of Hellenic descent. The Macedonian kings claimed to be of pure Hellenic blood, and traced their descent to Temenus of Argos.

The early history of Macedon is obscure. The monarchy is believed to have been founded by Perdiccas I., somewhere about B. C. 700, but nothing is known with certainty of its history until the reign of Amyntas I., who was contemporary with the Pisistratidæ at Athens and Darius I. of Persia. In B. C. 507 he submitted to Darius I., and Mardonius, in his first expedition against Greece, in B. C. 492, reduced Macedonia to the condition of a province of the Persian empire. Its native sovereigns governed merely as tributaries of the great king. After the defeat of Xerxes it became free once more, and began to extend its territories slowly along the northern coast of the Ægean, moving steadily to the eastward. Two rival powers barred its progress in this quarter—the Thracian

kingdom of Sitalces, and the Athenians, who had colonized the Chalcidian peninsula with Greek cities. Archelaus I., who reigned from B. C. 413 to B. C. 399, improved his country very much by the construction of roads and of fortresses along the frontier to keep back the barbarian tribes. He made Pella his capital, and endeavored to spread among his people a love of literature and art, of which he was a munificent patron. He was assassinated in B. C. 399. The next great sovereign was Perdiccas III., who came to the throne in B. C. 364. Five years later he was slain in battle. He left an infant son, Amyntas, but his brother Philip succeeded to the crown, B. C. 359.

Philip II., the son of Amyntas II. and brother of Perdiccas III., was but twenty-three years old when he became regent. It was a critical period in the history of his country. His claim was disputed by four princes; the western provinces of the kingdom had been overrun by the Illyrians, and the eastern were in danger of being seized by Thrace and Pæonia. Philip at first acknowledged his nephew's succession, and having propitiated Athens and Thrace, marched against the Illyrians, and adopting the tactics of Epaminondas, which he had studied during his residence in Thebes, inflicted upon them a series of defeats which completely broke their power. He then deposed his nephew and neutralized the efforts of the pretenders to the crown.



TETRADRACHM OF ARCHELAUS, KING OF MACEDON.

Until now he had professed a warm friendship for the Athenians. Now that he was free from danger at the hands of the Illyrians, he began the aggressions upon the Athenian possessions in the East to which reference has already been made. Taking advantage of the social war which occupied the Athenians, he suddenly attacked and captured Amphipolis, and then conquered the entire coast district between the Strymon and the Nestus. He thus became master of the rich Thracian gold mines, which yielded him an annual revenue of

1,000 talents. He organized his army on the principles which he had learned at Thebes, and by introducing into it the most rigid discipline, succeeded in rendering it irresistible, and was thus able to carry out his designs by its superiority to any force of Greece or Asia. Having made himself master of the Athenian possessions on the Ægean, he proceeded to put in execution the design which he had formed from the first of becoming the supreme master of Greece. The quarrels between the tyrants of Thessaly gave him the pretext he desired.

The Aleuadæ of Larissa, disgusted with the tyranny of the successors of Alexander of Pharæ, asked assistance of Philip against those rulers. He promptly granted their request, and entering Thessaly at the head of his army, marched against Pharæ. Lycophron, the tyrant of that city, besought aid of Onomarchus, who sent an army to his assistance. Philip defeated this force, and Onomarchus led a second army in person into Thessaly, and defeated Philip in two pitched battles, and compelled him to withdraw from Thessaly. He then returned to Bœotia and captured Chæronea. Philip now invaded Thessaly a second time, and Onomarchus marched to meet him. He was defeated and slain, and Philip became master of Thessaly, B. C. 352. Philip now marched southward as far as the Pass of Thermopylæ, but finding it strongly guarded by an Athenian force, withdrew. He then made himself master of Thrace and the Chersonese.

Meanwhile the sacred war went on. The treasures of the Delphian temple becoming exhausted, the Phocians began to show signs of weakness. In the twelfth year of the war, B. C. 346, Thebes, reckless of the consequences of such a step, called in Philip, who had long since assumed the character of the champion of the Delphic god, to crush Phocis. The Macedonian king was quick to respond to the invitation which held out so many advantages to him. Having secured the neutrality of Athens, he moved through the pass of Thermopylæ without resistance, and in a brief campaign utterly subdued Phocis, and was admitted into the Amphictyonic council in the place of that state.

Philip was now the real master of Greece. Athens alone was capable of resisting him, but the Athenians had no leader able to contend with him. Moreover, a strong Macedonian party began to spring up in Athens

itself. The great orator Demosthenes had long foreseen the danger which threatened the liberties of Greece, and when Philip began the execution of his ambitious designs, the result of which the orator clearly comprehended, Demosthenes endeavored to arouse his countrymen to a sense of their danger, and to stimulate them to an energetic resistance to the Macedonians. His Philippics, or orations against Philip, are justly regarded as amongst the grandest outbursts of eloquence, and the most powerful denunciations of aggression on record. When Philip attacked the Olynthian Confederacy, the last barrier between himself and Greece, Demosthenes exerted himself nobly to induce the Athenians to succor Olynthus. An expedition for its relief was determined upon, but it was too late. Olynthus was betrayed by two of its leading citizens, and was taken in B. C. 347. Philip razed it to the ground, and sold its inhabitants into slavery. As he had taken all the other Chalcidian cities before besieging Olynthus, he was now master of the entire confederacy. A proficient in intrigue, Philip then exerted himself to strengthen the party at Athens and throughout Greece, favorable to him. He succeeded in making peace with Athens, as it was his policy to conciliate that state for the present, and accepted the invitation of the Thebans to crush Phocis, as has just been related. At the close of the sacred war, Athens alone was capable of resisting the Macedonian advance, but Macedon had become the leading state in Greece. The Athenians were now fully alive to a sense of their danger. The wisdom of Demosthenes was vindicated by the result of the war, and his influence was greatly increased among his countrymen.

The aggressions of Philip on the Bosphorus embroiled Athens and Macedon in hostilities in B. C. 340. In the next year, the struggle known as the "Second Sacred War" began, and gave to Philip the opportunity of executing his long cherished design of making himself master of Greece. The Locrians of Amphissa having been accused of sacrilege, the Amphictyonic council punished them by levying a fine upon them, which they refused to pay. Philip of Macedon was thereupon named general of their forces by the Amphictyons, and ordered to carry out the decree against Amphissa. Being thus admitted to the very heart of Greece, Philip, instead of proceeding against Amphissa, seized Elatea,

the chief town in the eastern part of Phocis. It was now clear that his real design was against Bœotia and Attica. Those states formed an alliance to resist him, though it was with difficulty that the Athenians induced Thebes to take the decisive step. On the 7th of August, B. C. 338, Philip defeated the allied Theban and Athenian armies at Chæronea, in spite of their heroic resistance. He was now supreme in Greece. With the exception of Sparta, every Grecian state acknowledged his sovereignty.

It was the policy of Philip to engage the Greeks in some important enterprise in accord with the national feeling, which should prevent them from reflecting upon their lost liberties. He had long meditated the chastisement of Persia for the injuries she had inflicted upon his own country and upon Greece, and now resolved to put his scheme in execution. He summoned a congress of the Greek states at Corinth. Sparta alone refused to take part in the assembly. The result of the conference was that war was declared against Persia, and Philip was assigned the supreme command of the expedition, each state being required to furnish a certain contingent of troops and ships.

Before embarking upon this expedition, Philip resolved to punish Sparta for her hostility to him. He entered the Peloponnesus with a strong army, marched down the eastern coast, and returned by the western, meeting with scarcely any resistance. Indeed his march was more like a royal progress. The western states of Greece, north of the isthmus, submitted to him, and a Macedonian garrison was stationed in Ambracia. His authority being now undisputed in Greece, Philip returned to Macedon to prepare for the Persian expedition, and in B. C. 336 was assassinated by a young man named Pausanias, who claimed to have suffered an injury at his hands.

Philip was succeeded by his son Alexander III., called "the Great." Alexander was born B. C. 356, and was but twenty years old when he came to the throne. His education had been carefully conducted by the best of teachers. Leonidas, a kinsman of his mother, had trained him in the Spartan habits of endurance and hardihood; and Lysimachus had early aroused the ambition of the prince by teaching him to love and emulate the heroes of Homer, and by implanting in him a belief in the family tradition that the blood of the great hero Achilles ran in his veins. At the age of

thirteen he was confided to the care of Aristotle, who for several years directed his education. "Thus the greatest conqueror of the material world received the instructions of him who has exercised the most extensive empire over the human intellect." Alexander always cherished a warm affection for the great philosopher, and it was from him that he drew the enlarged and statesmanlike views that raised him above the level of an ordinary conqueror. He excelled in manly sports, and possessed a constitution which enabled him to laugh at fatigue and privation. From his father he inherited a profound ambition, and from his mother a fiery temper and an imperious will. At the age of sixteen he was made regent of Macedonia during his father's absence, and when only eighteen he commanded one of the wings of the Macedonian army in the battle of Chæronea, and decided the fortunes of the day.

He came to the throne in the midst of difficulties and dangers. The more powerful Greek states were preparing to shake off the Macedonian yoke, esteeming the young king too weak to continue the vigorous policy of his father. Thebes, indeed, went so far as to threaten open rebellion against Macedon. Alexander was equal to the emergency. He secured the adhesion of the Thessalians, partly by flattery and partly by a display of force, summoned the Amphictyonic council at Thermopylæ and compelled it to confer upon him the command with which his father had been invested. He then marched upon Thebes and prevented the revolution. The other Greek states were convened in a congress at Corinth, and, apprehensive of incurring the wrath of one whom they now saw they had evidently misjudged, appointed him generalissimo for the Persian war in the place of his father. Sparta alone held aloof, still clinging to the phantom of the supremacy she had once possessed, but Alexander did not deem it worth while to chastise her into submission. The remainder of the year was spent by him in subduing the Thracians, Tribalians, Getæ, and the Danubian tribes on the east, and the Illyrians and Taulantians on the west. By these victories Alexander not only gained an immense booty, but compelled these nations, who were about to attack Macedon, to cease their annoyances.

While he was thus engaged, a report of his death was circulated in Greece. Thebes

at once rose in rebellion, and was furnished with assistance by Athens. Before the report was contradicted, Alexander suddenly appeared in Bœotia, and advanced against Thebes. He offered the leaders of the rebellion an opportunity to surrender, but they replied to his proposals with insults; whereupon he attacked and captured Thebes, and entirely destroyed it, with the exception of one house—that of Pindar the poet. The Cadmeia was preserved and garrisoned with Macedonian troops. The inhabitants were massacred in large numbers at the capture of the city; the remainder were sold into slavery.

Alexander had now nothing more to fear from Greece. He had impressed the Hellenic states too deeply with a sense of his energy and vigor for them to dream of attempting a fresh revolt. He could now apply himself to the conquest of the Persian dominions. He made Antipater regent of Macedonia and Greece, and with an army of 30,000 infantry and 5,000 cavalry, of which force 12,000 foot were Macedonians, crossed the Hellespont in the spring of B. C. 334. Passing the strait in advance of his army he hastened to the plain of Troy, and visited the scenes made memorable in his beloved Iliad, after which he rejoined his army near Abydos. The Persians had taken position, under Memnon, of Rhodes, an able general, near Zela, on the Granicus, to dispute the advance of the invaders. Alexander forced a passage of the river and routed the Persian army, taking, among other prisoners, 2,000 mercenary Greeks. After the battle he visited the wounded, and decreed that the families of all his slain soldiers should be exempted from taxation. Sardis, Ephesus, Magnesia, and Tralles surrendered at the approach of the victors, and Miletus capitulated after a short siege. The activity and genius of Memnon delayed the movements of Alexander for some time, but in spite of him Alexander succeeded in making himself master of a large part of Asia Minor during the remainder of the year. Still he seems to have been unwilling to remove his army far from the Ægean as long as Memnon was alive. The death of that commander in the spring of B. C. 333 removed the last obstacle to his success and placed the Persian empire at his mercy.

Alexander passed the winter at Gordium, the ancient capital of Phrygia. In the Acropolis of this city was kept the

wagon or chariot in which Midas, the son of Gordium, one of the ancient Phrygian kings, had entered the town with his parents, and had been by the direction of the oracle made king. An ancient prophecy predicted that he who should untie the knot of bark which fastened the yoke of the wagon to the pole, should become the master of Asia. Alexander repaired to the citadel to attempt this feat, and, drawing his sword, cut the Gordian knot through. That night a violent storm of thunder and lightning burst over the city, which was interpreted by the superstitious people as a divine intimation that the conqueror had fulfilled the prediction.

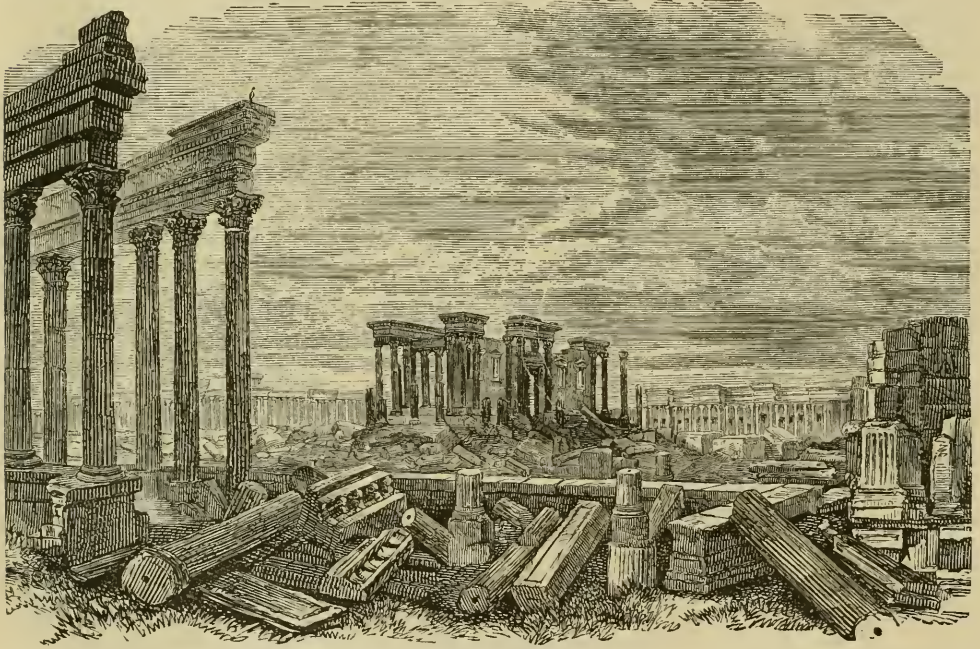
In the spring of B. C. 333 Alexander resumed his advance to the eastward, receiving the submission of Paphlagonia and meeting no resistance from Cappadocia, and finally passed the Taurus range and entered the plains of Cilicia. Here he was delayed by a dangerous fever caused by his imprudence in bathing. He remained at Tarsus until he had recovered, and then continued his march to Mallus, still clinging to the coast. Here he learned that Darius was advancing to meet him at the head of 600,000 fighting men. The Persian king, impatient of delay, had resolved to seek Alexander, whose youth he despised. The two armies met near Issus, and while the Persians were still entangled in the mountains, in a position so cramped that they were not able to profit by their superior numbers, they were attacked by the Macedonians. A desperate battle ensued, in which the skilful dispositions of Alexander and the valor of his troops secured him the victory. The Persians were routed and driven from the field with fearful loss. Darius saved himself only by the speed of his horse, but his camp, and his mother and wife fell into the hands of the victor. The royal ladies were treated with the most respectful consideration by the young conqueror.

The battle of Issus was fought in November, B. C. 333. Alexander's genius was strikingly illustrated by the use which he made of it. Knowing that it would require a considerable time for Persia to recover sufficiently from her disaster to be able to take the field again, he suffered Darius to escape, and turned southward to conquer the Mediterranean coast and Egypt, by which he would effectually secure the safety of Macedon and Greece. All the Phœni-

cian cities but Tyre submitted. That city resisted him for seven months, trusting to its insular position for success. Alexander collected the ruins of old Tyre, built a wide causeway with them from the mainland to the city, took it by storm and destroyed it in July, B. C. 332. Eight thousand Tyrians fell by the sword, and 30,000 were sold into slavery. Gaza also resisted, and was captured after a siege of two months. Jerusalem next yielded to him, as has been related. Continuing southward, he entered Egypt, where he was gladly welcomed. The Egyptians had bitterly hated the Persians since the time of Cambyses, and they

the ancient kingdom into direct relations with the European world.

All the maritime provinces of Persia were now in the hands of Alexander, who was complete master of the sea. He now retraced his steps and advanced to the eastward once more, to complete the conquest of the Persian empire. Moving through Samaria and Syria, he crossed the Euphrates at Thapsacus about the end of August, B. C. 331, and advanced through the fertile region of Mesopotamia towards the Tigris, on the left bank of which stream he was informed that Darius awaited him. Darius had collected the full force of his



RUINS OF CORINTH.

welcomed the Greeks as deliverers. Alexander won their friendship by the respect with which he treated their religion, a policy in striking contrast with the contempt that had been heaped upon it by the Persians. He founded the city of Alexandria, at the mouth of the western branch of the Nile, selecting with the genius of a born statesman the most favorable commercial site in Egypt. Undoubtedly the new city owed much to the Ptolemies in future times, but so admirable was the choice of its founder that a city so located could not under any circumstances have failed to become a great metropolis. Alexander made it the capital of Egypt, and thus brought

empire, and is said to have assembled a million of men under his standard, of whom 50,000 were Greek mercenaries. He had taken position in one of the extensive plains east of the Tigris, between that stream and the Kurdistan mountains, about twenty miles from the town of Arbela, which gave its name to the battle which ensued there. He had selected this position in order that he might be free to manoeuvre his immense force. The Macedonian army consisted of but 40,000 infantry and 7,000 horse. It was made up of *European* soldiers, however, and its commander was the first general of his time. Early in September Alexander attacked the Persian army in its

chosen position, and inflicted upon it such a crushing defeat that Persia was unable to offer any further resistance. Darius fled from the field before the battle was decided, and his army quickly followed his example. Alexander pursued the fugitives with such vigor that as many were drowned in trying to cross the Lycus as fell on the field of battle. A few hours were passed by the Greeks in resting from their fatigue, and then the army pushed on to Arbela. Darius had fled far beyond that city, but the whole of the royal baggage and treasure was captured there.

Finding it useless to pursue the fugitive king any farther, Alexander marched to Babylon, which surrendered at his approach. He made a magnificent entry into the famous city. The Persians had been severe persecutors of the Chaldæan religion; Alexander won the affection of the Babylonians, as he had that of the Egyptians, by restoring their temples and protecting their religion. Susa had already promptly surrendered to a detachment of the conquering army sent to seize it immediately after the battle of Arbela, and in November, Alexander, after leaving a garrison in Babylon, marched to Susa with his whole army. The Persian treasury was captured there, containing 40,000 talents (\$48,000,000) in gold and silver bullion, and 9,000 in golden darics (\$10,800,000). Besides this, the spoils carried away from Greece by Xerxes were recovered. These were sent back to Athens.

At Susa Alexander received a reinforcement of 15,000 men from Greece, and the news of the revolt of Sparta against Antipater. He sent a considerable sum to the regent to aid him in putting down the disturbances, and then pressed on into the heart of the Persian empire. He stormed and carried the difficult mountain pass called "The Persian Gates," which was defended by the Satrap Ariobarzanes with over 40,000 men, and advanced to Persepolis, which surrendered without striking a blow. The treasure captured here is said to have exceeded that found at Babylon and Susa, and to have amounted to the enormous sum of 120,000 talents, or \$144,000,000.

Not satisfied with his victories, Alexander continued his advance into Media, where Darius had collected his forces for a last stand. On the approach of the conqueror the Persian king fled through the Caspian

Gates into Bactria, where he was murdered by Bessus the satrap, who assumed the title of King of Persia. Alexander caused the dead monarch to be interred with royal pomp with his ancestors at Passargadaë. The Greek mercenaries of Darius now joined the ranks of the conqueror, who continued his march deeper into the heart of the empire, the eastern provinces of which submitted at his approach and were reorganized and attached to his dominions. Bessus, the murderer of Darius, was captured in Sogdiana, and was put to death with cruel tortures for his treason and usurpation. The conqueror founded a new city, which he called Alexandria, on the Jaxartes, and inflicted a severe chastisement upon the Scythians, and returned to Bactria and went into winter-quarters at Zariaspa, B. c. 329.

But the fairly-won fame of Alexander had been tarnished by a brutal exercise of power. Elated by his conquests he had assumed the pomp and dress of a Persian king, and had given offence to some of his generals thereby. Philotas, the son of Parmenio, the ablest of the Macedonian generals, had made some disparaging remarks upon the change in the habits and manners of the king, and was put to death on the unsustained charge of plotting against the life of his sovereign. Parmenio was also slain by order of Alexander for his alleged participation in the same plot. The next year in a drunken revel Alexander slew with his own hand his friend Clitus, who had saved his life at the battle of the Granicus, and who had offended him by refusing to join in the fulsome adulation of the courtiers.

In B. c. 328 Sogdiana was subdued, and the next year Alexander advanced into India. His army had been largely recruited from among the Asiatic nations, and is said to have numbered 120,000 foot and 15,000 horse. He marched through the Punjab, or the region of the "Five Rivers," without encountering any resistance until he reached the Hydaspes, where Porus, an Indian monarch, endeavored to stop his progress with a large force of men and elephants. A bloody battle ensued, in which Porus was defeated and made a prisoner. Alexander asked his captive how he wished to be treated. "As a king," replied Porus. "And have you no other request?" asked Alexander. "No," was the reply, "everything is comprehended in the word king."

Struck with this spirited answer, Alexander restored Porus to his throne, and thus changed an enemy into a friendly vassal.

Alexander halted for a month on the Hydaspes to rest his army, and during this time founded two cities. One of these he called Nicæa, in commemoration of his victories; the other Bucephala, in honor of his favorite war-horse Bucephalus, which is said to have died here. Then resuming his march he overran the whole of the Punjab as far as its southern boundary, the river Hyphasis, the modern Ghara. He was very anxious to cross this stream and conquer the country beyond it, but the army, worn out with fatigue and hardship, refused to advance any farther. Finding it impossible to prevail upon the troops to continue the march, Alexander yielded with as good a grace as possible to the inevitable. Pretending that the sacrifices were unfavorable for the passage of the Hyphasis, he erected twelve colossal altars on its banks to mark his conquests in this direction, and gave the order to retreat. He returned to his new cities on the Hydaspes, from which he determined with characteristic enterprise to return to Babylon by a different route from that by which he had come. He had caused a fleet of 2,000 ships to be constructed when he first advanced into the Punjab. It was now ready, and embarking with 8,000 men on these he descended the Indus, which he at first believed to be a branch of the Nile, while the army marched along the shore. But little resistance was encountered except from the tribe of the Malli, in the capture of whose town Alexander came near losing his life. Two new cities were built at the junction of the chief tributary of the Indus, the Acesines (Chenab), and the entire valley was reduced to submission. Arriving at the Indian Ocean Alexander sent Nearchus with the fleet to the Persian Gulf, while he marched by land to Persepolis and Susa. His route lay through Gedrosia (Beloochistan) and Carmania. It was the most terrible march he had ever attempted. In crossing the Gedrosian desert more men died than had fallen during the entire expedition. Alexander shared the hardships and privations of his troops, marching with them on foot and enduring all that they were called upon to bear. In spite of his losses, however, he reached Persepolis with the bulk of his army, a force strong enough to enable him not only to maintain his con-

quests, but to attempt new ones. Persepolis was reached in the early winter of B. C. 326. The next year Alexander returned to Susa. Here he gave his army several months of much-needed rest, and applied himself to the organization of his empire.

Two years previous he had married Roxana, a beautiful Bactrian princess whom he had captured, and he now took for a second wife Statira, the eldest daughter of Darius III., hoping by this union to conciliate his Eastern subjects. He bestowed the hand of her sister Drypetis on Hephæstion, and promoted the marriages of about one hundred of his officers with Eastern women of rank. At the same time ten thousand of his soldiers took Asiatic wives, and were given rich presents by the king. Twenty thousand Persians were admitted into the army and trained in the Macedonian discipline. Persian satraps were placed over a number of the provinces, and the court was composed of about an equal number of Europeans and Asiatics. The manners and habits of the king conformed more and more to those of an Eastern despot. These changes gave great offence to the Macedonian veterans, who at length broke out into open revolt when the king proposed to dismiss such Macedonians as were wounded or otherwise disabled. Alexander promptly seized thirteen of the leaders of the mutiny and put them to death, and with great address succeeded in bringing the others to a sense of their dependence upon him. They besought pardon, and were forgiven, and ten thousand veterans were sent back to their homes beyond the sea.

Alexander was no vulgar conqueror, and his title of Great does not rest simply upon his conquests. He had conceived the design of founding a vast empire which should comprise the then known world. He did not intend merely to bring these countries under his sway, but his plans comprehended their improvement as well. He caused the rivers of the countries conquered by him to be freed from obstructions, encouraged commercial enterprises, and gave a new impetus to Oriental industry. Wherever he went he left the Greek language and some portion of Greek cultivation as a priceless legacy to the countries through which he passed. This universal spread of the Greek tongue was all-powerful in drawing the nations of the old world into a closer and more intimate contact with each other.

Greek became the language of commerce, as well as of the court. At a later period the Hebrew Scriptures, translated into Greek, were made accessible to the whole world, and the way was thus paved for the mission of Him of whom these Scriptures testified.

Alexander intended to extend his conquests into Arabia, and after subduing that country to conquer Carthage, then Italy, and then Europe. Babylon was to be his capital, and he caused the construction of a harbor to be begun which should change the inland city into the principal port of the East.

In the spring of B. C. 324 he went from Ecbatana to Babylon. The preparations for the Arabian expedition were rapidly pushed forward, and in the meantime Alexander occupied himself with surveying the course of the Euphrates and devising plans for its improvement. While thus engaged in the unhealthy Chaldean marshes he contracted a fever, which prostrated him soon after his return to Babylon, and in the midst of the final preparations for, and the banquets which were to precede, his departure for Arabia. At these carousals the king drank deep, and at the termination of one he was seized with the fever. He neglected it for some days, but at length was confined to his bed. He succumbed rapidly to the malady, and it was evident to all that his end was near. As he lay speechless on his death-bed his favorite troops were admitted to take leave of him. He could only stretch out his hand to them in mute recognition, while the hardened veterans sobbed in uncontrollable grief. He died on the 28th of June, B. C. 323, at the age of thirty-two, and in the thirteenth year of his reign.

CHAPTER IX.

FROM THE DEATH OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT TO THE ROMAN CONQUEST.

Consequences of the Death of Alexander—Arrangements of his Generals—Philip Arrhidaeus made King—Division of Alexander's Dominions Among his Generals—Birth of the Son of Alexander—Quarrels of Alexander's Successors—Their Wars—Battle of Ipsus—Final Division of Alexander's Dominions—Matters in Greece—Final Conquest of Athens by Macedon—Philip IV. of Macedon—Demetrius Becomes King of Macedon and Greece—Goes to War with Syria—Loses Macedon—Macedon Subject to Thrace—Seleucus Master of Alexander's Empire—Ptolemy Ceraunus King of Macedon—His Cruel Reign—Irruption of the Gauls into Greece—Antigonus Gonatus King of

Macedon—Wars with Pyrrhus—Death of Pyrrhus—Antigonus Master of the Whole of Greece—The Achaean League—It Frees the Peloponnesus from Macedon—Demetrius II. is Succeeded by Philip V.—Failure of the Effort to Revive the Power of Sparta—Philip Makes War Upon the Ætolians—Allies himself with Carthage—Attacks the Roman Possessions—Is Defeated and Compelled to Make Peace—Renews the War—Is Defeated and Compelled to Retire to Macedonia—The Achaean and Ætolian Leagues—The Latter Made Subject to Rome—Further Humiliation of Philip—His Death—Perseus King of Macedon—Rome Declares War Against Macedon—Perseus Conquered and Taken Prisoner—Conquest of Greece by the Romans.

THE unexpected death of Alexander threatened his great empire with disruption, as he had appointed no successor. On the day of his death a council of his generals was called to decide upon the proper course to be pursued. The king on his death-bed had given his ring to Perdicas, and that general now took a leading part in the discussions of the council. Roxana, the wife of Alexander, was pregnant at the time of his death, and it was agreed that if she should give birth to a son he should inherit his father's crown. After considerable difficulty the council agreed to an arrangement on the following basis: That Philip Arrhidaeus, an illegitimate brother of Alexander the Great, and a young man of weak intellect, should be declared king, "reserving, however, to the child of Roxana, if a son should be born, a share in the sovereignty; that the government of Macedonia and Greece should be divided between Antipater and Craterus; that Ptolemy, who was reputed to be connected with the royal family, should preside over Egypt and the adjacent countries; that Antigonus should have Phrygia proper, Lycia, and Pamphylia; that the Hellespontine Phrygia should be assigned to Leonnatus; that Eumenes should have the satrapy of Paphlagonia and Cappadocia, which countries, however, still remained to be subdued; and that Thrace should be committed to Lysimachus. Perdicas reserved for himself the chiliarchy or command of the horse guards, the post before held by Hephæstion, in virtue of which he became the guardian of Philip Arrhidaeus, the nominal sovereign."

These matters being arranged, the last rites were paid to the remains of Alexander. His body was conveyed to Syria, and thence transported to Alexandria in Egypt, where it was deposited in a mausoleum erected by

Ptolemy I. In due time Roxana gave birth to a son, who was named Alexander, and declared joint sovereign of the empire. The real ruler was Perdiccas, who for two years kept the empire united and faithful to the family of Alexander. Four regents or guardians of the realm were appointed—two in Asia and two in Europe. Perdiccas murdered his co-regent and thus became sole ruler of Asia, but Antipater and Craterus administered the government west of the Hellespont. It was plain, however, that the various commanders who had been appointed to the provinces would seek to retain the dominions assigned them, and it was not long before they realized these anticipations. Seeing the impossibility of preserving the crown for the infant Alexander, Perdiccas resolved to seize it him-

In B. c. 319 Antipater died at Macedon. Instead of leaving the regency to his son Cassander, he appointed his friend Polyperchon his successor. Cassander at once joined Antigonus, who was prosecuting the war against Eumenes. Eumenes and Polyperchon were the only persons who were honestly seeking to maintain the integrity of the empire; Cassander, Antigonus, and Ptolemy sought its destruction as the means of their own aggrandizement. Antigonus defeated a royal fleet near Byzantium, and then drove Eumenes beyond the Tigris, where he was joined by a number of the Eastern satraps. Notwithstanding this reinforcement, Eumenes was defeated, and was delivered by his own troops to Antigonus, who put him to death, B. c. 316. In the same year Olympias, the mother of



THESSALONICA.

self. He was opposed by Antigonus and Ptolemy, the most important of the provincial rulers. The former had ambitious schemes of his own, and the latter meant to erect his dominions into an independent kingdom. Perdiccas was slain by his mutinous soldiers in a campaign against Ptolemy, and Craterus perished in a battle with Eumenes in Cappadocia. Antipater was thus left sole regent. He silenced Eurydice, the young wife of the mock king Philip Arrhidæus, who demanded to be admitted to a share of the government, and caused a new division of the provinces to be made, B. c. 320. Antigonus was intrusted with the war against Eumenes, and under the pretext of sustaining the royal authority, made himself master of the greater part of Asia Minor.

Alexander the Great, caused Philip Arrhidæus and his wife to be murdered. Not long afterwards she herself fell into the power of Cassander, who had become master of Macedonia and Greece, and was killed. Cassander now strengthened himself by marrying Thessalonica, the half-sister of Alexander the Great. He founded in her honor the city of Asia Minor which bears her name.

It was plain that Antigonus was seeking nothing less than the sovereignty of the entire East. In pursuance of this design he drove Seleucus from Babylon. The latter sought refuge in Egypt, and a new coalition was formed against Antigonus, consisting of Ptolemy, Seleucus, Cassander, and Lysimachus. A war of four years ensued, which exhausted all parties, and peace was made in B. c. 411, by which it was provided that the Greek cities should be free, that Cassander should exercise his authority in Europe until Alexander came of age—he was now sixteen years old—and that Ptolemy should retain Egypt and Lysimachus Thrace. Very soon after the negotiation of this treaty Cassander caused Roxana and the young Alexander to be secretly assassinated.

Seleucus, who had recovered Babylon, had also made himself master of Media, Susiania, and Persia, and was not a party to the peace. It was doubtless believed by his allies that he was strong enough to hold his conquests. The peace was broken in B. C. 310 by Ptolemy, who complained that Antigonus had not freed the Greek cities of Asia. Antigonus also complained that Cassander still maintained his garrisons in the cities of European Greece. The war was resumed. Ptolemy gained important successes at first in Cilicia, but was ultimately checked by Demetrius, the son of Antigonus. He

then transferred his operations to the opposite side of the Aegean, and occupied Sicyon and Corinth. He sought to secure in marriage the hand of Cleopatra, Alexander's sister and the last survivor of the royal house of Macedon, but Cassander prevented this by causing that princess to be assassinated, B. C. 308. Demetrius now arrived with a large fleet to the assistance of Athens. He did not remain there long, as he was recalled early in B. C. 306, and sent to besiege Cyprus, which had been seized by Ptolemy. Ptolemy

hastened to the relief of the island with 140 ships and 10,000 troops. A severe naval battle ensued off Salamis—one of the most memorable in the history of the world. Ptolemy was completely defeated and lost all his ships but eight, and 17,000 soldiers and sailors. Antigonus regarded this victory as of so much importance that he assumed the title of king. His example was followed by Ptolemy, Cassander, Lysimachus, and Seleucus.

Demetrius now undertook the siege of Rhodes, which he conducted with great

ability, but after a year spent in a vain endeavor to take the town he was obliged to retire. Rhodes took no part in the remainder of the war. During this year Cassander had been very successful in his efforts to bring Greece under his authority. He had taken Corinth and was besieging Athens when Demetrius arrived in the Euripus to the assistance of that city. Cassander at once raised the siege and marched against Demetrius, who defeated him in a battle near Thermopylae, after which the conqueror entered Athens, where he was joyfully received. Demetrius re-



BATTLE OF IPSUS.

mained in Greece two or three years, and during this time Cassander was unable to make any progress. He was recalled in the spring of B. C. 301, to the assistance of his father, who was threatened by the combined forces of Lysimachus and Seleucus. A great battle, which decided the struggle, was fought at Ipsus in Phrygia. Antigonus was utterly routed and slain. The wreck of his army was conducted by Demetrius to Ephesus, from which port he sailed to Cyprus, and afterwards proposed to go to Athens, but the Athenians refused to receive

him. The conquerors at Ipsus divided Asia between them. Ptolemy was in possession of Palestine, Phœnicia, and a part of Cœle-Syria, and was allowed to keep these provinces. Lysimachus received the greater part of Asia Minor, in addition to his Thracian kingdom, whilst Seleucus received all of western Asia not given to Lysimachus or held by Ptolemy, from the coast of Syria to the Euphrates. Cassander was not molested in Macedonia, and ruled that country until his death.

Greece still remained a possession of the Macedonian crown. Upon the death of Alexander the majority of the states had rebelled against Macedon, under the leadership of Athens. Antipater, the regent, endeavored to quell the revolt, but was defeated and besieged in the Thessalian town of Lamia. He now had recourse to diplomacy, and broke up the league of the Greeks by treating with each of its members separately. All were granted the most lenient terms except the leaders.



COIN OF THESSALONICA.

Athens was severely punished. Twelve thousand of her citizens were exiled to Thrace, Illyria, Italy, and Africa, and the remainder willingly submitted to the Macedonian authority. Demosthenes and the other leaders of his party were executed. Athens now had not a vestige of independence left, B. C. 321.

Cassander died in B. C. 298, three years after the battle of Ipsus. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Philip IV., who died in the same year. Thessalonica, the wife of Cassander, then divided Macedonia between her remaining sons, Antipater and Alexander. Antipater aspired to the undivided crown, and murdered his mother and invited his father-in-law, Lysimachus of Thrace, into Macedonia, to aid him in becoming master of the whole kingdom. Alexander asked aid of Demetrius, then master of Athens and the greater part of Greece, and of Pyrrhus, King of Epirus. The brothers were put to death by their respective allies, and Demetrius (B. C. 294) became King of Macedon and Greece. Sev-

eral of the western provinces having been ceded by Alexander to Pyrrhus, Demetrius undertook to recover them, but was defeated by Pyrrhus. At the head of a large army he then invaded Asia about B. C. 288, for the purpose of recovering the dominions of his father, Antigonus. To avert this invasion, Seleucus and Lysimachus induced Pyrrhus to attack Macedonia from the west, while Lysimachus invaded it from Thrace. This combined attack forced Demetrius to resign the Macedonian crown, B. C. 287. Later on he was made prisoner in an expedition into Asia against Seleucus, and kept in captivity until his death three years afterwards. Pyrrhus and Lysimachus quarrelled over the division of Macedonia, and the former was driven back into his own country, and Macedonia became a part of the Thracian kingdom. Five years later the nobles rebelled against Lysimachus and offered the crown to Seleucus, who defeated and slew Lysimachus in the battle of Corupedion, and became master of all his dominions. Seleucus now ruled over the whole of Alexander the Great's vast empire with the exception of Egypt. He was slain a few weeks later by Ptolemy Ceraunus, the disinherited son of Ptolemy I., who had taken refuge at his court. Ptolemy Ceraunus at once seized the Macedonian crown. His short reign was literally steeped in crime. He married his half-sister Arsinoë, the widow of Lysimachus, and murdered her children before her eyes and banished her to Samothrace, whence she fled to Egypt and became the wife of her brother Ptolemy II. The reign of Ceraunus was cut short by a sudden invasion of the Gauls, who burst into Macedonia about B. C. 280. He was slain in the effort to resist them, and his kingdom was ravaged far and wide. The next year the Gauls entered Thessaly in force and passed into central Greece. They were gallantly resisted by the Greeks, and being repulsed in their efforts to capture Delphi, broke up into predatory bands. Disease, exposure, and loss in battle destroyed the greater part; of the survivors some settled in the region of the Danube, others founded a kingdom in Thrace, and others still passed into Asia, where they gave their name to the country called Galatia.

Macedonia fell into a state of anarchy at the death of Ptolemy Ceraunus, and the crown was disputed by several pretenders. In B. C. 278 Antigonus Gonatus, the son of

Demetrius, who had continued to hold the kingdom of southern and central Greece, entered Macedonia at the head of an army of Gallic mercenaries, and made himself king. The Syrian King Antiochus Soter endeavored to expel him, but finding this impossible, acknowledged him as King of Macedonia and gave him his sister in marriage. Neither the Macedonians nor the Greeks submitted willingly to Antigonus, and upon the invasion of Macedonia by Pyrrhus, in B. C. 273, the Macedonian army allowed itself to be twice defeated by the Epirote king, and Antigonus became a fugitive. Pyrrhus was unquestionably the ablest warrior and ruler of his day, and had he sought to consolidate his conquests instead of attempting others, he might have retained the extensive domain of which he was now master. He was possessed, however, of a restless ambition which soon led him to attempt the conquest of southern Greece. He was repulsed in an attack upon Sparta, and killed in a night assault upon Argos by a tile thrown from a housetop by an Argive woman, B. C. 271.

Antigonus now returned, regained his throne in Macedon, and reigned for thirty-two years more. He made himself master of nearly the whole of the Peloponnesus, and governed it by means of tyrants whom he established in the various cities. With the aid of an Egyptian fleet and a Spartan army, he laid siege to Athens, which resisted him for six years. The Athenians were reduced to great extremities, and their city was captured about B. C. 262. During the siege of Athens Antigonus was obliged to return to Macedonia to meet an invasion of Alexander, the son of Pyrrhus, who had won so many successes that he had been acknowledged King of Macedonia. Demetrius, the son of Antigonus, drove Alexander back into Epirus, and even wrested that kingdom from him. He was obliged to restore Epirus, but Alexander wisely confined himself to his own dominions in future. In B. C. 242 Antigonus captured Corinth. With the exception of Sparta, he was now master of all Greece.

A new power had now arisen in Greece. The Achaean League, or the confederacy of the cities of Achaia, which had been suppressed by the successors of Alexander the Great, was revived in B. C. 251 by Aratus of Sicyon, who seized his native city and added it to the league. In B. C. 245 Aratus was elected Strategus, or general of the

league, and again in B. C. 243, in which latter year he captured Corinth from the Macedonians and added it to the confederacy, the object of which was to free Greece from Macedonian rule and re-establish the independence of its states. By his efforts the league soon embraced the whole Peloponnesus with the exception of Sparta, Elis, and some of the Arcadian towns. Antigonus, now an old man, did not attack the Achaean Confederacy, but retaliated by inducing the Aetolians to do so. He died in B. C. 239, and was succeeded by his son, Demetrius II.

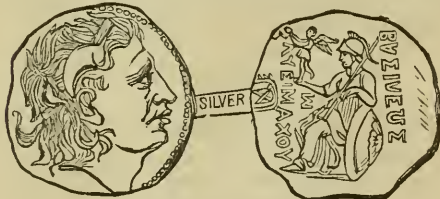
Demetrius made an alliance with Epirus. By so doing he alienated the Aetolians, who were enemies of that kingdom, and they joined their forces with those of the Achaean League against Macedon. Though Demetrius succeeded in driving the allied Greeks from Thessaly and Bœotia, he lost the Peloponnesus. The Aetolians having begun a series of aggressions upon Acarnania, Rome interfered for the first time in the affairs of Greece, and compelled the Aetolians to respect the integrity of Acarnania. In B. C. 228 the Romans obtained a footing in Greece by becoming masters of Coreyra, Apollonia, and Epidamnus. Demetrius II. died in B. C. 227, leaving his crown to his son Philip V., a boy of eight years. Antigonus Doson, a near kinsman of the young king, was made regent.

During all this while Sparta had retained her independence, but had lost even the shadow of her former power and greatness. Agis IV., who came to the throne in B. C. 244, endeavored to restore the ancient power and glory of his country by reviving the laws of Lycurgus, but lost his life in the attempt. Cleomenes, his successor, carried out these reforms some years later, and Sparta, thus reinvigorated, was able to inflict another defeat upon the forces of the Achaean League, and to detach from it the principal Achaian towns of the Peloponnesus, and make them her own allies. Aratus, the Strategus of the league, was now so hard pressed that he called in the aid of Antigonus Doson, the Macedonian regent, thus using the power of the league which had been formed to regain the liberties of Greece, to complete its enslavement. Sparta was unable to make head against this coalition, and in B. C. 221 Cleomenes was defeated in the battle of Sellasia, and obliged to take refuge in Egypt with Ptolemy IV. It was plain now that the effort to revive

Sparta had failed, that Greece must become the prize of either Macedon or Rome.

In B. C. 220 the regent, Antigonus, died, and Philip V., a youth of seventeen years, assumed the government. The wise and cautious policy of the regent had won great advantages for Macedon; Philip was now to lose them. His reign began with a war with the Ætolians, who, thinking that the accession of so young a sovereign would enable them to advance their interests at the expense of their rivals, invaded Messenia. Aratus went to the help of Messenia, with the Achæan army, but was defeated, and the Achæans begged aid from Philip, who readily responded to their appeal. He defeated the Ætolians in several engagements, and achieved so much substantial success in Greece that he could easily have reduced the whole of that country to submission to him. But after several years of brilliant success, he suddenly made peace with the Ætolians, in B. C. 217, and turned his attention to another quarter.

It had become his dearest wish to expel the Romans from the eastern coast of the Adriatic, and to conquer Italy. The great victory won over the Romans by Hannibal



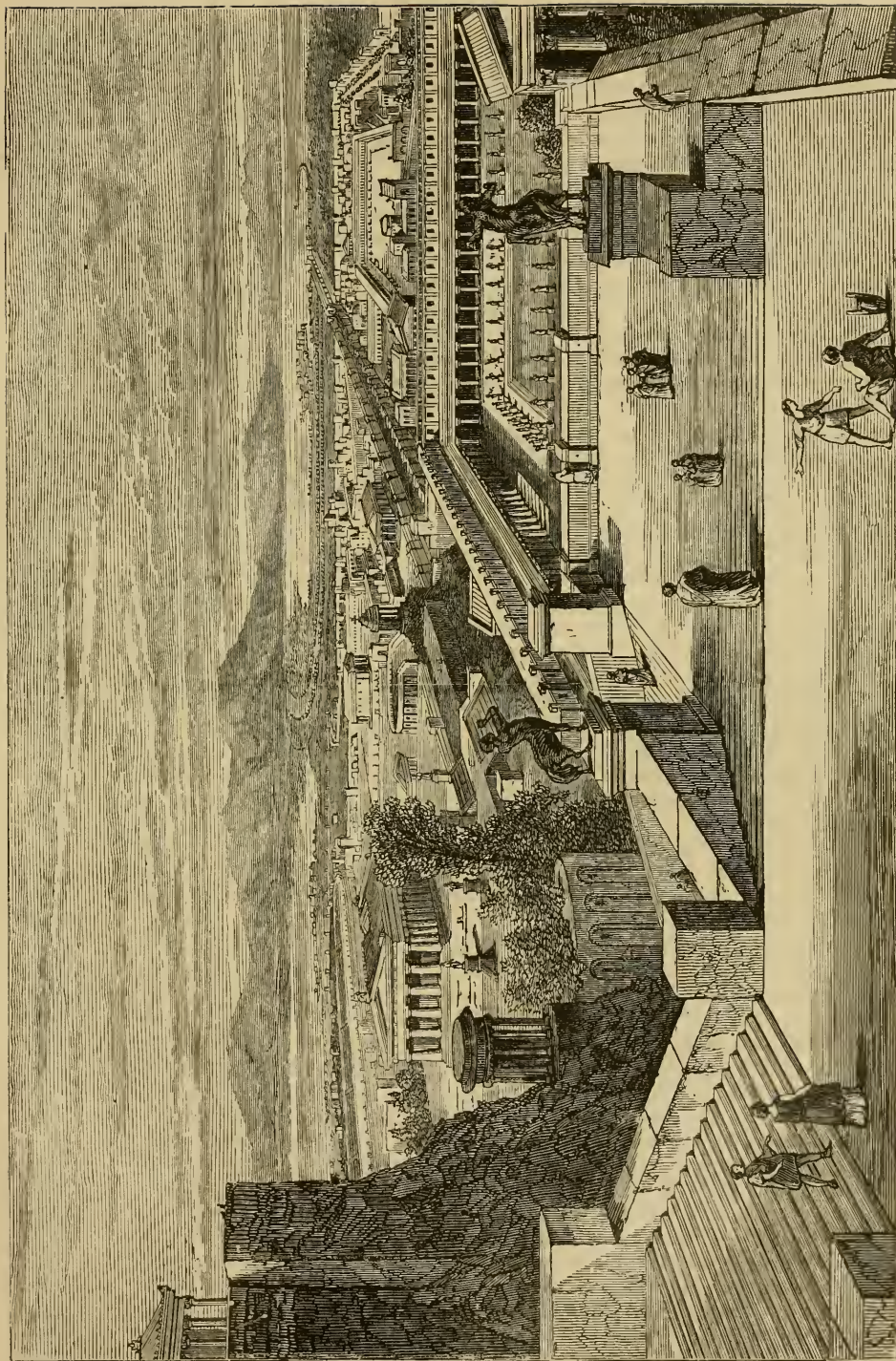
COIN OF LYSIMACHUS.

at Lake Trasimené seemed to him to have reduced the power of the republic to such a low ebb that, by a vigorous co-operation with the Carthaginians, he could secure the success of his plan. Accordingly, in B. C. 216, he began to negotiate with Hannibal for this purpose. His ambassadors were captured by the Romans, but the next year the negotiations were brought to a successful close. An alliance was formed between Macedon and Carthage, and in B. C. 214 Philip began the long-wished-for war with Rome by besieging Apollonia, the chief Roman seaport in Illyricum, and capturing Oricum. He soon found, however, that he had seriously miscalculated the power of Rome. The siege of Apollonia was raised by M. Valerius Lævinus, who surprised the Macedonian camp, and obliged Philip to burn his ships

and beat a hasty retreat. Still clinging to his schemes against Rome, Philip committed the mistake of arousing the hatred of the Greeks by his arbitrary and insolent treatment of them. Aratus, venturing to remonstrate with him, was poisoned by his order, B. C. 213.

In B. C. 211 the Romans, having recovered from their disasters in Italy, formed an alliance with the Ætolians, Eleans, Spartans, Illyrians, and Attalus, King of Pergamus, and carried the war into Philip's dominions, where they pressed him so hard that, instead of being able to send succor to Hannibal, he was forced to ask aid from Carthage. The Romans captured Zacythus, Nesos and Ceniadæ, Anticyra in Locris, and the island of Ægina, and turned them over to the Ætolians. The first two years of the war passed by with varying success. In B. C. 209 Philopæmen, the Achæan commander, put in force a series of reforms among the Achæans, which seemed to promise a revival of the ancient glories of Greece, and enabled them to gain the important victory of Mantinea, in B. C. 207, over the Lacedæmonian allies of Rome. This victory placed Philip in a position to dictate terms to the Ætolians, with whom a separate peace was made. The Romans, now anxious to devote all their energies to the destruction of Carthage, consented to a treaty of peace with Macedon, on terms honorable to both parties, B. C. 205. Philopæmen was hailed by the Greeks as the liberator of their country.

The unscrupulous and reckless ambition of Philip did not permit him to take advantage of the respite which this treaty gave him. Instead of seeking to consolidate his power in Macedon and Greece, and thus prepare for the final struggle with Rome, he began the execution of vast plans which were destined to prove his ruin. He concluded a treaty in B. C. 205 with Antiochus the Great, of Syria, for the partition of the possessions of Egypt, by which he hoped to gain Thrace and a part of Asia Minor. This measure involved him in a war with Rhodes and Pergamus (B. C. 203), which for their own preservation took up the Egyptian cause. In B. C. 201 the Macedonian fleet was signally defeated by the allied squadron off Chios. Philip subsequently gained the victory of Ladé, and made himself master of Thasos, Samos, Chios in Caria, and of several places in



CORINTH UNDER THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

Ionia. He was thus successful in the main objects of the war, but his success was more than counterbalanced by his gaining the bitter hostility of two powerful naval states and the ill-will of Ætolia. A more serious consequence of his acts was the renewal of the war with Rome. Pergamus was an ally of Rome, and had been included in the recent treaty of peace. In B. C. 200 Rome remonstrated with Philip upon his infraction of the treaty and the unprovoked war against her ally, but her warning was unheeded. In the same year Rome, having concluded the second Punic war, was free to turn her arms against Macedon, and war was declared against that kingdom.

The Roman declaration of war found Philip engaged in the siege of Athens. A Roman fleet arriving to the relief of the city, he was obliged to withdraw. Before he did so, however, he gratified his wrath by barbarously destroying the gardens and buildings in the suburbs, including the Lyceum and the tombs of the Attic heroes. He returned soon after with larger reinforcements, and committed further outrages. Greece was divided. Some of the states supported Rome; some Macedon, and others remained neutral. With matters in this condition, neither of the combatants gained any decided advantage. In B. C. 198, however, the Consul T. Quinctius Flaminius succeeded in inducing the Achæan League to join the Roman alliance, to which the Ætolians were already attached. At the same time Flaminius proclaimed himself the champion of the separate independence of the Greek states, and was joined by nearly every state of Greece. In B. C. 197 the Macedonian army was decisively defeated at Cynoscephalæ, near Scotussa, in Thessaly, and the power of Philip, whose kingdom was already threatened from the direction of Illyria by a combined army of Romans, Illyrians and Dardanians, and from the sea by the fleets of Rome, Pergamus and Rhodes, was so greatly prostrated that he was obliged to sue for peace. In B. C. 196 a treaty was made, by which Philip gave up all his possessions in Greece, withdrew his garrisons from the Greek towns, surrendered his fleet to the Romans, and paid an indemnity to Rome of 1,000 talents. Flaminius solemnly promised the re-establishment of the freedom of Greece, but it was not until B. C. 194 that the Roman armies were withdrawn from the peninsula.

In the final settlement of the affairs of Greece the Romans assigned to the states smaller limits than they had formerly possessed, and left the two leagues of Achæia and Ætolia as a check upon each other. The majority of the states were contented with the new arrangement, as the separate independence of each was guaranteed. The Ætolians, however, were dissatisfied, and endeavored to persuade Macedon, Sparta, and Syria to aid them in overturning the settlement. The Syrian King Antiochus alone ventured to respond favorably. He entered Greece at the head of an army inadequate to the task he had undertaken, and was defeated by the Romans at Thermopylæ in B. C. 191. The Ætolians were now left to continue the war alone, and the next year they were defeated in the battle of Magnesia, and compelled to submit unconditionally to Rome. Rome deprived them of a portion of their territory, and made them subject allies.

The humiliation of the Ætolians aided the growth of the Achæan league (which was patronized by Rome) in power and importance. Guided by the able and upright Philopemen, its advance was marked. In B. C. 192 Sparta joined the league, and the next year the last of the Peloponnesian states which had held aloof from it, Elis and Messenê, came into it. It now embraced all the Peloponnesus, Megara, and other places beyond the limits of southern Greece.

Philip had remained at peace since his defeat at Cynoscephalæ, with the exception of having aided Rome against Antiochus and Ætolia. In return for this service he had been allowed to extend his kingdom over a part of Thrace and a portion of Thessaly. When his aid was no longer needed, however, the Romans ordered him to surrender all his dominions but Macedon proper. In the negotiations which followed, and which were conducted by Demetrius, Philip's second son, who had been long resident at Rome as a hostage, the senate relaxed its demands somewhat in consideration of its friendship for the young prince. This led Perseus, the eldest son of Philip, to accuse his brother, of whom he was jealous, of treason. He forged letters to sustain his charges, and Philip caused Demetrius to be put to death. He discovered the truth when it was too late, and it is said that it was remorse for his act that hastened his own death, which occurred two years later, B. C. 179. The leader of

the Achæan league, Philipœmen, was also dead. He was captured in B. C. 183, in an attempt to suppress a rebellion of the Messenians against the authority of the league, and was put to death by his captors.

Philip had intended to leave his crown to a distant relative named Antigonus, as a punishment to Perseus for having caused the death of Demetrius, but Antigonus was absent from the court at the time of Philip's death, and Perseus mounted the throne without opposition. The last years of Philip had been passed in preparing for a renewal of the struggle with Rome, which he saw was inevitable, and Perseus continued these preparatiions with diligence. The mines were worked industriously and the treasury filled; the losses in population were made good by the importation of colonies from Thrace; the army was increased and carefully disciplined; and alliances were made with the Illyrians, Gauls, and Germans, whose aid the Macedonian king hoped to enjoy against Rome. For eight years these efforts went on. Perseus might have drawn all the Greeks to his standard, as there was already a considerable party in Hellas, which preferred the Macedonian to the Roman supremacy; but he wavered, and pursued such a selfish and penurious course that he lost his opportunity. In B. C. 172, Eumenes, King of Pergamus, formally accused Perseus before the Roman senate of hostile designs. On his return home, he was murdered near Delphi, and the Romans, believing Perseus to be responsible for the murder, declared war against him.

In B. C. 171 the Romans landed in Epirus, and during the next few months succeeded in inducing the Greek states to join their side. They put down the Bœotian confederacy, which was friendly to Macedon, and won over Thessaly and Achæa. Everywhere the friends of Perseus were crushed. Perseus himself was induced to accept a truce during these months. When the Romans were in readiness, they advanced into Thessaly, but were met and defeated by Perseus, who, however, made no effort to follow up his victory. In B. C. 168, L. Æmilius Paulus having succeeded to the command, Perseus was decisively defeated near Pydna. He fled to the sacred island of Samothrace, but was at length obliged to surrender himself to a Roman squadron. He was taken to Rome, where he was made to walk in the triumph of Paulus, and then

cast into a dungeon. Paulus generously interceded in his behalf, and he was allowed to spend the rest of his life in a milder captivity at Alba.

The victory of Pydna sealed the fate of Macedon. The kingdom was divided into four states subject to Rome, and these were forbidden to hold any intercourse with each other. As a compensation to the Macedonians for the loss of their freedom, a tribute equal to only one-half of the taxes they had paid their kings was required by Rome.

Another result of the war was the establishment of the Roman supremacy over four-fifths of Greece. All the confederacies but the Achæan league were dissolved. Rome thought it necessary, however, that she should have no possible rival in Greece, and that Achæa should either submit unconditionally to her will or be conquered. In B. C. 167, the republic demanded of the league the trial of one thousand of its chief citizens on charges of having secretly aided



COIN OF PERSEUS.

Perseus. The Achæan assembly did not dare refuse, and the whole number of prisoners were carried to Italy, and imprisoned in the Etruscan towns. The Roman party was thus left in control of Achæa. The captives were kept in prison for seventeen years without a hearing, for the deliberate purpose of exasperating their friends in Greece. When their number had been reduced by suffering and death to three hundred, the survivors were suddenly released and sent back to their own land. Rome had barbarously reckoned upon their going back with the intention of being revenged upon her, and she was not disappointed. Three of the survivors who were most embittered against her by their treatment came into power, and their hatred soon gave the republic a pretext for hostilities. War was declared in B. C. 146, and in a few years southern Greece was conquered and added to the Roman dominions.

CHAPTER X.

FROM THE ROMAN CONQUEST TO THE PRESENT TIME—THE MODERN KINGDOM OF GREECE.

Greece under the Romans—Sufferings During the Civil Wars—Efforts to Regain its Freedom—Well Treated by the Emperors—Invasions of the Goths—Athens Plundered—Spread of Christianity in Greece—Its Establishment by Constantine—Constantinople Founded—Greece under the Eastern Empire—The Latin States of Greece—The Venetian Dominion—Capture of Constantinople by the Turks—Wars between the Venetians and the Turks for the Possession of Greece—Sufferings of the Greeks—Destruction of the Parthenon—Greece under Turkish Rule—A Remarkable System of Government—How the Greek Nation was Preserved—The Mountaineers Unconquered—Revolts of the Greeks—The Revolution of 1821—Uprising of the Greeks—Their First Successes—A Revolutionary Government Organized—Greece Declared Independent—Massacre of Scio—Miaulis Drives back the Turkish Fleet—Siege of Missolonghi—Marco Bozzaris—Death of Lord Byron—Ibrahim Pasha Conquers Crete—Invades Peloponnesus—Fall of Missolonghi—Ibrahim Desolates Peloponnesus—Intervention of the European Powers—Battle of Navarino—Ibrahim Evacuates Peloponnesus—Treaty of Adrianople—Greece a Free Country once more—Organization of the Kingdom of Greece—Otho Chosen King—A Constitution Granted—Revolution of 1862—Otho Expelled—George of Denmark King—Subsequent History.

GREECE remained a possession of Rome for more than four centuries, or from B. C. 146 to A. D. 324. At first it continued to enjoy a sort of municipal freedom, for every important town was governed by one of its own citizens, and the Romans paid a willing and hearty homage to the superior genius and civilization of their conquered subjects. The best of the Romans were proud of a knowledge of the Greek language and literature, and looked upon Greece with an affectionate reverence as their intellectual mother. Even the emperors in later times were proud of being citizens of Athens. These feelings at length excited the envy of the Roman people, and the term *Græculus*, which was at first regarded as a mark of honor, became an expression of contempt.

The proximity of Greece to Italy made it the scene of many wars, both between various factions of the conquerors and between the Romans and other nations. These brought a plentiful harvest of misfortunes upon the country. In many of these wars the Greeks joined the foreign enemies of Rome in the vain hope of throwing off the Roman yoke and recovering their independence. In the early part of the first cen-

tury B. C. Mithridates, King of Pontus, became involved in a war with the Romans. He drove them out of Asia Minor and attacked their European possessions. He formed an alliance with the Greeks, and sent several armies into Greece, which were joined by the Athenians, Spartans, Thebans, and Achæans. The allies were for a while successful, and for a brief season Greece was a free country once more. In B. C. 87, however, the tide turned; nearly all the Greek cities were retaken by the Romans. Athens was besieged, and the next year was driven by hunger to surrender. The Romans stained their victories by indiscriminate massacres in Athens, Thebes, and other towns, and sold many of the conquered Greeks into slavery. The temples of Delphi, Olympia, and Epidaurus were plundered of their treasures, and the country was stripped of its choicest works of art, which were sent to Rome.

The quarrels of Cæsar and Pompey involved Greece in fresh trouble. The Athen-



COIN OF ANTONINUS STRUCK AT CORINTH.

ians, Bœotians, and Peloponnesians sided with Pompey, while the Acharnanians, Ætolians, and a portion of the people of Epirus sustained the cause of Cæsar. The great battle of Pharsalia, fought in Thessaly, in B. C. 48, made Cæsar master of all Greece. He visited his severities on the Megarians alone, and treated the rest of Greece with remarkable forbearance. Athens, whose ancient glories he admired, received many favors from him; and he caused the city of Corinth, which had been destroyed in the first Roman conquest, to be rebuilt, B. C. 46.

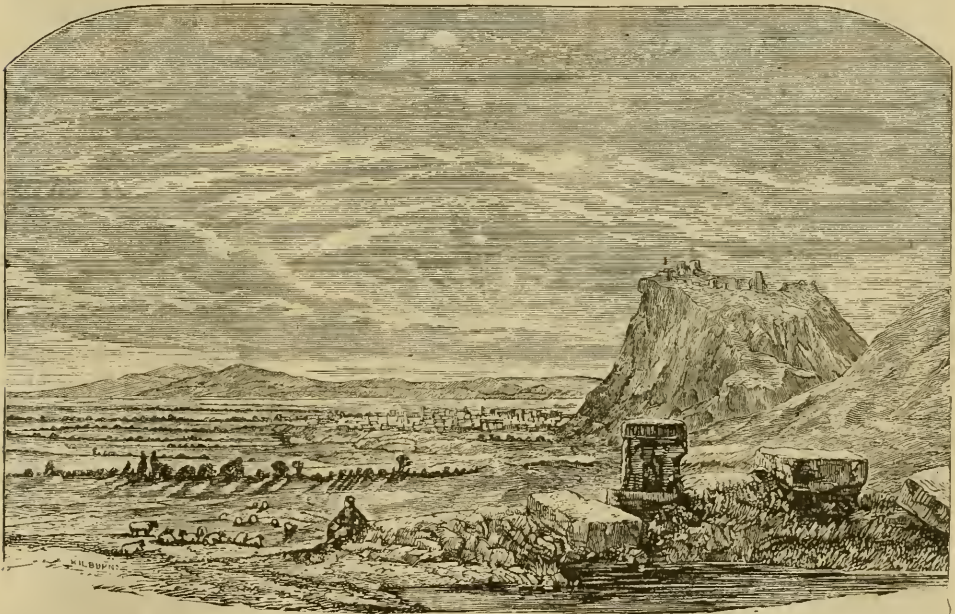
Upon the murder of Cæsar a new civil war broke out in Greece, this time between Antony and Octavian on the one hand, and Brutus and Cassius on the other. The Athenians joined the latter party, while the Lacedæmonians cast their lot with the former. The battles of Philippi, in B. C. 42, made Antony and Octavian masters of the Roman world, which they proceeded to divide between them. Greece fell to An-

tony's share. He took up his abode at Athens, in which city he had been educated, and treated the Greeks with such liberality that their country seemed on the point of recovering its ancient glories. When the civil war broke out between Antony and Octavian, almost the whole of Greece supported the former. Antony was finally defeated and ruined in the battle of Actium, in B. C. 31. Octavian treated the Greeks with great kindness; he caused the town of Patræ to be rebuilt, and erected the city of Nicopolis on the spot where he had gained his great victory.

Under the Roman emperors, Greece, on

the empire sank deeper into corruption, Greece suffered greatly from the general insecurity, and the growing needs of the Romans caused them to plunder the wealthy cities whenever the opportunity offered itself. The numerous bloody wars had greatly reduced the population, and many districts of the country were almost uninhabited.

To make matters worse, the Goths, who had begun their irruptions into the Roman dominions, threatened in A. D. 253 to overrun Greece. The Greeks occupied the pass of Thermopylæ, the walls of Athens were rebuilt, and the isthmus of Corinth was strongly fortified. The victories of the Ro-



MODERN CORINTH.

the whole, enjoyed peace and prosperity. Many of its cities—especially Athens—were allowed to retain their own governments, and though Caligula and Nero carried away many of the other art treasures to Rome, others, like Trajan and Hadrian, were never tired of lavishing marks of their affection upon Athens. Hadrian greatly adorned that city, to which he made frequent visits, and boasted of his title of Archon Eponymos of Athens. Still, the character of the Greeks was steadily lowered under the Roman rule; the coarser manners and the gladiatorial games of the conquerors demoralized the people, and depraved their taste in art and literature. As

mans over the Goths in Thrace saved Greece from the barbarian invasion this time; but in A. D. 262 the Goths made a descent upon the country by sea. Corinth, Argos, and many of the towns on the main land and on the islands, were captured and destroyed. Athens fell after a heroic resistance, and its streets were deluged with the blood of its citizens. The monuments were destroyed, and the manuscripts in the libraries would have shared the same fate had not the barbarians believed that the study of literature made the Greeks weak and effeminate and the more easily conquered. At this juncture Dexippos, the historian and one of the Athenian generals, collected the remnant

of his forces, and surprised and defeated the Goths, who retreated into Illyricum, where they were routed by the Emperor Gallienus. During the reign of the Emperor Claudius, the Goths made another formidable attack upon Thrace, Macedonia, Thessaly, and other Greek provinces, but were defeated by Claudius. This put an end for two centuries to the attempts of the barbarians upon Greece, but the country shared the general suffering which was caused by the growing weakness of the empire.

very successful at Athens, and passed on to Corinth, where he established a church. From these beginnings, Christianity spread rapidly over other parts of Greece. In spite of the persecutions with which the Roman authorities sought to check its progress, in spite of the charms with which paganism surrounded the old religion, Christianity spread steadily, and by slow degrees affected the character of the entire Greek nation.

When Constantine became Emperor of Rome, he made Christianity the religion of



ST. PAUL PREACHING CHRISTIANITY IN GREECE.

During all this while Greece had been experiencing a radical change. Christianity had been gradually extending its influence throughout the country. About the middle of the first century after Christ, the Apostle Paul crossed over from Asia Minor to Macedonia, and began preaching the Gospel of Christ to the Greeks. He made many converts, especially at Thessalonica, where he established a church. Persecutions drove him to Athens, where he renewed his efforts, preaching in the presence of the assembled city on Mars' Hill. He was not

the empire. His next most important act was the establishment of his capital in the new city which he built on the site of ancient Byzantium, and named Constantinople, or city of Constantine. He perceived that the ruin of the western part of the empire was inevitable, and believed that a stronger and more enduring state might be founded in his Greek dominions.

The establishment of the new capital in the ancient Greek territory was to a certain extent the revival of the independence of Greece, which gave a hearty support to the

emperors at Constantinople. The history of the Greek empire will be related elsewhere, and we can only pause to notice a few events which directly concerned Greece itself.

Until the eleventh century Greece remained an undisputed part of the Byzantine empire. In A. D. 1080 Robert Guiscard, a Norman prince of lower Italy, invaded Epirus and Thessaly, and attempted their conquest, but was driven out by Alexis Comnenus. In 1146 Robert II. of Sicily seized the island of Corcyra, and plundered Corinth and other Greek cities. Corcyra was soon recovered by the imperial forces. In A. D. 1204 the Venetians, in alliance with the French crusaders, attacked and captured Constantinople, and divided Greece between them. The Marquis of Montferrat became the sovereign of Salonica (the ancient Thessalonica), Achaia, and the Morea (the Peloponnesus became a principality under Gillaume de Champlitte and Geoffroi Villehardouir; the archipelago was organized as a dukedom with Naxos as its capital; and a dukedom was set up at Athens, which lasted from 1205 to 1456. The Greeks recovered Constantinople from the Venetians in 1261, but the other foreign dominions lasted for several centuries. The Venetians held a large part of the Morea or Peloponnesus, and other portions of continental Greece, and the island of Crete and other islands, until the conquest of the eastern empire by the Turks.

In A. D. 1453 the Turks, who had wrested from the Greek emperors almost the whole of their dominions, captured the city of Constantinople, and brought the Eastern Empire to an end. The next three centuries were occupied with wars between the Turks and the Venetians for the possession of Greece. Northern Greece was already in the hands of the Turks, and they soon after succeeded in acquiring the island of Eubœa and Attica. Athens once in the hands of the Moslems, the Parthenon was converted into a mosque. The sultan next turned his efforts to Peloponnesus, the greater part of which was held by the Venetians. Between the contending powers the Greeks led a miserable existence. If they sided with the Venetians the Turks visited the most fearful vengeance upon them, and if they aided the Turks they experienced treatment almost as cruel at the hands of the Venetians. On the whole, their sympathies were with the Venetians,

who were Christians, and who constantly held out the hope of freedom to them. One result of this war was the transfer to Venice and Genoa of the large silk manufactories which had flourished at Athens and Corinth since the days of Justinian. In 1522 the island of Rhodes was conquered by the Turks after a desperate struggle, and soon after they subdued the remaining Venetian possessions in Peloponnesus. In 1571 the island of Cyprus fell into the hands of the sultan, and not long after the entire Turkish fleet, consisting of 200 ships, was defeated and destroyed off Naupactus by the allied fleets of the Venetians, the pope, and the emperor, under the command of Don John of Austria. Almost all the men serving in the Venetian fleet on this occasion were Greeks. In 1670 the Turks drove the Venetians out of the island of Crete after a struggle of thirty years. In 1685 the Venetians, under the command of the famous Morosini, assisted by the Greeks, regained the whole of Peloponnesus, and the next year captured Athens. During this siege the Parthenon was used as a powder magazine by the Turks. A Venetian shell thrown into it exploded the magazine and shattered the beautiful edifice. In 1699 the Venetians were obliged to relinquish all their conquests but Peloponnesus, and in 1715 Achmed III. wrested that peninsula from them also. With the exception of the Ionian islands, Turkey was now mistress of all the Greek countries.

The Turks organized the Greek territory into provinces, and adopted a somewhat peculiar system for their government. The Patriarch of Constantinople, the head of the Greek Church, was recognized by the sultan as the head of the Greek nation, and thus became the civil as well as the spiritual ruler of Greece. In every province there was a bishop, who held both the civil and ecclesiastical control of the Greeks. He was acknowledged as the judge in all private affairs; he directed the schools, which preserved the Greek language, and governed the church, which preserved the national religion and the national character of the people. He was directly responsible to the Patriarch of Constantinople, who was, in his turn, responsible to the sultan. The lower clergy were constituted so many civil officials by this arrangement, and were dependent upon the bishop, from whom they received their orders in political matters. This system, it should be understood,

applied only to the Greeks. In every province the Turkish government was represented by the pasha and other civil officials, but with these the Greeks had little to do. In consequence of the system under which they were placed, the Greeks, in their disputes among themselves, never resorted to the Turkish courts of justice. They laid their differences before the ecclesiastical tribunals and accepted their decisions. The bishops, on their part, collected and paid over the tribute to the Turkish authorities, and protected the people against the Turkish military and civil officials, mainly by bribing the pashas. They regulated



GREEK PATRIARCH.

the revenues of every community, and directed the necessary expenditures.

This system had the inevitable effect of keeping alive the Greek nation even under the grinding tyranny of the Turks. The Greeks were kept to themselves, and taught that they had nothing in common with their conquerors; the church, to which they were devotedly attached, kept alive the spirit of national patriotism, and the schools preserved the national language, the greatest tie that united the oppressed people

of Hellas. In all the churches daily prayers were offered that God would drive out the Turks and restore the freedom of Greece. No Greek adopted the faith of Islam, and no marriages took place between the two races. Their hatred was deep and mutual.

Another cause of the survival of the national spirit of the Greeks was the warfare waged upon the Turks by the Klephts, or the inhabitants of the mountains of Epirus, Thessaly, Acharnania, Ætolia, Arcadia, and Maina, or Laconia. These hardy mountaineers had never submitted to the Turkish authority, and had been joined since the Turkish conquest by numbers of men who refused to submit to the Moslems. From their mountain fastnesses they

carried on a constant warfare against the Turks, causing them great losses. Their example was a constant incentive to the Greeks to keep alive their national feelings until the day of deliverance should come.

In the latter half of the eighteenth century the Greeks were strongly moved by the hope of speedily regaining their independence. The Turkish sultans from the very period of the conquest had been forced to employ Greeks in many ways. They were largely engaged in

the service of the foreign office, and in the financial department of the empire. Greek mercantile houses controlled the trade of the Levant, and had branches in the various cities of Europe. The Greeks in the Turkish service had many opportunities of aiding and benefiting their unfortunate countrymen, and made good use of them. The hopes of the Greeks were also revived by the growing weakness of the Turkish empire, and everywhere the nation was on the alert to profit by

the first opportunity to rise against its oppressors.

In 1769, Turkey having become involved in a war with Russia, the Greeks rose in revolt in Peloponnesus and Maina (Laconia), stimulated by promises of assistance from Russia. The Russian promises proved deceptive, and the revolt was put down with dreadful cruelties by the Turks.

In 1787 a new revolt broke out in parts of Greece, especially in the mountain districts. For the first time in many cen-

schools were encouraged, the pupils carefully trained in the history of their ancestors, and secret societies, having for their object the emancipation of the country, were formed in various parts of Greece. Rigas Pheræos, and, later on, Coray, two leading writers, appealed to the Greeks to remember the glories of their ancestors and emulate them. In 1797 Rigas went to Italy to endeavor to interest Napoleon Bonaparte in the affairs of Greece. He was arrested at Trieste by the Austrians,



NAVARINO—THE ANCIENT PYLOS.

turies, the Greeks now formed a small navy under Lambros Catsonis, and inflicted considerable damage upon the Turkish shipping. The revolt was put down. The Suliotes of Epirus, though they managed to prolong the struggle until 1803, were driven from their mountain fastnesses, and sought refuge in the Ionian islands.

During all this time, and far into the present century, the best men of Greece continued their efforts to prepare the nation for the attempt to regain its freedom. The

who delivered him up to the Turks, by whom he was beheaded at Belgrade. His last words were, "The Greeks will soon avenge my death."

At length the moment for which all Greece had been looking so long, arrived. In 1821 the secret societies and the leaders of the Greeks, believing that the time had come when the Turkish rule could be no longer endured, gave the signal for revolt, and uprisings took place simultaneously in every part of Greece. The movement em-

braced the provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia. The Turks by rapid and vigorous movements crushed the insurrection in those provinces, and the Greek towns were scenes of frightful massacres. On the pretext that a plot of the Greek residents of Constantinople to seize the city and kill the sultan had been discovered, the patriarch was arrested on Easter Sunday, 1821, and hanged on the gate of his palace, after which his body was thrown into the sea. A number of the bishops and clergy and hundreds of the leading Greek citizens of Constantinople were massacred and their property confiscated.

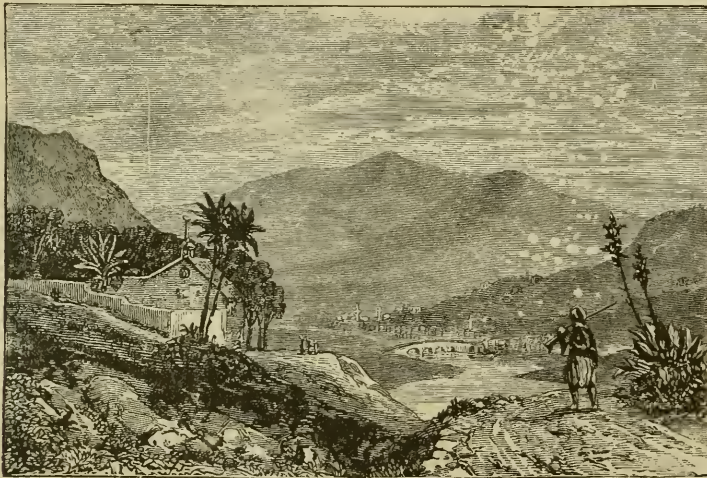
In Greece proper the insurrection was more successful. On the 6th of April, 1821, the leading men of Peloponnesus assembled at the monastery of Sancta Laura, in Ar-

Turkish ships. The Greek vessels encountered the Turks off the island of Lesbos on the 8th of June, and by means of a fire-ship, which they handled with great daring, burned a Turkish frigate with 600 men on board. The Turkish fleet at once put about and sailed for Constantinople.

The hopes of the Greeks were aroused by their successes on land and sea, and they resolved to make the separation between Turkey and their country final. Early in 1822 a National Assembly was held at Epidaurus. This body drew up a declaration, in which, after reciting the sufferings of Greece at the hands of the Turks, and appealing to all Christendom for sympathy, they declared the Greek nation independent of Turkey. The next step of the assembly

was to organize a provisional government, with Alexander Maurocordatos at its head. The nation gave its enthusiastic support to the provisional government, and from this time the resources and energies of the country were directed in a more systematic and successful manner.

Turkey now put forth the greatest exertions to crush the revolt of the Greeks. Forty thousand men, under Dram Ali, were sent into Peloponne-



SCENE IN THE ISLAND OF CRETE.

scadia, and pledged themselves in a solemn oath to free their country from Turkish rule or die in the attempt. The whole Peloponnesus rose in arms, and succeeded in defeating the force of 6,000 Turkish troops sent to quell the insurrection. Several important places were taken by the patriots, but the Turkish forces inflicted great suffering upon the country, which they ravaged with fire and sword. On the 5th and 6th of September all continental Greece joined the insurrection. On the latter day a powerful fleet sailed from Constantinople to reduce the Greek islands. To meet this force the patriots collected a small fleet, chiefly from Hydra, Spezzia, and Psara, the citizens of these islands making great sacrifices to procure and equip these vessels, which were in every way inferior to the

to relieve the fortress of Nauplia, which was besieged by the Greeks. They were defeated by a force of about 10,000 Greeks, and driven from Peloponnesus. This was one of the most brilliant victories ever won by the Hellenic race.

In the month of April, 1822, the Turkish fleet made a descent upon the island of Scio (Chios), and laid the beautiful island waste. Thousands of the inhabitants were massacred without mercy, and as many more were sent to the slave markets of Asia and Egypt. Both sexes and all ages were treated alike, and for many days the island was the scene of indiscriminate massacres, burning, and pillage. Never had a more terrible vengeance been wreaked upon a helpless people.

When the news of the massacre of Scio

became known, the Greek fleet undauntedly sailed to meet the Turks. It was commanded by Andreas Miaulis, the greatest naval hero of modern Greece, "an iron man who never smiled and never wept, whose superiority was acknowledged by all." With characteristic boldness, Miaulis kept the powerful Turkish fleet from proceeding against the other Greek islands, and so saved them from the fate of Scio. On the night of the 6th of June, 1822, a young Greek officer, Constantine Canaris by name, with a small vessel manned by thirty-three men, succeeded in setting fire to a Turkish frigate, and blew it up with all on board, off the island of Chios. This was the admiral's ship, and that officer and more than 2,000 Turks perished in the explosion. This disaster struck terror to the Turks, and abandoning their effort to relieve Nauplia, they retreated in haste towards the Hellespont. On the voyage the fleet was overtaken by a severe storm off Tenedos, and in the midst of it the Greeks succeeded in destroying a Turkish frigate and 1,600 men. The Turks thereupon returned to Constantinople. Nauplia, thus abandoned, surrendered to the Greeks on the 12th of December.

While these events were transpiring in other parts of Greece, Alexander Mavrocordatos had occupied the town of Missolonghi, at the head of the Gulf of Patras, and appreciating the importance of the position had determined to hold it against the Turks. From this point he directed the resistance of Acharnania and Ætolia, and also endeavored to assist the Suliotes, who had returned to their mountains in Epirus from their exile in the Ionian islands. He was unsuccessful, however, and was compelled to withdraw to Missolonghi. The Suliotes were driven from Epirus, and took refuge in the island of Cephalenia, from which they soon after sailed to Missolonghi and joined the little band there under Mavrocordatos. The Turks now concentrated all their efforts against this place, which was but poorly fortified, and garrisoned with a small force. On the 6th of January, 1823, they attempted to carry the town by assault, but were repulsed with heavy loss, and driven from their position.

Early in 1823 a strong Turkish army was sent against Missolonghi. The little town was hard pressed, and must have fallen but for the heroic efforts of Marco Bozzaris, the Suliote chief, who with a small force of

his countrymen made a night attack upon the Turkish position, and gained a brilliant victory over the enemy, purchasing his success with his life. Later in the year the Turks made another unsuccessful effort to capture Missolonghi.

The heroism of the Greeks aroused the sympathies of all Europe, and many volunteers hastened to Greece to assist the patriots. Among these was the English poet Lord Byron. He organized a corps of Suliotes at his own expense, and repaired to Missolonghi. His death, which occurred soon after his arrival, prevented him from taking an active part in the war.

Having failed to subdue the Greeks, the sultan now demanded aid of his vassal, the Pasha of Egypt. Mehemet Ali was at this time seated on the Egyptian throne. He was, as we have seen in our account of Egyptian history, an able ruler, and was well seconded by his gifted son Ibrahim. The sultan bestowed upon Mehemet the island of Crete, which had supported the Greek cause, and ordered him to occupy it and stamp out the insurrection there. This was done in the latter part of 1823 by the Egyptian forces under Ibrahim Pasha. Ibrahim was now appointed Governor of the Peloponnesus, with orders to conquer that peninsula.

Ibrahim began the execution of his orders in the summer of 1824, and directed his first efforts against several of the Greek islands which had been most conspicuous in their support of the patriot cause. In spite of the heroic resistance of the Greeks, the Egyptians were successful, and Kasos, Psara, and other islands were conquered, and the inhabitants massacred or sold into slavery. Roused by these disasters the Greeks sent out their fleet, and gained several nobly won successes over the Turkish fleet, finally driving it into the Hellespont.

In 1825 Ibrahim Pasha entered the Peloponnesus at the head of a large and well-equipped army, largely officered by Europeans. He formed the siege of Pylos, and on the 8th of May captured the island of Sphacteria and put its garrison to the sword, but could not prevent the escape of the Greek fleet of eight vessels, which cut its way through the fifty-two Egyptian men-of-war. Pylos fell into Ibrahim's hands soon after this, and the conqueror ravaged Messenia with fire and sword. Ibrahim then rapidly subdued the greater part of

Peloponnesus, everywhere marking his conquests with the greatest cruelty, and rousing the indignation of all Europe by his barbarities. Early in 1826 he joined the Turkish forces before Missolonghi. The Turks had made the most determined efforts to capture this place, and the siege had lasted nearly six months. The little garrison had held their own with heroic courage, but by the time of Ibrahim's

ish lines. The attempt was made on the night of the 22d of April, 1826. The Greeks were driven back, and the Turks and Egyptians entered the town with them. Seeing that all was lost, the Greeks blew up their magazine and forts, involving many thousand Turks and Egyptians in their destruction. On the morning of the 23d of April, Ibrahim Pasha was master of Missolonghi. He held a heap of black-



BATTLE OF NAVARINO.

arrival had begun to suffer fearfully from famine and disease. The patriot government at Nauplia was powerless to do anything for their relief, and the gallant efforts of the Greek squadron under Miaulis to throw provisions into the town had been baffled by the superior force of the Turkish and Egyptian fleets. At length driven to despair, the garrison of Missolonghi resolved to cut their way through the Turk-

ened ruins, for the possession of which he had paid dearly. This success was followed early in 1827 by the capture of Athens by a Turkish army under Reshid Pasha. The Turks and Egyptians visited the most frightful cruelties upon the country. Ibrahim Pasha deliberately sought to exterminate the native population of Peloponnesus, intending to repeople that peninsula with Egyptians and Arabians.

By this time the barbarities of the Turks and Egyptians had aroused the indignation of all Europe, and the heroism of the Greeks had won for them the sympathies of the whole world. At first the European powers had regarded the Greeks as rebels in revolt against their lawful sovereign, and the Austrian government openly sided with the Turks. Even Russia had met the appeal of the Greeks for aid with the cold command to them to return to their allegiance to the sultan. Fortunately for Greece Alexander I. of Russia died on the 1st of December, 1825. His successor, the Czar Nicholas, reversed his father's policy, and determined to give active aid to the Greeks. At the same time the sympathies of the English and French people for the Greeks compelled their governments to move in the same direction. Great Britain recognized the Greeks as belligerents, and a convention was signed in London on the 6th of July, 1827, by the representatives of England, France, and Russia, by which it was agreed to ask Turkey to grant a truce to the Greeks, and in the event of the refusal of the sultan to do so, to recognize the independence of Greece and compel the Turks to stop the war. One month was given to the sultan to reply. A combined English, French, and Russian fleet was sent to the Mediterranean with orders to put a stop to the cruelties of Ibrahim Pasha in Peloponnesus. As had been foreseen, the sultan refused to grant the truce, and the war went on. On the 20th of October, 1827, the allied fleet, under the command of the English Admiral Coddington, entered the harbor of Navarino (the ancient Pylos), which was occupied by the Egyptian and Turkish fleets. The allies had ten ships of the line, ten frigates, and some smaller vessels, and the Egyptians and Turks had five line-of-battle ships, nineteen frigates, and a large number of smaller craft. The object of the allies was to compel Ibrahim Pasha to desist from further hostilities against the Greeks. As their fleet entered the harbor it was fired upon by the Mohammedans, and at once closed with them. The battle which ensued was stubbornly contested during the greater part of the day, and resulted in the total destruction of the sultan's fleet.

This great victory virtually decided the struggle. Deprived of his fleet, Ibrahim consented to evacuate the Morea (Peloponnesus), and withdrew to Egypt with the

larger part of his army. A division of 14,000 French troops, under Marshal Maison, was landed in Greece and rapidly drove the Turks out of that country. The Greeks, on their part, won several important successes over the Turks, by land and sea. In the meantime Russia had begun its war upon Turkey, and had pressed the sultan so hard that Mahmoud II. was compelled to come to terms. On the 28th of August, 1829, the treaty of Adrianople was signed. This treaty, besides making many concessions to Russia, recognized the independence of Greece. The new kingdom included all of continental Greece south of a line drawn from the Gulf of Arta to the Gulf of Volo, thus leaving Thessaly and Albania within the Turkish empire. The islands of Eubœa, the northern Sporades, and the Cyclades, were included within the new limits of Greece. The Ionian Islands remained under the rule of Great Britain, and Crete and the islands off the coasts of Thrace and Asia Minor remained in the hands of the Turks.

Early in 1828 the seat of the Greek national government had been removed to the island of Ægina. Count Capo d'Istria, a distinguished Greek statesman, then in the service of Russia, had been chosen president of the provisional government. His measures were not satisfactory to the people, who were so much divided by internal dissensions that the independence of the country had hardly been secured when it was perceived that the only permanent organization of the country possible must be the work of the powers that had given freedom to the Greeks. Accordingly efforts were set on foot to accomplish this, and after many failures were successful. Greece was organized as a kingdom, and in the spring of 1832 Prince Otho, son of the King of Bavaria, who had been an enthusiastic friend of Greek independence, was chosen King of Greece. This choice was ratified by the national assembly of the Greeks, on the 8th of August, 1832.

King Otho, then but eighteen years old, arrived at Nauplia on the 6th of February, 1833. In 1835 the seat of government was transferred to Athens. The king soon after attained his majority, and governed from this time in his own name, by ministers responsible to himself, aided by a council of state.

The treaty by which the kingdom of Greece was established was silent on the

question of a constitution, but the Greeks confidently expected that one would be granted them. The government of Otho was despotic, though mild on the whole, and was not satisfactory to the people. The discontent continued to grow, and on the night of the 14th of September, 1843, broke out in open revolt. The army and people surrounded the royal palace at Athens, and demanded a constitution. The king hesitated for a while, but finally yielded, and convoked a National Assembly. This body drew up a constitution, which was approved by the king on the 16th of March, 1844.

The history of the ten years following the adoption of the Greek constitution is a record of constant confusion. Partisan controversies raged with great bitterness, and were increased by foreign intrigues. Ministerial changes and insurrections were frequent, the latter on several occasions attaining very formidable proportions. The national party was obliged to maintain a constant struggle with the foreign elements, which, owing to the peculiar circumstances in which Greece was placed, were able to exercise a powerful control upon its government. In the presence of these contentions the material interests of the country suffered severely.

In 1847 Greece barely escaped another war with Turkey, which threatened to grow out of an alleged discourtesy to the Turkish ambassador at Athens. In 1848 a more serious misunderstanding arose with England, arising out of demands made upon Greece by that country for damages suffered by British subjects. The question remained unsettled for several years, and became harder to adjust. In 1850 a British fleet anchored off Piræus, and blockaded Athens and made many seizures of Greek shipping. Brought face to face with the alternative of war with Great Britain, Greece now yielded, and the questions at issue were settled.

In 1852 the failure of the grape crop caused much suffering among the people, and in 1853 a severe earthquake destroyed a considerable amount of property in various parts of the kingdom, and added to the general distress. The country was in a greatly disturbed condition. Banditti infested the Peloponnesus and central Greece and made life and property unsafe; and the government was too weak to check the evil.

When the Crimean war broke out Greece was very active in behalf of Russia, but was obliged by the menaces of England and France to pledge itself to a strict neutrality. An English and French squadron was stationed at Piræus to compel the observance of this pledge, and was not removed until 1857, two years after the close of the war, and then only after repeated protests by the Greek government.

In the mean time the opposition to King Otho and the royal family had been steadily increasing from year to year. In December, 1861, Dossios, a student, attempted to assassinate the queen, and, in spite of the fact that his intended victim was a woman, was openly defended by many of the people. On the 22d of October, 1862, a revolution broke out at Athens, and, through the indifference or sympathy of the army, was successful. The next day a provisional government was established by the leaders of the revolution. King Otho was declared deposed, and a National Assembly was convoked. The king was absent at the time on a visit to the ports of Peloponnesus. He received the news of his deposition on his return to Piræus. He did not attempt to land, but held a council with the foreign ministers at Athens on board his ship. Acting upon their advice, he issued a proclamation on the 24th, taking leave of Greece. He made no formal abdication, however, and soon after sailed in an English frigate for Germany. On the 1st of December a decree was issued by the Provisional Government, ordering an election for a new king. England now offered, in the event of the election of a king who should be satisfactory to her, to transfer to Greece the sovereignty of the Ionian Islands. The National Assembly met at Athens on the 22d of December, 1862. On the 16th of February, 1863, the deposition of the Bavarian dynasty was confirmed, and on the 30th of March, Prince George, son of the King of Denmark, was elected king. This choice was confirmed by the great powers on the 16th of July.

King George reached Athens in October, 1863, and on the 31st took the oath to support the constitution. On the 14th of November, 1863, a treaty was signed between Great Britain and Greece, by which the Ionian Islands became a part of the Greek kingdom, thus fulfilling the long-deferred hopes of the people of those islands.

In 1866 the island of Crete, or Candia,

revolted against the Turks. The Greeks were open in their sympathy with the insurgents, and in spite of the prohibitions of the government, furnished them with considerable assistance. The insurrection was put down by the Turks, and over 30,000 Cretans, mostly women and children, took refuge in Greece. The aid given by the Greeks to the insurgents and the shelter afforded by them to the fugitives came near involving the kingdom in a war with Turkey. The danger was averted, however.

In 1870 a party of four English travelers, on a visit to the scene of the battle of Marathon, were captured by the Greek brigands, and were put to death in conse-

quence of the failure of the negotiations for their ransom. England held Greece responsible for the massacre, on the ground that it was bound to suppress brigandage in its territories. The matter was pressed by Great Britain so firmly that at one time it threatened to lead to war. It was settled by the payment of £10,000 to the family of one of the murdered men and by negotiation.

When the war between Russia and Turkey broke out in 1877, the Greeks were anxious to unite with Russia in the hope of freeing all the Greek countries from Moslem rule, but the government, yielding to the warnings of Great Britain, decided to remain neutral.

BOOK XII.

THE HISTORY OF THE GREEK KINGDOM OF SYRIA.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE KINGDOM TO THE ROMAN CONQUEST.

Division of Alexander's Empire—Seleucus Receives Syria—Establishment of the Kingdom—Its Early Prosperity—Antioch Founded—Reign of Antiochus I.—His Wars—Antiochus II.—His Successors—Reign of Antiochus the Great—War with Egypt—Reverses of Antiochus—He Invades Parthia—Wars with Rome—Is Defeated—Antiochus IV.—Drives the Jews into Rebellion—Weak Reign of Antiochus V.—Demetrius I.—Comes in Conflict with Rome—Alexander Balas—Demetrius II.—Made Prisoner by the Parthians—His Captivity—Reign of Antiochus VII.—Decline of the Syrian Kingdom—Civil Wars—Syria Becomes Subject to Armenia—Conquered by Pompey—Made a Roman Province.

THE empire of Alexander the Great was divided after his death, as we have seen, among his generals. We have related the establishment of the Egyptian kingdom under Ptolemy Lagi, and the fortunes of Macedonia and Greece under Alexander's successors. We have now to consider the establishment of the Greek kingdom of Syria by Seleucus and his successors.

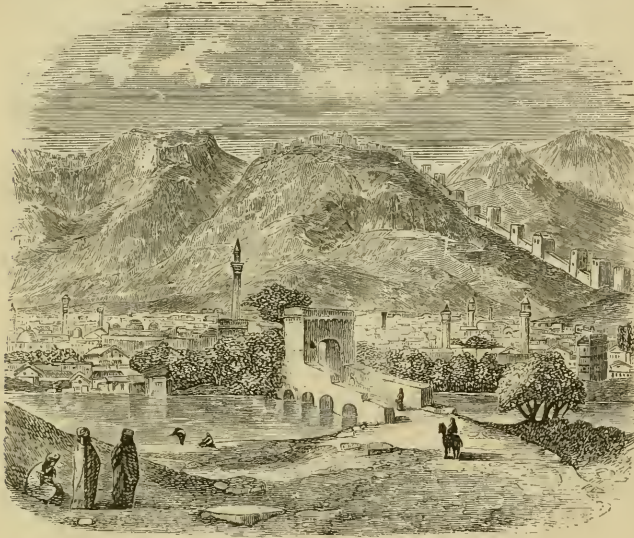
The kingdom dates from the year B. C. 312. Seleucus, as has been related, taking advantage of the check which Antigonus had received by the victory of Ptolemy

Lagi over Demetrius, near Gaza, regained possession of Babylon, and extended his power over all the provinces of Alexander's empire between the Euphrates and the Indus, on the one hand, and the Jaxartes and the Indian Ocean on the other. He also made war upon an Indian monarch whose kingdom lay upon the head-waters of the Ganges, and compelled him to make a treaty by which Seleucus gained important commercial advantages and added 500 elephants to his army. After the victory of Antigonus at Salamis, Seleucus assumed the royal title. The battle of Ipsus (B. C. 301) gave Seleucus Cappadocia, part of Phrygia, upper Syria, and the right bank of the middle Euphrates, as his share of the territory divided between the conquerors.

Seleucus spent the remaining years of the century in thoroughly organizing his kingdom, which was the most important of all the monarchies formed from the wreck of Alexander's empire. In this work he showed great skill. His only apparent error was in not continuing Babylon as the capital, by which Syria might have retained the East, and prevented the subsequent rise of the Parthian kingdom. Seleucus divided his dominions into seventy-two provinces, which were without exception

placed under the rule of Greek or Macedonian governors. A standing army of native troops was organized and officered by Macedonians or Greeks. New cities

Lysimachus, hoping to carve out a new kingdom with his sword. Unable to gain any advantages in this quarter, he passed into Cilicia and attacked the Syrian possessions. He was defeated and made a prisoner by Seleucus, who kept him in captivity during the remainder of his life. In B. C. 281, Lysimachus having murdered his son, at the instigation of his Egyptian wife Arsinoë and her brother Ptolemy Ceraunus, the widow of the murdered prince fled to the court of Seleucus, who took up her quarrel and invaded the territories of Lysimachus. The latter was defeated and slain in the battle of Corupedion, and Seleucus became master of nearly the whole of Alexander's empire. He hastened to take possession of the capital of Lysimachus, but on the way was mur-



MODERN ANTIOCH.

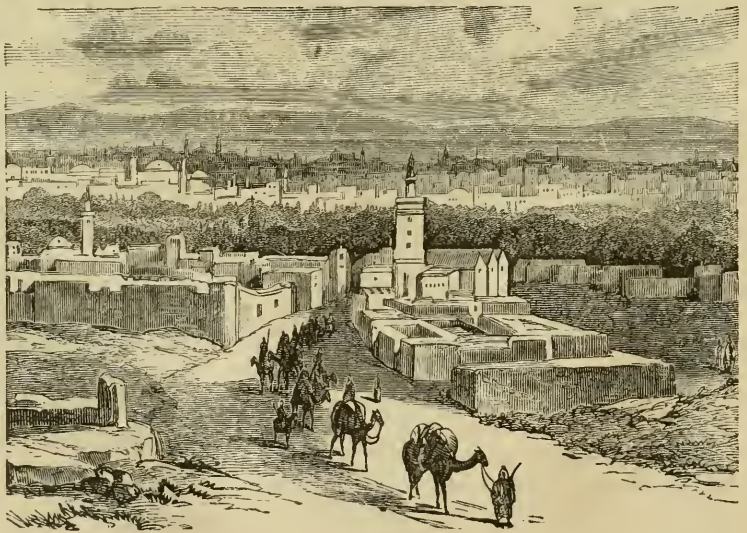
were built in each province. The king named sixteen of these Antioch, in honor of his father; five Laodicea, for his mother; seven Seleuceia, for himself, and several for his two wives, Apamea and Stratonice. Antioch on the Orontes, one of these cities, was made the capital of the kingdom, and Seleucus spent the remaining years of his life in building and ornamenting it, and constructing its port, Seleuceia. Antioch became one of the largest and most famous cities of the East, and maintained its commanding position for fully a thousand years.

In B. C. 293 Seleucus divided his empire with his son

Antiochus, to whom he gave all the provinces east of the Euphrates. In B. C. 287, Demetrius, who had won and lost Macedonia, invaded the Asiatic provinces of

Antiochus I. (Soter) succeeded to the

Antiochus I. (Soter) succeeded to the



DAMASCUS.

crown of Syria upon the death of his father Seleucus. His kingdom was confined to Asia. Soon after his accession he became involved in a war with the native kings of

Bithynia, during which he lost the provinces afterwards known as Galatia and Pergamus. He undertook an unsuccessful war with Egypt in support of his son-in-law Magas, the rebellious King of Cyréné. He was finally defeated and killed in a battle with the Gauls near Ephesus, in B. C. 261.

Antiochus II., who bore the blasphemous surname of "Theos," "the god," succeeded his father. He was a weak and dissolute prince, and resigned the government of his kingdom to his wives and favorites. Syria declined rapidly under him. The kingdoms of Bactria and Parthia sprang up about B. C. 255, and greatly reduced the dimensions and power of the Syrian state. Becoming involved in a war with Egypt, he ended it by repudiating his wife and marrying Berenice, the daughter of the Egyptian king. On the death of that monarch, Antiochus put aside Berenice and took back his former wife Laodicé, who murdered him, together with Berenice and her infant son, B. C. 246.

Seleucus II., the son of Laodicé, succeeded his father. The next year he lost nearly all his dominions by an invasion of Ptolemy III., who came to avenge the wrongs of his sister Berenice. Ptolemy carried his victorious arms as far as the Indus, but being suddenly called home by a revolt, lost all he had gained, and Seleucus succeeded in re-establishing his authority from the Indus to the Ægean. A little later,



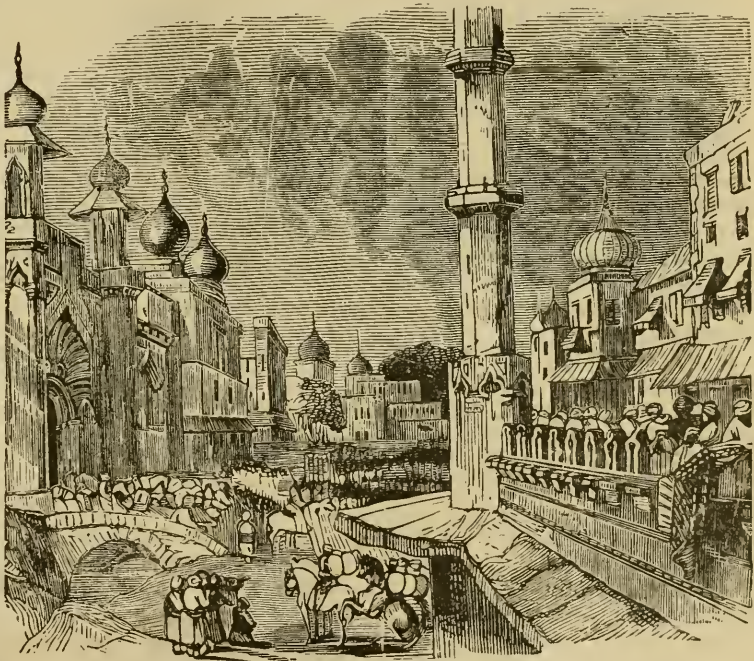
COIN OF EPILEUS.

Antiochus Hierax, a younger brother of Seleucus, began a formidable rebellion, and at the same time the Parthians gained some

important successes on the eastern border, and defeated Seleucus in a great battle in B. C. 237. The civil war continued until B. C. 229, when Antiochus was defeated and obliged to fly for his life. Seleucus was killed in B. C. 226 by a fall from his horse.

Seleucus III. now came to the throne. In the third year of his reign he undertook an expedition against Pergamus, in which he was slain by his mutinous troops, B. C. 223.

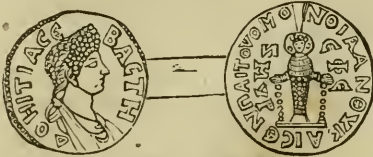
Antiochus III., called the Great, the great-grandson of Seleucus, the founder of the dynasty, now mounted the throne. His reign constitutes the most eventful period



STREET SCENE IN DAMASCUS.

of Syrian history. He began it by quelling the revolt of Molo, the ablest of the Syrian generals, who had made himself master of the region east of the Euphrates, and had defeated every army sent against him. During his absence his relative Achæus assumed the title and state of king. Antiochus, who had declared war against Egypt, was anxious to prosecute his campaign in that quarter, and contented himself with remonstrating with the rebel. He marched into Palestine and Phœnicia, and conquered those provinces. Palestine had become alienated from Egypt by the profanation of the Jewish Temple by Ptolemy IV., and

submitted from choice to the Syrian king. Proceeding southward, Antiochus encountered the Egyptian army at Raphia, on the eastern edge of the desert, and was defeated, B. C. 217. He now lost all his conquests except Seleuceia, the port of Antioch. He therefore made peace with Egypt and turned upon Achæus. With the help of



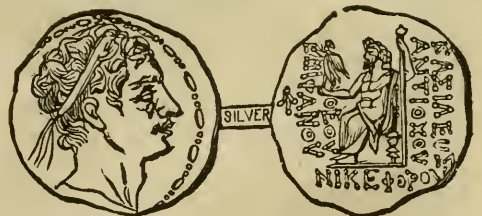
COIN OF EPHEBUS AND SMYRNA, ALLIED.

Attalus, King of Pergamus, he defeated him and besieged him in Sardis. In B. C. 214 he obtained possession of the person of Achæus by treachery, and the rebellion ceased. Antiochus then repaired to the eastern part of his kingdom to meet the Parthian King Arsaces III., who was threatening Media. By a rapid march from Ecbatana across the desert to Hecatompylos, he seized that city, B. C. 213, and then passed the mountains and entered Hyrcania, where he fought a battle with the Parthians, the issue of which was so far doubtful that Antiochus consented to make peace, and recognized the independence of Parthia and Hyrcania, under Arsaces, as one kingdom. He then made war against Bactria, but after gaining some advantages he made peace with the Bactrian king, Euthydemus, and left him in possession of Bactria and Sogdiana. A marriage was arranged between the daughter of the Bactrian king and Demetrius, the son of Antiochus. Crossing the Hindoo Koosh range into the modern Afghanistan, Antiochus renewed the old alliance between Syria and the Indian kingdom of that region, and returned home through Arachosia, Drangiana, and Carmania, passing the winter in the last-named province. The next year he undertook a naval expedition in the Persian Gulf against the Arabs of the western shore, whose piracies he punished severely, and returned home in B. C. 205.

Antiochus now resumed his designs against Egypt, encouraged by the fact that that country had just passed under the sway of the infant Ptolemy V. and an incompetent regent. He succeeded in regaining Cœle-Syria, Phœnicia, and Palestine, which were secured to him by the victory of Paneas, in B. C. 198. Antiochus prom-

ised Cœle-Syria and Palestine as a dowry to his daughter Cleopatra, whom he gave in marriage to Ptolemy V., but neither he nor his successors fulfilled this promise. He then subdued Asia Minor and conquered the Thracian Chersonesus.

In B. C. 196 the Romans, who had defeated Philip of Macedon and assumed the protectorate of Egypt, demanded of Syria the surrender of all the territories taken from Egypt and from Macedon. Antiochus refused to comply with the demand, and aided by the great Carthaginian leader Hannibal, who had taken refuge at his court, prepared for war. In B. C. 192 he invaded Greece, but after some successes, he was decisively defeated by the Romans at Thermopylæ and obliged to withdraw into his own country. The Romans followed up their success, and in two naval victories wrested from Syria the whole of the western coast of Asia Minor. The Roman army crossed the Hellespont under the two Scipios, and in the great battle of Magnesia, in Lydia, reduced Antiochus to such an extremity that he was obliged to sue for peace. He was compelled to cede all Asia Minor save Cilicia, and to agree to pay an indemnity of 12,000 talents, or \$14,400,000. The territory surrendered by Antiochus was given by the Romans to Pergamus, which was thus made strong enough to act as a check upon Syria. These losses were followed by a revolt in Armenia, which country succeeded in establishing its independence. While attempting to put down this revolution, Antiochus, in order to raise the money to meet the payment of the fine imposed upon him by Rome, stripped the



TETRADRACHM OF ANTIOCHUS IV., EPIPHANES, OF SYRIA.

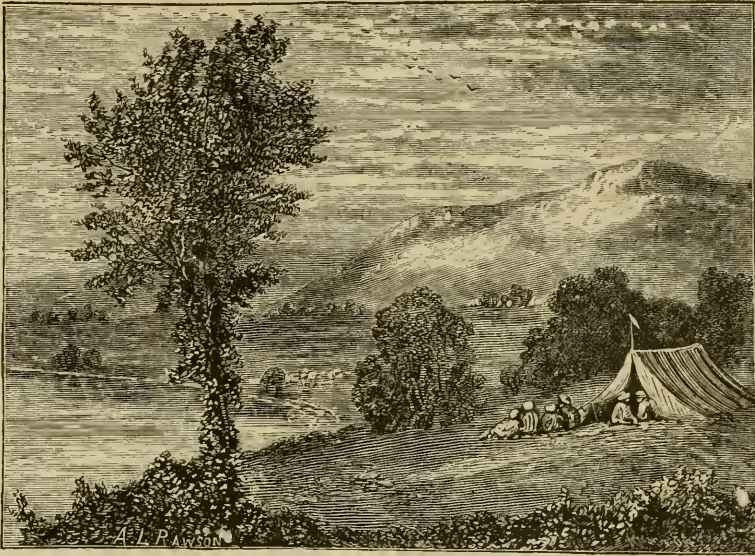
temples of Asia of their treasures. While thus engaged he aroused a tumult in Elymais, in which he was killed, B. C. 187.

Seleucus IV., Philopator, succeeded his father. He reigned eleven years, but this period was uneventful. He was murdered by Heliodorus, his treasurer, who seized the throne, B. C. 176, but was soon overthrown

by Antiochus IV., Epiphanes, with the aid of Pergamus. Antiochus was the second son of Antiochus the Great, and inherited a good share of his father's ability and courage. Having lived fourteen years in Rome as a hostage he introduced many Roman customs into his kingdom. He made war upon Armenia, and enraged at the demand of Egypt for the surrender of Coele-Syria and Palestine, which his father had promised as a dowry to the wife of Ptolemy V., he invaded that country, and would have conquered it had not the Romans compelled him to withdraw. He revenged himself upon the Jews by capturing their Holy City by assault, and plundering and defiling the Temple. A little later his effort to supplant the worship of Jehovah with that of Greece brought about the Maccabæan war of independence. His army was several

times defeated by Judas Maccabæus. Antiochus then set out to punish Judæa himself. On the way he stopped to plunder the Temple of Elymais, but was seized with a superstitious madness which caused his

death, B. C. 164. Antiochus V., Eupator, the son of Epiphanes, succeeded his father. He was but twelve years old, and the kingdom passed into the hands of Lysias as regent. The regent and the young king



SCENE IN SYRIA.

repaired to Judæa to conduct the war, and compelled Judas Maccabæus to shut himself up in Jerusalem. Philip, who had been appointed by Epiphanes guardian of his son, now appeared in Antioch with the royal signet, and seized the government. Lysias at once caused the king to make peace, and returning to Antioch, defeated Philip, captured him, and put him to death.

Lysias seems to have cared nothing for the interests of the kingdom, for he took no steps to resist the Parthians who were overrunning the eastern provinces at this time. Neither did he seek to check the Romans, who were enforcing the terms of the treaty with Antiochus the Great with unusual severity. The danger which thus



COIN OF LAODICEA.

threatened the kingdom was very serious. It was ended by the arrival of Demetrius, who had escaped from Rome, where he had been detained for many years as a hostage. He seized the throne

and seized the throne

and put both Antiochus and Lysias to death.

Demetrius I. began to reign in B. C. 162. He commenced his reign by attempting to reconquer Judæa. He was at first successfully opposed by Judas Maccabæus, but when the death of that heroic leader seemed to place the victory within his reach, he was deprived of it by the Romans, who had made an alliance with Judæa, and who now forbade him to molest that province, which they declared an independent kingdom. Demetrius then undertook to dethrone Ariarathes, King of Cappadocia, and conferred his crown upon Orophernes, his illegitimate brother. The neighboring kings now induced Alexander Balas, an illegitimate son of Epiphanes, to claim the crown, and the league in his favor was joined by the Romans. Syria had now sunk so low that both claimants of the crown courted the favor of the persecuted Jews. In B. C. 151 Demetrius was slain in battle, and his rival gained the crown.

Alexander Balas reigned for five years.



COIN OF ALEXANDER BALAS.

He owed his success mainly to Egypt, and had married Cleopatra, the daughter of the Egyptian monarch; but he proved himself utterly unfit to be a king. He abandoned his authority to a worthless favorite named Ammonius, gave himself up to licentiousness and self-indulgence, and treated his father-in-law with such ingratitude that Ptolemy Philometer withdrew his support, took his daughter Cleopatra from him, and gave her to Demetrius Nicator, the son of Demetrius I., who, encouraged by the hatred of the Syrians for Alexander, had claimed the crown. Aided by Ptolemy the pretender defeated his rival, who was soon after slain by his own officers.

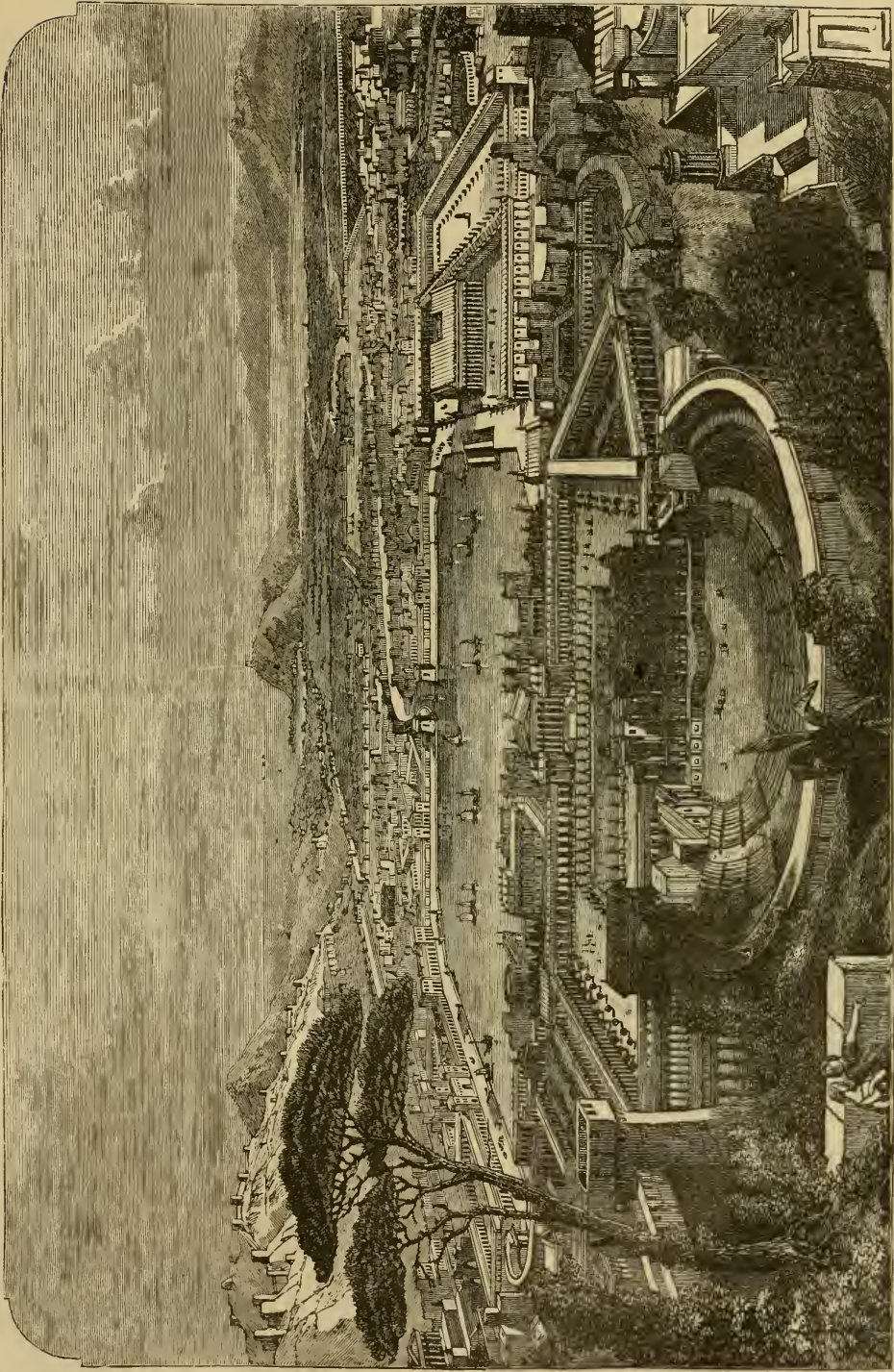
Demetrius II., Nicator, became king in B. C. 146. He was such a cruel tyrant that he soon alienated his subjects. The people of Antioch having rebelled against him, he allowed his body-guard of Jewish mercenaries to plunder the city. A pretender was now set up by Diodotus of Apamea, in the

person of Antiochus VI., the son of Alexander Balas, a child of two years. Three or four years later Diodotus removed this child, assumed the surname of Tryphon, and declared himself king, B. C. 143. In the meantime the Parthians were pressing upon the eastern border of the kingdom so persistently that Demetrius, confiding the government to his wife, Cleopatra, marched against the Parthians. He won some successes at first, but in B. C. 140 he was defeated and made a prisoner by the Parthian monarch, Arsaces VI., who kept him in honorable captivity for ten years, and gave him a Parthian princess for his second wife.

Cleopatra finding herself unable to maintain her position unaided, called to her assistance her husband's brother, Antiochus Sidetes, who joined his arms to hers, and after a war of two years with Tryphon, defeated and killed him, B. C. 137. The conqueror then made himself sole King of Syria, as Antiochus VII., Sidetes. He married Cleopatra, his brother's wife, who considered herself set free by the captivity of her husband and his marriage with a Parthian princess. Antiochus attacked Judæa, and brought it once more under Syrian rule, B. C. 135-133. He then undertook an expedition against Parthia for the purpose of delivering his brother. He gained some important successes at first, but was at length defeated, with the loss of his army, and slain.

Just before the death of Antiochus the Parthian king released Demetrius, and sent him to Antioch to claim his crown, hoping to compel Antiochus to withdraw in order to preserve his kingdom. Demetrius resumed his authority, to which the death of his brother left no rival. In a short while a rival did appear, however. Ptolemy Physcon of Egypt, to revenge himself upon Demetrius for the support he had given the Egyptian Queen Cleopatra, raised up a pretender to the Syrian crown, named Alexander Zabinas, who claimed to be the son of Alexander Balas. A battle ensued between the rivals near Damascus. Demetrius was defeated and fled to his former wife Cleopatra, at Ptolemais, but she refused to receive him. He then attempted to throw himself into Tyre, but was captured and slain, B. C. 126.

Cleopatra, having put to death her eldest son, Seleucus, because he had assumed the crown without her consent, now seated her



EPILEUS AT THE TIME OF THE ROMAN DOMINION.

second son, Antiochus Grypus, on the throne with herself as joint monarch. At the same time Zabinas reigned in parts of Syria. He continued to do so for seven years, but at length he quarrelled with his Egyptian patron, and was abandoned to Antiochus by Ptolemy Physcon, B. C. 124. In B. C. 122 Antiochus captured him and forced him to take poison. The next year Antiochus, finding his mother engaged in a plot against him, put her to death, and thus became sole monarch. A period of eight years of peace followed. Syria was in sore need of rest. She was exhausted by con-

bloody war of three years' duration compelled the king to divide his territory with his half-brother. The war was resumed in B. C. 105, and continued through the century, lasting, indeed, until B. C. 96, and entailing fearful suffering upon the kingdom. During this period Syria suffered very greatly from the ravages of the Arabs on the eastern, and the Egyptians on the southern, border. Cilicia revolted, and Tyre, Sidon, and Seleucia asserted their independence. At length, in B. C. 96, Antiochus was assassinated by Heracleon, an officer of his court, who endeavored to secure the crown, but failed.

Seleucus V. succeeded his father, and continued the war with Cyzicenus, whom he defeated in a great battle. The pretender slew himself to avoid capture, but his son Antiochus Eusebes took up his quarrel, assumed the royal title, and drove Seleucus into Cilicia. Seleucus now sought to raise money from the people of Mopsuestia by a forced contribution, but they turned upon him and burned him alive.

Philip, the second son of Antiochus VIII., succeeded to the throne, and for some years carried on the war with Eusebes, assisted by his brothers Demetrius and Antiochus Dionysus. Eusebes was finally overcome and driven into Parthia. Philip and his brothers, unable to agree upon a satisfactory distribution of power, made war upon each other. The Syrians, disgusted with these quarrels, invited Tigranes, King of Armenia, to rule over them. He accepted the invitation, and from B. C. 83 to B. C. 69 Syria was at peace. Towards



STREET IN DAMASCUS.

stant strife, and had lost Judæa and the eastern provinces, and had herself become a mere petty state, without energy and utterly corrupt. The wealth of the country was in the hands of a few weak nobles; the masses of the people were fearfully poor.

In B. C. 114 a rebellion broke out, headed by Antiochus Cyzicenus, the son of Cleopatra by her third husband, Sidetes. A

the close of this period Tigranes incurred the vengeance of the Romans by aiding his father-in-law Mithridates, King of Pontus. They compelled him to relinquish Syria, and the crown passed to Antiochus XIII., Asiaticus, who reigned for three years. In B. C. 65 Pompey the Great overthrew Asiaticus, subdued Syria, and organized it as a Roman province

BOOK XIII.

THE HISTORY OF THE SMALLER GREEK KINGDOMS OF ASIA.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORY OF PERGAMUS, BITHYNIA, PAPHLAGONIA, PONTUS, CAPPADOCIA, ARMENIA, AND BACTRIA.

Rise of the Kingdom of Pergamus—Eumenes I.—Reign of Attalus I.—Takes the Royal Title—His Alliance with Rome—Eumenes II.—Is Rewarded by the Romans—Intellectual Splendor of Pergamus—Reign of Attalus III.—Leaves his Kingdom to the Romans—Pergamus a Roman Province—Growth of the Kingdom of Bithynia—Prusias I.—His Wars—Death of Hannibal—Reign of Nicomedes II.—Nicomedes III. Bequeaths the Kingdom to Rome—Rise and Fall of the Paphlagonian Kingdom—Growth of the Kingdom of Pontus—Mithridates III.—His Conquests—Takes Sinopé—Mithridates IV.—Aids Rome in her Wars—Mithridates the Great King—His Conquests—His Struggle with Rome—His Defeat and Death—Pontus Becomes a Roman Province—History of the Cappadocian Monarchy—The Rise and Fall of the Armenian Kingdoms—The Greek Kingdom of Bactria Founded—Its History—It is Absorbed by Parthia.

BESIDES the monarchies we have mentioned, a number of smaller kingdoms were erected out of the fragments of the empire of Alexander the Great. It will be necessary to notice the most important of these.

I. THE KINGDOM OF PERGAMUS. The city of Pergamus, on the Caicus, in Mysia, was regarded as one of the great strongholds of Asia Minor. Lysimachus, King of Thrace, made it the depository of the treasures of his kingdom, and placed it in charge of the eunuch Philetærus. On the death of Lysimachus at the battle of Corupedion, Philetærus retained possession of his principality on his own account, and with the aid of the treasures of Lysimachus succeeded in establishing his independence. He reigned twenty years, from B. C. 283 to B. C. 263; but did not take the title of king.

He was succeeded by his nephew, Eumenes I., the son of his brother. Soon after his accession Eumenes was attacked by Antiochus I., of Syria, but defeated him in a pitched battle near Sardis. By this victory he greatly increased his territory.

He died in B. C. 241, from the effects of drunkenness, after a reign of twenty-two years.

Eumenes was succeeded by his cousin, Attalus I. The Gauls, who had been for about thirty years settled in northern Phrygia, or Galatia, as it was afterwards called, made frequent predatory raids into the territories of their neighbors. About B. C. 239 they made a descent upon the territories of Pergamus, and met a terrible defeat at the hands of Attalus. This success induced Attalus to take the title of "king," which none of his predecessors had ventured to assume. Ten years later he was obliged to defend his kingdom against the invasion of the Syrians under Antiochus Hierax, the brother of Seleucus II. This ambitious prince, who was endeavoring to make himself king of Asia Minor, was defeated by Attalus and driven out of Asia. Attalus succeeded also in extending his territories, which, by the year B. C. 226, embraced nearly all the countries west of the Halys and north of Taurus. He was deprived of these conquests by Seleucus Ceraunus and Antiochus the Great, and by the year B. C. 221 he was simply monarch of his Pergamene territory. By wise management and a judicious employment of Gallic mercenaries he recovered Æolis in B. C. 218, and in B. C. 216 made a treaty of alliance with Antiochus the Great, by which the Syrian king restored him the better part of the territory of which he had deprived him.

In B. C. 211 Attalus became the ally of the Romans and Ætolians in the war against Philip V., of Macedon, and rendered good service to his allies. This won for him the all-important friendship and patronage of Rome. After the peace of B. C. 204 Philip attacked Attalus, ravaged his dominions, and endeavored to drive his fleet from the Ægean. The Pergamene king made an alliance with Rhodes, and in B. C. 201 the allies inflicted a terrible defeat upon the fleet of Philip off Chios. In B. C. 199 the second war between Rome and

Philip was begun. Attalus, though seventy years old, warmly espoused the cause of the Romans and rendered them valuable aid with his fleet. His exertions in their behalf caused his death in B. C. 197.

Eumenes II., the eldest of the four sons of Attalus, mounted the throne of his father, whose talents and policy he also inherited. In the wars of Rome with Philip of Macedonia, Antiochus the Great, of Syria, and Perseus, the successor of Philip, Eumenes rendered such valuable aid to the Romans, that, after the battle of Magnesia, B. C. 190, he was rewarded with a large increase of territory on both sides of the Hellespont. These additions made Pergamus

Eumenes surpassed him in the assistance he gave them. The capital was adorned with noble buildings, the ruins of which still attest their splendor. Painting and sculpture were liberally encouraged. Eumenes founded the great library of Pergamus, which was excelled only by that of Alexandria, and attracted to his court a large number of learned men. A school of grammar and criticism grew up at Pergamus, which had but one superior—that of Alexandria. Parchment (*Charta Pergamena*), a material for writing far superior to the Egyptian papyrus, was introduced in this reign.

Eumenes died in B. C. 159. He left a son named Attalus, a mere child, too young to reign, and the crown was assumed by Attalus II., the brother of Eumenes, who took the surname of Philadelphus. He reigned twenty-one years, and more than half of this time was spent by him in defending his kingdom against Prusias II., of Bithynia. In order to relieve himself of so dangerous a neigh-



SMYRNA.

bor, Philadelphus supported the revolt of Nicomedes, the son of Prusias, against his father, and helped to establish him upon his throne. This led to peace between Pergamus and Bithynia. Philadelphus was a great builder, and employed the peaceful years of his reign in building cities and adding to his library. Among the cities built by him were: Eumonia, in Phrygia; Philadelphia, in Lydia; and Attalia, in Pamphylia. He died in B. C. 138.

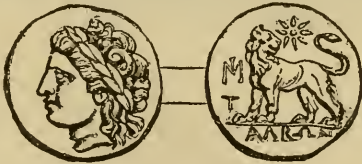
Under Eumenes II. Pergamus became one of the most brilliant cities of the ancient world. His father had been a liberal promoter of literature, science and art, but

Attalus III., the son of Eumenes II., succeeded his uncle Philadelphus. He took the name of Philometer (lover of his mother). His reign of five years was a period of horror. He caused the murder of all the trusted friends of his father and uncle, together with their families, and put to death nearly every office-holder in the

kingdom. Finally he murdered his mother and a number of his relations. Then, seized with remorse for his crimes, he abandoned the government of his kingdom and devoted himself to painting, sculpture and gardening. He died in B. C. 133, and by his will left his kingdom as a legacy to the Roman people.

Rome accepted the bequest with characteristic promptness. Aristonicus, an illegitimate son of Eumenes II., claimed the kingdom as his natural inheritance, and at first won important successes over the Romans. In B. C. 131 he defeated and captured Licinius Crassus, the Roman commander who had been sent to take forcible possession of the kingdom. The next year he was himself defeated and made prisoner by Perpena, and the kingdom of Pergamus became a Roman province.

II. THE KINGDOM OF BITHYNIA. During the existence of the Persian empire Bithynia was one of its tributary kingdoms, governed by its own sovereigns. It readily recovered its independence after the battle of Arbela, and successfully resisted all the

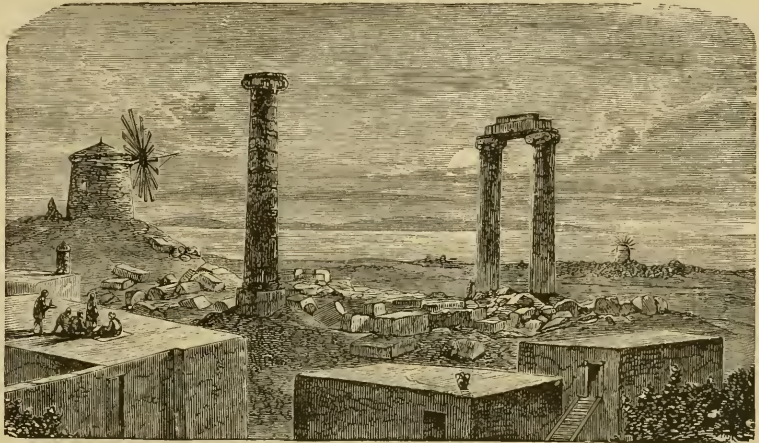


SILVER COIN OF MILETUS.

efforts of the generals of Alexander the Great to conquer it. Bas, the king under whom this resistance was maintained, died in B. C. 326, and left to his son, Zipætes, a flourishing and independent kingdom.

Zipætes reigned forty-eight years, from B. C. 326 to B. C. 278, and successfully defended his kingdom against the efforts of Lysimachus and Antiochus Soter. At his death a civil war broke out between two of

his sons, Nicomedes and Zipætes. With the help of the Gauls the elder defeated his brother, and ascended the throne as Nicomedes I. He founded Nicomedeia, on the Gulf of Astacus. He had two wives, by the first of whom he had a single son,



MILETUS.

Zeilas by name. By his second wife he had three children, to whom he wished to leave his dominions. Zeilas called in the Gauls to his help, defeated his half-brothers, and obtained the throne. He reigned about twenty years.

Prusias I., called "Prusias the lame," succeeded Zeilas, his father, about B. C. 228. His reign lasted until about B. C. 180, a period of forty-five years. The first eight years were uneventful, but the remainder were passed in constant and important wars. In B. C. 220 he assisted Rhodes in her war with Byzantium, and in B. C. 216 gained a victory over the Gauls. He became the ally of Philip V., of Macedonia, in his war with Rome, and in B. C. 208 attacked the territories of Pergamus and compelled Attalus I. to return home for the protection of his kingdom. This act on the part of Prusias made Rome his enemy, and her anger was still further increased in B. C. 187 by the shelter given by Prusias to Hannibal, the vanquished Carthaginian leader. With the help of Hannibal, Prusias attacked Eumenes of Pergamus and defeated him. He gained nothing by his victory, for Rome now intervened and compelled him to compensate Eumenes for his losses by ceding to him the whole of the Hellespontine Phrygia. The

Romans also demanded of the Bithynian king the surrender of Hannibal, threatening him with war in case of refusal, and Prusias was weak enough to order the arrest of his guest. Hannibal, seeing that he could not escape, baffled his enemies by taking poison. With his last breath he expressed his hatred of Rome and his contempt for Prusias. The Bithynian king now turned his arms against Heracleia Pontica, and though he won some successes, received the wound from which he derived his surname of "the Lame." He died soon after this, about B. C. 180.

Prusias II. succeeded his father, and reigned until B. C. 149. He was the most

ular with the people than himself, he sent him to Rome, with secret orders to his attendants to assassinate him. The prince discovered the plot, and with the consent of the Roman senate left Rome and returned to his own country, where he raised the standard of revolt. By the aid of Attalus II., of Pergamus, Nicomedes defeated his father, took him prisoner, and put him to death.

Nicomedes II., surnamed Epiphanes, or "the Illustrious," mounted the throne in B. C. 149. He endeavored to stand well with Rome, and rendered valuable aid in the war against Aristonicus of Pergamus. He was not always faithful to the Romans,



THYATIRA.

wicked and contemptible of all the Bithynian sovereigns, and suffered great disasters. He married the sister of Perseus, King of Macedonia, but declined to render him active aid in his final struggle with the Romans, and on the downfall of Perseus made an abject submission to the conquerors, who allowed him to retain his kingdom. In B. C. 156 he went to war with Attalus II., of Pergamus, and would have conquered him had not the Romans intervened and compelled him to make peace, restore his conquests, and pay Attalus an indemnity of 500 talents. Finding that his son, Nicomedes, was more pop-

ular with the people than himself, he sent him to Rome, with secret orders to his attendants to assassinate him. The prince discovered the plot, and with the consent of the Roman senate left Rome and returned to his own country, where he raised the standard of revolt. By the aid of Attalus II., of Pergamus, Nicomedes defeated his father, took him prisoner, and put him to death.

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however, and in B. C. 102, in alliance with Mithridates the Great, of Pontus, conquered Paphlagonia, and took possession of a part of it. Required by the Romans to restore the province to its legitimate heir he pretended to obey, but by a trick secured it to one of his own sons. In B. C. 96 Mithridates endeavored to annex Cappadocia to his dominions. Laodicé, the widow of the late king, took refuge at the court of Nicomedes, who married her, and, espousing her cause, caused her to be established in Cappadocia as its queen. She was shortly after driven out by Mithridates. Somewhat later, Nicomedes endeavored to regain Cappado-

cia by one of his characteristic tricks, but the Romans refused to be deceived and deprived him of both Cappadocia and Paphlagonia. In B. c. 91 Nicomedes died, being nearly eighty years old.

Nicomedes III. succeeded his father, but was almost immediately driven from the kingdom by a revolt headed by his brother Socrates, who was aided by Mithridates of Pontus. In B. c. 90 Rome compelled Socrates to withdraw, and Nicomedes reascended his throne. He now undertook to punish Pontus by making incursions into her territory. Mithridates thereupon took the field with a vast army, defeated Nicomedes on the Amneius, B. c. 88, and expelled him and his Roman protectors from Asia. This led to the first Mithridatic war, which resulted in the defeat of Pontus, and the restoration of Nicomedes to his throne, B. c. 84. He now enjoyed a peaceful reign of ten years. He died in B. c. 74, and, as he had no issue, bequeathed his kingdom to the Romans, a bequest which involved the republic in a third war with Mithridates.

III. THE KINGDOM OF PAPHLAGONIA. The date of the establishment of the Paphlagonian kingdom is unknown. After the establishment of the Persian empire it was nominally subject to that power, but was never entirely submissive to it. As early as B. c. 400 we find the kingdom paying very little attention to the great king's orders, and about the same year the Paphlagonian king allowed the Ten Thousand to pass through his territory without making any effort to check their progress. In B. c. 394 Cotys or Otys, the king of the country, entered into an alliance with Agesilaus of Sparta against Persia. About B. c. 365, Thyus, or Thys, another king, was reduced to submission by the Persian Satrap Dattames. Upon the fall of the Persian empire Paphlagonia did not become a part of

the dominions of Alexander the Great in anything more than name. Shortly after it was overrun by Mithridates of Pontus, and attached to his kingdom, of which it formed a portion for many years. The time at which it recovered its independence is uncertain, but about B. c. 200 it appears once more under the rule of native monarchs, and is engaged in wars to protect its freedom against the efforts of Pontus, on the one hand, and Bithynia on the other. In B. c. 102 Pylamenes, the last native king, died without issue, and the country was seized conjointly by Mithridates the



AN EASTERN WELL.

Great, of Pontus, and Nicomedes II. of Bithynia. Mithridates at length succeeded in driving out the Bithynians and annexed Paphlagonia to his own dominions.

IV. THE KINGDOM OF PONTUS. The kingdom of Pontus was formed out of the satrapy of Cappadocia, which Darius I. of Persia conferred upon Onates, one of the generals who had assisted him to overthrow the false Smerdis. Onates was a descendant of the ancient Arian kings of Cappadocia, and Darius made the satrapy hereditary in his family. In B. c. 363 Ariobarzanes, the son of Mithridates, the satrap, led a successful revolt against Persia, and made himself master of that portion of Cappadocia which lay along the coast of the Euxine. He erected his territory into a kingdom, to which the Greeks gave the name of "Pontus," by which it has since been known. Inland Cappadocia remained a province of

Persia. Ariobarzanes died in B. C. 337, and was succeeded by his son Mithridates I. Upon the conquest of Persia by Alexander the Great, Pontus became a Macedonian province, B. C. 322. In B. C. 318 Mithridates threw off the Macedonian yoke, and re-established the independence of his country. He was assassinated in B. C. 302, by order of Antigonus, to whom, as we have seen, Phrygia, Lycia, and Pamphylia had fallen in the division of Alexander's dominions.

Mithridates II. succeeded his father. He reigned thirty-six years, and added to his dominions at the expense of Cappadocia and Paphlagonia. He was succeeded by his son Ariobarzanes II., in B. C. 266, whose reign was uneventful. He died about B. C. 245, and the crown passed to his son Mithridates III., who was the most spirited of all the early Pontic kings. He was a minor when he came to the throne, and as soon as he attained his majority married a sister of Seleucus II., of Syria, and received the province of Phrygia with her as a dowry. In B. C. 222 he gave his daughter Laodicé in marriage to Antiochus the Great, of Syria, and gave another daughter, also called Laodicé, as a wife to Achæus, a cousin of the Syrian king. He never permitted these marriages to influence his political action, and made war upon Syria as readily as if he had not been bound to her by such ties. He is believed to have died about B. C. 190. Pharnaces succeeded his father on the Pontic throne. About B. C. 183, he conquered the town of Sinopé, on the Euxine, and made it the capital of his kingdom. In B. C. 181 he engaged in a war with Eumenes II., of Pergamus, in spite of the efforts of the Romans to prevent the conflict. He gained some successes at first, but was at length obliged to make peace on condition of relinquishing all his conquests except Sinopé. He died about B. C. 160, and was succeeded by his son Mithridates IV., surnamed "Éuergetes." He reigned about forty years, from about B. C. 160 to B. C. 120. He fought in alliance with Attalus II., of Pergamus, against Prusias II., of Bithynia, B. C. 154; and in the third Punic war, B. C. 150 to B. C. 146, was the ally of the Romans against Carthage. He also aided the Romans to drive Aristonicus out of Pergamus, and at the close of the war was rewarded by them with the gift of the Greater Phrygia. He was murdered in B. C. 120 by his disaffected courtiers.

Mithridates V., called "the Great," succeeded to the crown of his father. He was the ablest of the Pontic sovereigns and one of the greatest of Asiatic kings. He was a minor when he succeeded to the crown, and for eight years the affairs of the kingdom were directed by his guardians. He passed this period in diligent study, and is said to have acquired twenty-five different languages. To harden his constitution he engaged in perpetual hunting expeditions in the roughest parts of his dominions. Distrusting his guardians, he began at an early day to accustom himself to antidotes against poison for the purpose of defeating any attempt upon his life. At the age of twenty he assumed the government. He was possessed of a hardy and vigorous physical constitution, and his mind was well stored with knowledge. His remarkable linguistic acquirements enabled him to transact business with every part of his dominions in its own peculiar dialect.

Upon coming to the throne, Mithridates saw clearly that the position of his kingdom would soon make it a mark for the efforts of the Romans, and that, in order to meet them with any prospect of success, he must add to the size and strength of his dominions. With this end in view, he began in B. C. 112 a deliberate and systematic effort at conquest in the East, in which quarter he was safe from the interference of Rome. During the next seven years he added to his kingdom the Lesser Armenia, Colchis, the whole of the eastern coast of the Black Sea, the Cimmerian peninsula, now known as the Crimea, and the region westward from the Crimea to the Dneister. He further strengthened himself by alliances with the wild tribes of the Danube, and with the Kings of Armenia, Cappadocia, and Bithynia. He attempted to place his own son on the Cappadocian throne, in B. C. 93, and to seat Socrates on that of Bithynia, in B. C. 90, but was unsuccessful in both attempts. The Romans commanded him to undo both of these acts, and Mithridates deemed it best to obey, as he was not yet ready for war with Rome.

In B. C. 89, Nicomedes, encouraged by the Romans, invaded Pontus. Mithridates at once took the field with a powerful army, and the next year overran Cappadocia and annexed it to his kingdom. He next invaded Bithynia, defeated Nicomedes on the Amneius, and drove him and his Roman

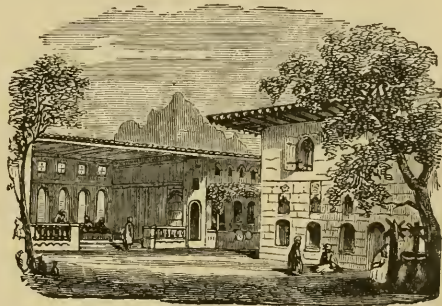
allies out of Bithynia. Mithridates now rapidly overran Galatia, Phrygia, and the Roman province of Asia, and made himself master of all of Asia Minor except a few towns in Lycia and Ionia. He established himself at Pergamus for the winter, and there committed the great error of his life. Elated by his success, he ordered the massacre of all the Romans and Italians in Asia. Eighty thousand persons were slain, and from this moment the fortunes of the Pontic king began to wane. In B. C. 87 he sent two armies under skilful generals to drive the Romans out of Greece; but these forces were defeated by Sulla in the battle of Chæroneia. A third army was sent into Greece, but this was also defeated. In the meantime the Romans had carried the war into Asia, and after gaining several successes, defeated the principal Pontic army in Bithynia, in B. C. 85. Mithridates was obliged to seek safety in flight, and, finding his reverses too heavy to be recovered from speedily, made peace on the humiliating conditions of surrendering all his conquests and a fleet of seventy vessels, and paying to Rome an indemnity of 2,000 talents. The Kings of Cappadocia and Bithynia were restored to their thrones, and the Roman authority was re-established over the province of Asia.

These disasters caused the eastern conquests of Mithridates to attempt the recovery of their independence. The king prepared a large army and fleet to reconquer them, but was obliged to use these forces to meet another danger. Murena, the Roman commander in Asia, suddenly, and without provocation, attacked Pontus, in B. C. 83. Mithridates at first simply complained to the Roman senate, which ordered its general to let Pontus alone. Murena refused to obey the order, and Mithridates marched against him, and totally defeated him on the banks of the Halys. Murena fled, and the senate sent a legate, who negotiated a peace with the Pontic king, in B. C. 82.

Seven years of peace with Rome now followed, and Mithridates was enabled to subdue all his revolted provinces, and to re-establish his kingdom upon a firm basis once more. This accomplished, he bent all his energies to the task of preparing for a final struggle with Rome. His army was made up largely of men from the barbarous nations of the Danube and the Black Sea; it was very numerous, and was disciplined

and equipped according to the system of Rome. The navy was increased to a force of 400 triremes.

Both Rome and Pontus, though each saw that a final contest for supremacy in Asia Minor was inevitable, would gladly have put off the evil day. The outbreak came sooner than either expected or desired. In B. C. 74 Nicomedes III., dying without issue, left the kingdom of Bithynia to the Romans, who accepted the legacy. Mithridates saw that to allow the Romans to occupy Bithynia would be to place his whole western border at their mercy, and he at once poured his forces into Bithynia, and occupied that kingdom. This act, though one of self-defence, was a declaration of war against Rome; and the republic promptly accepted the challenge.



COURT OF AN EASTERN HOUSE.

The war which thus began in B. C. 74 lasted nine years. In the first year Mithridates defeated Cotta, the Roman commander, on land and sea. He then laid siege to Chalcedon and Cyzicus, but was obliged to abandon these enterprises. In B. C. 73 his army was badly beaten by Lucullus, and his fleet was defeated off Tenedos, and then wrecked in a gale. In the same year Mithridates took Heracleia Pontica, and returning to his capital raised a fresh army. He then took position at Cabeira, but was attacked there by the Romans and routed. He escaped with difficulty, and fled for safety to his son-in-law, the Armenian King Tigranes, B. C. 72. The Romans now demanded of Tigranes the surrender of Mithridates, and upon the refusal of the Armenian monarch, he was declared an enemy of Rome, and the war was transferred to his kingdom, B. C. 70. The war was carried on for three years in Armenia, and the two kings were twice defeated by Lucullus, B. C. 69. In B. C. 68 Mithridates returned to his kingdom with a new

army, and in the course of a few months inflicted two defeats upon the Romans. A mutiny in the army of Lucullus paralyzed the efforts of that commander, and Mithridates and Tigranes recovered Pontus and Cappadocia. In B. C. 66 Lucullus was superseded by Pompey the Great. The new commander saw that it was within the power of the allied kings to prolong the war indefinitely, and he determined to give Tigranes employment at home until he could destroy Mithridates. To this end he made a treaty of friendship and alliance with Phraates, King of Parthia, by which that monarch agreed to attack Armenia. This was done in the same year, and Tigranes was obliged to devote all his efforts to the defence of his own kingdom. Pompey promptly advanced upon Mithridates, defeated him with the loss of nearly the whole of his army, and forced him to fly from Pontus across the Black Sea into the Crimea, where the Romans made no effort to pursue him. The year B. C. 65 saw Pontus entirely in the hands of the Romans. Mithridates now prepared to renew the war against Rome from the European coast of the Black Sea, hoping to gather to his standard the barbarian tribes of the Danube, and to march upon Italy from that quarter. In spite of his great age, he entered with enthusiasm into this project; but his officers looked coldly upon it, and a plot, headed by his own son, was formed against him. The old king, finding himself deserted by all whom he had relied upon, gave way to despair, and caused one of his guards to despatch him, B. C. 63. Pontus became a Roman province, and until the time of Nero it continued to be ruled by princes of its ancient line, who held their throne as subjects of Rome.

V. THE KINGDOM OF CAPPADOCIA. The northern division of Cappadocia became, as we have seen, the independent kingdom of Pontus; but the southern division remained faithful to Persia until the downfall of the empire. In B. C. 331, after the battle of Arbela, Ariarathes, the satrap, assumed the state of an independent monarch. He was conquered by Perdiccas, in B. C. 331, after the death of Alexander the Great, and was made prisoner and crucified. Perdiccas made over his conquest to Eumenes of Pergamus, but at the death of that king, Cappadocia revolted, and recovered its independence under Ariarathes II.,

the nephew of Ariarathes I. He died about B. C. 280, and left his crown to his son Ariamnes, who was succeeded by his son Ariarathes III. Their reigns were obscure. The latter king died in B. C. 220, and the throne passed to his infant son Ariarathes IV. Coming to man's estate, this king married Antiochis, the daughter of his cousin Antiochus the Great, B. C. 192. He assisted Antiochus in his war with Rome, and fought as his ally in the great battle of Magnesia, which destroyed the power of the Syrian empire, B. C. 190. By this course the Cappadocian king exposed himself to the wrath of the Romans. He succeeded by good management in appeasing the republic and obtaining favorable terms. He maintained friendly relations with Rome during the rest of his reign, and died in B. C. 162.

Ariarathes V. succeeded his father, and reigned thirty-one years. He was remarkable as a blameless ruler. "He was a student of philosophy, and made Cappadocia a residence of learned men. . . No cruel or perfidious deed of his doing is upon record. He conciliated the affection of his subjects, and commanded the respect of his neighbors. The history of the three centuries after Alexander shows us no other monarch who led so pure and blameless a life." He remained faithful to the Roman alliance in spite of efforts to draw him from it, and when the Romans undertook to drive Aristonicus out of Pergamus, took the field to aid them, and was killed in their service, B. C. 131.

Ariarathes V. left six sons, all of whom were minors at the time of his death. His widow Laodicé became regent, and, in order to retain the power in her own hands, poisoned five of her sons before they came of age. The queen-mother finally fell a victim to the wrath of the people, and her youngest son ascended the throne as Ariarathes VI. The reign of this king was insignificant. He married a sister of Mithridates the Great of Pontus, and was murdered by an emissary of that monarch in B. C. 96. Mithridates at once seized Cappadocia, but Laodicé, the widow of the late king, took refuge with Nicomedes II., of Bithynia, who married her, and established her as Queen of Cappadocia. Mithridates succeeded in driving her out of the kingdom, and a war of several years ensued, during which the Pontic king set up two sovereigns and the Cappadocians themselves one. In

this struggle the old royal line of Cappadocia became extinct. Pontus and Bithynia both set up pretenders to the throne; but the Romans permitted the Cappadocians to settle the matter by choosing their own king. This they did, and Ariobarzanes ascended the throne in B. C. 93. He was almost immediately driven out of his kingdom by Tigranes of Armenia, but was reinstated by the Romans in B. C. 92. He reigned unmolested until B. C. 88, when he was overthrown by Mithridates, who held Cappadocia during the whole of his first war with Rome. He was restored to his throne by the treaty between Pontus and Rome, but was again driven out by Mithridates and Tigranes in B. C. 67, and was restored once more by Pompey in B. C. 66. About B. C. 64 he abdicated in favor of his son, who ascended the throne as Ariobarzanes II. Ariobarzanes sided with Pompey against Cæsar, but after the battle of Pharsalia was magnanimously forgiven by Cæsar, and was allowed to increase his territory. In the next civil war he sided with Antony and Octavian, and was put to death by order of Cassius, B. C. 42. The battle of Philippi overthrew the "Liberators," and Antony gave the Cappadocian crown to Ariarathes IX., who is believed to have been a son of the last king. He soon turned against him, had him put to death, B. C. 36, and gave his throne to Archelaüs, one of his own creatures. This king ruled the kingdom until A. D. 15, when, having offended the Emperor Tiberias, he was summoned to Rome, where he died in A. D. 17. Cappadocia was then converted into a Roman province.

VI. THE KINGDOM OF THE GREATER ARMENIA. From the battle of İpsus, B. C. 301, until the battle of Magnesia, B. C. 190, Armenia formed a part of the Syrian empire. After the defeat of Antiochus the Great, it revolted from Syria, and was divided into the kingdoms of Armenia Major and Armenia Minor, the latter of which lay west of the Euphrates. The first king of the Greater Armenia was Artaxias, who had been a general of Antiochus, and had headed the revolt of his kingdom. He founded the city of Artaxata, the capital of his kingdom. He reigned until about B. C. 165, when he was defeated by Antiochus Epiphanes, who made Armenia once more a Syrian possession. This subjection lasted for an indefinite period. In B. C. 100

Armenia appears once more as an independent monarchy under Ortoadistes, who was succeeded in B. C. 96 by Tigranes I., the greatest of the Armenian kings.

Tigranes began his reign by a cession of a part of his kingdom to Parthia; but about B. C. 90 to 87 won important victories over the Parthians, recovered his lost territory, and added to his kingdom the regions of Atropaténé and Gordyéné (Upper Mesopotamia). He then overran the Syrian dominions, and conquered the whole of that kingdom, including the province of Cilicia. For the next fourteen years—from B. C. 83 to B. C. 69—his dominions extended from the borders of Pamphylia to the shores of the Caspian. During this period he built the city of Tigranocerta, and made it the capital of his kingdom.

He ravaged Cappadocia, and carried off more than 300,000 people, B. C. 75. By so doing he drew upon himself the enmity of Rome. Somewhat later he received and gave active sup-



COIN OF TIGRANES.

port to his father-in-law, Mithridates the Great, who had been driven from his kingdom. The Romans now demanded of Tigranes the surrender of the Pontic king, and, being refused, invaded Armenia. In B. C. 69 Tigranes was defeated, and lost his capital. The next year Tigranes, accompanied by Mithridates, retreated to the Armenian highlands, to which they were pursued by the Romans, who inflicted another terrible defeat upon them at Artaxata. The disaffection of the Roman troops put a stop to their victories, as we have seen, and enabled Tigranes and Mithridates to resume the offensive in B. C. 67.

As has been related, Pompey now assumed the command of the Roman army, and induced Parthia to attack Armenia. The Parthian invasion obliged Tigranes to abandon his father-in-law to his fate in order to save his own kingdom. Having conquered Pontus, Pompey turned his arms against Armenia, and Tigranes, unable to resist both the Romans and the Parthians, submitted. He surrendered all his conquests, and retained only his Armenian kingdom. He died in B. C. 55.

Artavasdes I. succeeded his father. He assisted Crassus in his expedition against the Parthians, B. C. 54, and so won the

favor of the Romans. He offended Antony in after years, and was made a prisoner by him, B. C. 34. In B. C. 30 he was put to death by order of Cleopatra.

The Armenians, upon the capture of their king, conferred the crown upon his son Artaxias II. This proved distasteful to the Romans, and a troubled period ensued until the reign of Trajan, the Armenian sovereigns being merely puppets of Rome. In A. D. 114 the Emperor Trajan converted Armenia into a Roman province.

VII. THE KINGDOM OF ARMENIA MINOR. Armenia Minor revolted from Syria at the same time that Armenia Major threw off the Syrian yoke. Zariadras, the successful leader of the revolt, made himself king of his province. Armenia Minor continued to be governed by his descendants as an independent kingdom until the reign of Mithridates the Great of Pontus, who seized it and annexed it to his kingdom. Upon the fall of Pontus it became a Roman province. Its history is uneventful, and the names of the successors of Zariadras are almost unknown.

VIII. THE KINGDOM OF BACTRIA. After the death of Alexander the Great, Bactria became a part of the Syrian empire. In B. C. 255, Diodotus, the satrap, threw off his allegiance to Syria, and founded the kingdom of Bactria. This kingdom was thus purely Greek in its origin, and so stands in marked contrast with that of Parthia. But little is known of the reign of Diodotus. He is believed to have assisted Seleucus Callinicus in his first expedition against Parthia, and to have obtained in return for this service a recognition of the independence of Bactria. He died about B. C. 237, and was succeeded by his son Diodotus II., who reversed the policy of his father, became the ally of Parthia against Syria, and assisted that country to gain its independ-

ence. He appears to have been overthrown by a revolt led by Euthydemus, a native of Magnesia, who seized the throne and became the third King of Bactria. He was obliged to defend his kingdom against Antiochus the Great of Syria, and was defeated in a battle fought on the Arius. Antiochus was wounded in this battle, and soon after made peace with Euthydemus, and left him in peaceful possession of his kingdom, B. C. 206. Demetrius, the son of Euthydemus, made extensive conquests in Afghanistan and India during his father's lifetime. He succeeded his father on the throne about B. C. 200, and continued his eastern wars. While thus employed he was supplanted at home by a rebel named Eucratides. For some years the two monarchs divided the kingdom between them, Demetrius reigning on the south, and Eucratides on the north side of the mountains. Demetrius appears to have died about B. C. 180, and Eucratides reigned over the whole kingdom. He carried his conquests far into the Punjaub, but on the other hand lost some of his territory through the encroachments of Parthia. He was murdered by his son on his return from an Indian campaign, about B. C. 160. Heliocles, the murderer of his father, now mounted the throne. But little is known of his reign: Bactria declined rapidly under him. The Scythian tribes on the north pressed heavily upon the kingdom, and the Parthians on the west and south wrested province after province from it. The Bactrian Greeks besought the aid of their brethren in Syria, and Demetrius Nicator marched to their aid. He was defeated and made a prisoner by the Parthians. The reign of Heliocles came to an end about B. C. 150, eight years before this expedition. From that time no record of the history of Bactria exists. Parthia and the Scythic tribes rapidly absorbed the country.



BOOK XIV.

THE HISTORY OF THE PARTHIAN EMPIRE.

CHAPTER I.

THE RISE AND FALL OF THE PARTHIAN MONARCHY.

Description of Parthia—Characteristics of the Parthians—Rise of the Parthian Kingdom—The Early Kings—Wars with Syria—Invasion of Antiochus the Great—Alliance between Parthia and Rome—Rome Makes War upon Parthia—Defeat of Crassus—Rome Resolves upon the Conquest of Parthia—Wars between Parthia and the Roman Republic—Reign of Arsaces XXV.—Is Defeated by the Emperor Trajan—War between Vologeses III. and Marcus Aurelius—Other Wars with Rome—Arsaces XXX. King—Rebellion of the Persians—Sudden Fall of the Parthian Kingdom.

PARTHIA proper corresponded nearly in extent to the modern Persian province of Khorasan. It was about 300 miles long from east to west, and from 100 to 120 miles broad. It thus covered an area of about 33,000 square miles, being about equal in size to Ireland. This region consisted of a mountainous country on the north, and a plain on the south. The elevation of the mountain chains is not great, the heights rarely exceeding 6,000 feet. The mountains are for the most barren and rugged, but the valleys, some of which are very extensive, are remarkably rich and fertile. The mountain country is well watered by numerous rivers. The flat country, or plain, lay at the southern base of the mountains, and was regarded by the ancient writers as the true Parthia. It is about 300 miles long. It has always depended upon irrigation for its fertility. In ancient times the fertile belt was much wider than at present, irrigation being more extensively practised, but the plain could never have extended more than ten miles beyond the foot of the mountains, as at that distance the Salt Desert begins, and renders cultivation impossible. Compared with the countries around it, Parthia was a "garden spot," and was regarded by the Persian sovereigns as one of the most desirable parts of their dominions. It was bounded on the north by Chorasmia

and Margiana, on the east by Aria, on the south by Sarangia, and on the west by Lagartia and Hyrcania. "The situation and character of Parthia thus, on the whole, favored her becoming an imperial power. She had abundant resources within herself; she had a territory apt for the production of a hardy race of men; and she had no neighbors of sufficient strength to keep her down, when once she developed the desire to become dominant."

The Parthians were a Turanian race. "Like the Turkoman and Tartar tribes generally, they passed almost their whole lives on horseback, conversing, transacting business, buying and selling, and even eating on their horses. They practised polygamy, secluded their women from the sight of men, punished unfaithfulness with extreme severity, delighted in hunting, and rarely ate any flesh but that which they obtained in this way, were moderate eaters, but great drinkers, and did not speak much, but yet were very unquiet, being constantly engaged in stirring up trouble either at home or abroad. A small portion of the nation alone was free; the remainder were the slaves of the privileged few. Nomadic habits continued to prevail among a portion of those who remained in their primitive seats, even in the time of their greatest national prosperity; and a coarse, rude, and semi-barbarous character attached always even to the most advanced part of the nation, to the king, the court, and the nobles generally, a character which, despite a certain varnish of civilization, was constantly showing itself in their dealings with each other and with foreign nations." The Parthians are represented in modern times by the Turks, who are allied to them in race, and rule over some of the same countries. At the height of their power, the Parthians were barbarians; they were repulsive in appearance, treacherous in war, and indolent and unrefined in peace. Still, they were brave and enterprising, with a genius

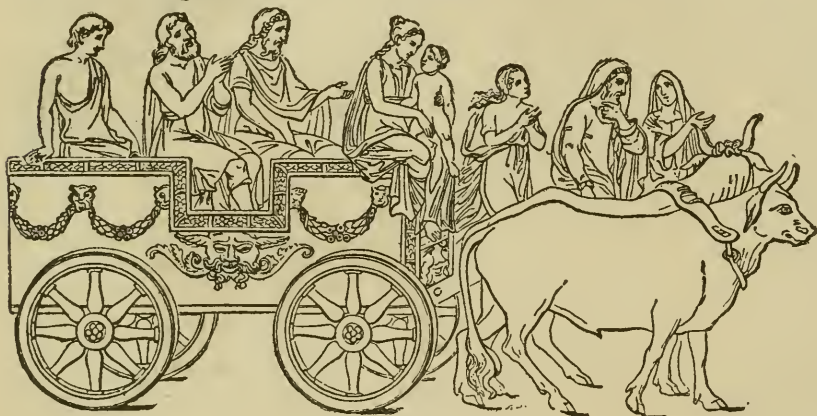
and love for war, and possessed many characteristics which fitted them to rule. They were never subdued by the Romans, and maintained their independence until A. D. 226, when they fell before the modern kingdom of Persia. Rome was forced to confess her inability to deal with these fierce warriors, and when the whole world bowed in submission to the republic and the empire, Parthia remained free under her own kings.

Parthia formed a part of the Persian empire from an early day, and was governed by a satrap. Upon the fall of Persia it became a part of Alexander's empire on the same terms. At his death it passed under the dominion of the Syrian kings, and remained subject to them until B. C. 255. Then the weakness of Syria prompted the Parthians to rise against their Greek masters

him in his revolt. The new king ascended the throne as Arsaces II. The only important event of his reign was his defeat of Seleucus Callinicus, who was forced to acknowledge the independence of Parthia. He was succeeded by his son Arsaces III., about B. C. 216, who two years later invaded Media and threatened to wrest that province from the Syrian crown. Antiochus the Great marched against him, drove him out of Media, invaded Parthia, and took its capital; and pursued Arsaces into Hyrcania, where he defeated him in a pitched battle. He found it impossible to subdue the country, however, and wisely made peace, confirming Arsaces in the possession of Parthia and Hyrcania. This reign is believed by the best authorities to have extended to B. C. 196.

Arsaces III. died in B. C. 196, and was

succeeded by the fourth king of that name, whose reign was uneventful. In B. C. 181, Arsaces V. (Phraates) came to the throne, and about B. C. 174 left his crown to his brother Mithridates I., also called Arsaces VI., a great



A SCYTHIAN FAMILY.

and assert the independence of their country.

The leader of the revolt was Arsaces, a Scythian general, the commander of a body of Scythian Dahæ from the banks of the Ochus, who emigrated to Parthia and obtained the ascendancy in that country. "There was probably sufficient affinity between the emigrant Dahæ and the previous inhabitants of the region for the two races to readily coalesce; both appear to have been Turanian, and the Dahæ were so completely absorbed that we hear nothing of them in the subsequent history." Arsaces made himself King of Parthia. His reign lasted two years, and was spent in consolidating his authority over the Parthians, some of whom resisted him. He was succeeded in B. C. 253 by his brother Teridates (Arsaces II.), who had assisted

and warlike sovereign, who conquered Media, Susiana, Persia, Babylonia, and Bactria, and founded the Parthian empire, the western boundary of which was the Euphrates. The reigns of Arsaces VII. (B. C. 136-127) and Arsaces VIII. (B. C. 127-124) were uneventful. Mithridates II. (or Arsaces IX.), called the Great, was a powerful king and a great warrior. He beat back the Turanian tribes from his northern frontier, and broke their spirit. In a long series of wars he extended the Parthian power in every direction. Parthia now became next to Rome the most powerful state of the ancient world. He reigned from B. C. 124 to B. C. 89.

From this reign Parthian history is uneventful and uncertain until the accession to the crown of Phraates III. or Arsaces XII. He came to the throne in B. C. 69,

at the time when Rome had driven Mithridates the Great out of Pontus and had included Armenia in the war. Both combatants sought his alliance, but for a while he maintained a strict neutrality between them. Pompey, upon assuming the command in the east, succeeded in drawing him into an alliance. Phraates invaded Armenia, and so occupied Tigranes that Pompey was left free to conquer Pontus, as has been related. The object of the Romans being accomplished, they made terms with Tigranes, and even assisted him against Parthia, B. C. 65. The province of Gordyéné, which had been occupied by Phraates, was wrested from him by the Romans and given to Armenia. Phraates remonstrated with Pompey against this breach of faith, but the Roman was deaf to his remonstrances. Phraates then made terms with Tigranes, and the war came to an end; about B. C. 63. In B. C. 60 the Parthian king died, poisoned, it is believed, by his two sons.

By the war with Pontus, Rome absorbed all of Syria, and thus extended her dominions to the western border of the Parthian empire—the Euphrates. A collision between the two great powers that now divided the ancient world became from this period merely a question of time.

Mithridates III. (Arsaces XIII.) succeeded his father. Tigranes I. having died in Armenia, the throne was seized by his second son. Mithridates at once invaded Armenia to restore the rightful heir, who was his brother-in-law. He was unsuccessful in his efforts, and alienated the reigning King of Armenia. A few years later, Mithridates was deposed by the Parthian nobles, who made his brother king. He threw himself into Babylon, where he held out for some time, but was finally captured and killed, B. C. 55.

Orodes (Arsaces XIV.) was made king in the place of his brother. He had scarcely mounted the throne when he became involved in a war with Rome. The wars of Parthia with Pontus and Armenia had shown the Romans that the Parthian kingdom was a richer and more powerful state than any Oriental monarchy with which they had yet come in contact. It was, indeed, the only power that had not submitted to Rome, and the jealousy of the republic was aroused at the presence of so formidable a rival. War was determined upon, and was declared by Rome, without any pretext whatever, in B. C. 55. In B. C. 54 Crassus

invaded Parthia at the head of a powerful army, but was defeated by Orodes and slain. In B. C. 52 and again in B. C. 51 a strong Parthian army, under Pacorus, the son and heir of Orodes, crossed the Euphrates and ravaged the Roman territories. Upper Syria was quickly overrun, and Cilicia and Antioch were made to feel the Parthian vengeance. Orodes having become suspicious of the loyalty of his son, recalled him and withdrew his army behind the Euphrates. Eleven years afterwards, in B. C. 40, the Parthians once more crossed the Euphrates, under the command of Pacorus, who was aided by the Roman refugee Labienus, and invaded Syria. A Roman army, under Decidius Saxa, which sought to bar their way, was destroyed, and Antioch, Apamea, Sidon, and Ptolemais were occupied. Jerusalem was captured



PARTHIAN HORSEMAN.

and plundered. All Syria, Palestine, and Phœnicia fell into the hands of the Parthians, who now turned into Asia Minor and subdued the whole south coast as far as Caria. Here they were checked by the Romans under Ventidius, who in B. C. 39 routed and killed Labienus. The next year he gained a great victory over Pacorus, who was slain. The Parthians now abandoned Syria and retreated behind the Euphrates.

Orodes did not long survive these disasters. He died in B. C. 37, and was succeeded by his second son, Phraates IV. (Arsaces XV.) In B. C. 36 the Romans under Mark Antony invaded Parthia. Antony, after gaining some trifling successes, suffered almost as great a disaster as Crassus, and was driven back into Syria. The Parthians made no effort to pass that river, which remained the boundary between them and

Rome. They were content to hold their own dominions. The Romans on their part had come to understand the formidable nature of the Parthian power.

From this time until the early part of the first century after Christ, Parthian history is unimportant and uneventful. It is simply the recital of a succession of kings, and of the family intrigues and quarrels which disturbed their reigns. Though the Romans did not undertake any formal war against Parthia during this period, they steadily encouraged and fostered the internal troubles of that country. During this period also Armenia, with the aid of

Tigris to the sea, and received the submission of Mesêné, the Parthian province on the Persian Gulf. He pushed his conquests as far eastward as Susa. Here he was compelled to pause by numerous revolts which broke out in the countries he had conquered. He was obliged by these dangers to withdraw into Syria, and Parthia recovered all her provinces except Armenia, Mesopotamia, and Assyria, which Trajan held with a strong force. Hadrian, who became Emperor of Rome in A. D. 117, at once relinquished all the conquests of Trajan and withdrew his army within the line of the Euphrates. Parthia then re-

sumed her former limits, and maintained friendly relations with Rome until the death of Chosroës, A. D. 121.

Chosroës was succeeded by his son Vologeses II. (Arsaces XXVI.), who reigned from A. D. 121 to A. D. 149. He continued the friendly relations his father had established with Rome, and made no effort to deprive her of Armenia. He was succeeded by Vologeses III., Arsaces XXVII., who is believed to have been his son. This king reigned from A. D. 149 to A.



DEFEAT OF CRASSUS.

the Romans, revolted from Parthia and became tributary to Rome.

In A. D. 107 Chosroës (Arsaces XXV.) came to the throne. His first act was to re-establish his authority over Armenia. This drew upon him the vengeance of Rome. The Emperor Trajan rapidly overran Armenia, and made it a Roman province almost without striking a blow. Then, at the head of a strong army, he marched into Mesopotamia and Assyria, captured their cities in quick succession, and added those countries to his empire. Wheeling to the southward, he captured Seleuceia, Ctesiphon, and Babylon; descended the

D. 192. He at first continued on friendly terms with Rome, but in A. D. 161, upon the accession of the Emperor Marcus Aurelius, made an attempt to wrest Armenia from the Romans. He was successful at first; Armenia was overrun; a Roman army under Severianus, the prefect of Cappadocia, was defeated and its commander slain, and dense masses of Parthians crossed the Euphrates and ravaged Syria. The Romans, under Verus, now put forth great efforts. The Parthians were driven from Syria and Armenia, and were followed into their own country. Seleuceia Ctesiphon (the Parthian capital) and Babylon were taken, and the royal

palace at Ctesiphon was burned, A. D. 165. Parthia now made peace, and ceded Mesopotamia and restored Armenia to the Romans.

Vologeses IV. (Arsaces XXVIII.) succeeded to the throne of his father in A. D. 192. He became involved in a war with Rome through his support of Pescennius Niger, A. D. 193, and a Roman army entered his kingdom, captured and plundered Seleucia, Ctesiphon, and Babylon, and withdrew without serious loss.

Vologeses IV. died in A. D. 213, leaving several sons, among whom a dispute arose concerning the succession. The crown fell to Vologeses V. (Arsaces XXIX.), who reigned three years. His successor was his brother Artabanus (Arsaces XXX.), the last King of Parthia. His reign lasted until A. D. 226. The Roman Emperor Caracalla, who had sought to pick a quarrel with his predecessor, was determined to force Artabanus into a war. He demanded the daughter of the Parthian king in marriage, and was refused. Caracalla thereupon crossed the Euphrates, A. D. 216, and advancing through Mesopotamia to the Tigris, took Arbela, and forced the Par-

thians to retire to the mountains. The next year Caracalla was murdered by order of Macrinus, who succeeded him upon the throne. Macrinus undertook to continue the war, but was twice defeated by Artabanus, and was obliged to purchase a peace by the payment of a large sum of money and the surrender of all the Roman conquests east of the Euphrates. The old limits of the Parthian empire were thus restored, and even Armenia came once more under Parthian rule.

At this moment, when the fortunes of the empire seemed to have been fully restored, it received its death-blow. A formidable insurrection, led by Artaxerxes, the son of Sassan, broke out in the Persian provinces in the southern part of the empire. The Persians defeated the Parthian forces in three great battles, in the third of which Artabanus was slain. These victories made Artaxerxes and the Persians masters of the Parthian dominions. On the ruins of the Parthian empire Artaxerxes erected the new Persian kingdom of the Sassanidæ, the history of which will be related in another portion of this work.

BOOK XV.

THE HISTORY OF ROME.

CHAPTER I.

EARLY HISTORY—THE REGAL PERIOD.

Position of Italy—Description of the Country—The Alps—The Apennines—Northern and Southern Italy—The Rivers—Ancient Fertility of the Country—The Ancient Political Divisions of Italy—The Original Inhabitants—Settlement of the Italians—The Etruscans—The Romans—Legendary History of Rome—Story of Romulus and Remus—Rome Founded—Seizure of the Sabine Women—War with the Latins and Sabines—Peace Restored by the Women—Translation of Romulus—Numa Pompilius—His Laws—End of the Legendary Period—The True Story of the Founding of Rome—Tullus Hostilius King—His Constitutions—Conquers Alba Longa—Ancus Martius—Wars with the Latins—Origin of the Plebs—Rapid Growth of Rome—Tarquinius Priscus Increases the Roman Territory and Improves the City—His Changes in the Constitution—Religion of the Romans—Their Gods—Religious Festivals—The Sibylline Books—The Sacred Colleges—The Priests—Servius Tullius King—His Laws—The Military Organization—New Tribes

Instituted—The Walls of Rome—Tarquinius Superbus King—Sets Aside the Servian Constitution—His Tyranny—Lucretia Ontraged by Sextus Tarquin—Revolt of the Romans—The Tarquins Driven Out—Royalty Abolished and the Republic Established.

THE Peninsula of Italy is the central and smallest of the three great peninsulas of southern Europe. Its extreme length from the Alps, on the north, to Cape Spartivento, on the south, is 720 miles, and its greatest width, from the Little St. Bernard to the hills north of Trieste, is 330 miles. Its total area is about 90,000 square miles, as the ordinary width of the peninsula is only about 100 miles. It is bounded on the north by the Alps, on the east by the Adriatic, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by the Mediterranean and the Alps. The peninsula is

irregular in shape, and its general direction is to the southeast. It has often been compared to a boot, the principal portion forming the leg, and the southern part the foot. In consequence of this peculiar shape, its coast line is of very great extent. Italy is inferior to Greece in the number of its bays, its harbors, and its littoral islands. The ancient inhabitants of Italy, though to a considerable extent a nautical people, do not take rank with the Greeks in this respect.

The mountains of Italy consist of two great chains—the Alps and the Apennines. The Alps form a lofty barrier along the whole of the northern and a part of the western border of Italy, and shut it off from the rest of Europe. At their lowest point they rise to an elevation of 4,000 feet above the sea, and from this attain an altitude of 15,000 feet. They are passed only by ten or twelve difficult mountain defiles, which were anciently almost impassable.



COIN OF BRUTTIUM.

The Alps thus formed a barrier, regarded as insurmountable, which protected Italy from the barbarous nations to the north and west, and left her free to work out her destiny. The Apennines break off from the Alps near Mont Blanc, and run in a generally southeasterly and southerly direction to the extreme end of the peninsula. In northern Italy the range consists of but a single chain, which throws off twisted spurs to the right and the left. In central Italy it becomes more complicated, and sends off its branches and spurs, of unequal elevation, in various directions, producing a great and most pleasing variety of surface, which is the peculiar charm of Italy.

The peninsula is naturally divided into northern and southern Italy, the former consisting of the great plain of the Po, and the mountains which enclose it, and the latter of the peninsula proper. It is usual, however, to subdivide southern Italy by an artificial line drawn from the mouth of the Tifernus to that of the Silarus. The region between this line and northern Italy is called central Italy, the name of southern

Italy being restricted to the extreme lower part of the peninsula. Northern Italy, or the region of the Po, is almost all plain, and was not reckoned as a part of Italy until the period of the empire. Italy contains a number of rivers, the principal of which are the Po (the ancient Padus) and the Adige (the ancient Athesis, or Atagis). Of these the Po is the larger.

The soil of Italy is fertile, and anciently yielded a rich return to the labor bestowed upon it. The climate is varied and delightful. The valley of the Po has a temperate climate, which resembles that of central France. Ice forms in the winter in the lakes and the lagoons of Venice. In southern Italy the climate is warmer; snow falls only on the slopes of the mountains, and the olive, orange and citron ripen in the open air. In the extreme south the plants of the tropics grow luxuriantly. The country is generally healthy, except in the marshy districts. The atmosphere is singularly clear, and gives to every object a brightness of coloring and distinctness of outline unknown to the more northern countries of Europe. This imparts to the Italian landscape its peculiar charm. The country is rich in minerals, but has few metals save iron and lead. Its marble is famous the world over. The finest quality is the beautiful Carrara marble, which is procured from the Apennines.

Northern Italy plays no part in Roman history until the formation of the empire. It anciently contained three countries, Liguria, Venetia and Gallia Cisalpina. Central Italy contained six countries, viz.: Etruria, Latium, and Campania, lying west of the Apennines, and Umbria, Picenum, and the country of the Sabines along the Adriatic side of the peninsula. Southern Italy contained four countries, viz.: Lucania and Brutium, on the west, and Apulia and Calabria on the east. Three large islands lay off the Italian coast in the Mediterranean. These were Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica. They were important for their products of the soil as well as their military value.

In the most ancient times Italy was occupied by five principal races—the Ligurians, the Venetians, the Etruscans, the Italians proper, and the Iapygians. The Ligurians and Venetians were weak and unimportant races which confined themselves to the country north of the Apennines, and exercised no influence upon the

general history of Italy. The Iapygians were the earliest of the three remaining races to settle in Italy. They appear to have been of Greek origin, as is proved by their language, their worship of Greek gods, and the ease with which they were Hellenized at a later day. They spread themselves over the extreme south of Italy.

The Italians proper appear to have been the next to settle in the peninsula. They are believed to have come from the north, and to have pressed heavily upon the half-Greek population of southern Italy. They comprised four principal races, the Umbrians, the Sabines, the Oscans, and the Latins. The first three were closely connected, but the Latins were a distinct race. They formed a confederacy of thirty cities. Their country was known as Latium.

The Etruscans, or Tuscans, were the most powerful nation of the north, and were an entirely different race from all the other inhabitants of the peninsula. Notwithstanding the researches of modern scholars, little or nothing is known of their origin. The most trustworthy authorities regard them as Pelasgi, a race which spread itself over Greece and Italy in prehistoric times. These people called themselves Ras, or Rasena, while they were named by others Etruscans. Their country was called Etruria. They were physically very different from the graceful and slender Italians, being a brawny, stout race, short in stature, with large hands and thick arms. They were equally marked by their strange and gloomy religion. They were given to auguries, the mystical handling of numbers, and the practice of an elaborate and extremely minute ritual. They were evidently a wealthy and luxurious race, and had made a considerable advance in the arts, as their castings in bronze, terra-cotta figures, vases, gold chains, bracelets and other ornaments show; though it is still an open question how much of these was the product of native genius, and how much was imported from Greece. The massive walls of their city show them to have excelled in architecture. They were the earliest of the inhabitants of Italy to engage in maritime enterprises, and the only early Italian race that showed a marked fondness for them.

The Romans belonged to the Latin branch of the Italian race. In later times they gave great credence to a tradition that they sprang from a colony of fugitives from

Troy led by Æneas, upon the fall of that ancient city. Whether such an emigration actually took place or not is immaterial, for it is certain that it exercised no influence upon the ethnic character of the Roman people. Their language and early traditions all prove incontestably that the Romans were of the pure Latin race.

The legendary history of the founding of Rome is as follows: Among the descendants of Ascanius, the son and successor of Æneas, was Procas, the King of Alba Longa. He left his dominions to his two sons, Numitor and Amulius. The latter seized the kingdom, caused the only son of Numitor to be slain and compelled his only daughter to become a vestal. Beloved of Mars, she became the mother of twins, Romulus and Remus. Upon the birth of her children



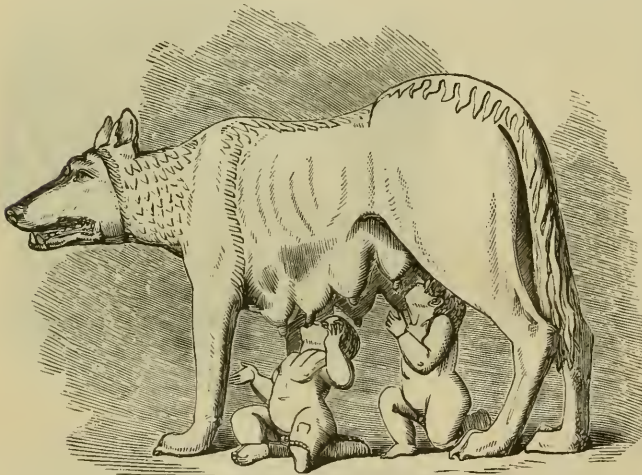
INTERIOR OF A TOMB.

she was thrown with them, by order of her uncle, into the Tiber. The children were washed ashore at the foot of the Palatine Hill, where they were found by a she-wolf, who took them to her cave and suckled them, while a wood-pecker brought them food, until they were discovered by one of the royal herdsmen named Faustulus. He reared them with his own sons on the Palatine Hill, on which the elder, Romulus, founded a city when he came to man's estate, and called it after himself. Finding his people too weak, Romulus made his city an asylum for criminals and fugitives of all kinds, who flocked to him in large numbers. These needed wives to make them permanent citizens, and the surrounding nations would not give them their daughters in marriage. Romulus accomplished the desired result by a stratagem. He arranged a great festival to which he invited the

Latins and the Sabines as spectators. In the midst of the festivities the Romans rushed into the crowd and seized each man a maiden and bore her away. War followed. The Latins were defeated three times. Then Titus Tatius, King of the Sabines, took up the quarrel. Through the treachery of Tarpeia, daughter of the chief commanding the Capitoline fortress, the Sabines gained possession of that post. Tarpeia, attracted by the golden bracelets of the Sabines, agreed to open the gates of the fortress if they would give her "those bright things they wore upon their arms." As they marched into the fortress they threw upon her their bright shields, which they wore upon their arms, and crushed her to death. The Sabines, following up this advantage, attempted to capture the city, but as they were near taking one of the gates a mighty

After the death of Tatius, Romulus reigned alone over the united people. After a reign of thirty years, Romulus was one day reviewing his troops in the field of Mars. Suddenly the sky became darkened and a tempest swept over the earth. When it had ceased Romulus was not to be found. His people mourned him as dead, but he appeared in a glorified form to one of them, and assured him that he had been taken to dwell with Mars, his father, in heaven, and that the Romans would become one day the masters of the world. He himself, under the name of Quirinus, would be their guardian.

There was an interregnum of a year after the translation of Romulus. Then the people chose Numa Pompilius, a Sabine, esteemed for his wisdom and virtuous character, to be their king. The date of his accession to the throne, according to the received chronology, is B. C. 715. He established the religion of the Romans upon a firm basis, and gave to it the distinctive characteristics by which it is known. He was beloved by the nymph Egeria, and from her he drew his inspiration in his interviews with her in her sacred grove "by the spring that welled out from the rock." These counsels he embodied in his laws. He taught his people habits of industry and peace, and endeavored to plant in their hearts a love of right and justice. His reign was



THE WOLF OF THE CAPITOL.

stream of water burst out from the Temple of Janus, and swept them away and saved the city. In memory of this the Romans always kept the gate of the Temple of Janus open in time of war, that the god might ever be able to go out and assist the people of Romulus, as on this memorable day. Another battle was fought, but was interrupted by the Sabine women who had been carried off by the Romans. These, now reconciled to their lot, threw themselves between their fathers and brothers and their husbands, and prayed them to cease their quarrel. The result was a lasting peace. The two people were united. Romulus reigned over the Romans on the Palatine Hill, and Titus Tatius over the Sabines on the Capitoline and Quirinal Hills.

one of peace; the gates of the Temple of Janus were never opened, for the Romans had no enemies to combat. When he died, at the age of eighty years, he was buried under the hill Janiculum, on the opposite side of the Tiber, and the books of his sacred laws and ordinances were buried near him in a separate tomb.

He was succeeded by Tullus Hostilius, with whose accession the purely legendary period may be said to end.

Let us now glance at the facts in the history of Rome which modern scholars regard as certain.

According to the received chronology, Rome was founded in B. C. 753. Modern writers, led by Dr. Mommsen, believe that several tribes, the Romnians, the Leuceres,

and the Tities, dwelling together in this region, had a common stronghold "on the Roman hills, and tilled their fields from the surrounding villages," and that around this stronghold a city grew up by slow degrees. "The founding of a city in the strict sense, such as the legend assumes," says Mommsen, "is of course to be reckoned altogether out of the question. Rome was not built in a day." Whatever may be the correct theory respecting the founding of Rome, it is certain that the story of Romulus and his immediate successors belongs to the domain of fiction. We do not reach the period of certainty until the commencement of the reign of Tullus Hostilius. There is good reason to regard this king as a veritable personage and the leading events of his reign as facts. The date of his accession is B. C. 672, according to the received chronology. He conquered Alba Longa, destroyed the city, and transferred its inhabitants to Rome, settling them upon the Cœlian Hill. This conquest doubled, perhaps tripled the Roman territory, and made Rome the principal city of Latium, and the protectress of the Latin league, as a distinct power in alliance with it. The federal

army was commanded alternately by a Roman and a Latin general, and all its conquests were divided equally between Rome and the Latin confederacy, thus giving to Rome a share equal to that of the whole league.

In the reign of Tullus, some changes were made in the Roman constitution. In order to understand these, we must examine the first constitution under which the early period of Rome had been passed. The government was a monarchy. The head of the state was a king, called "rex," that is "ruler" or "director." He exercised a great, though not an absolute power over the citizens. The monarchy was elective. The death of the king was followed by an

interregnum, during which the government was administered by the senate or council, whose ten chief men, called "Decem Primi," exercised the royal authority, each in his turn, for five days. The senate elected the king, and the people confirmed their choice. Next to the king were the Patricii, or hereditary nobility, who derived their rank from their descent from noble ancestors. These noble families or houses, or "gentes," were originally one hundred in number, but were subsequently increased to two hundred upon the union with the Sabines. Each was represented by its chief, who was by virtue of his position a member of the senate or council of the king. All the members of a house had a single clan-name, all might participate in certain sacred rites, and all had certain rights of property in common. All males of full age of the noble



ANCIENT BANQUET.

order had the right of attending the "Comitia," or public assembly. In this assembly they were divided into ten "Curie," each of which was composed of members of ten houses. Each *Curia* had its chief, who was called "Curio." The chief of the ten Curiones was the presiding officer of the assembly, and was called "Curio Maximus." No law could be changed without the consent of both the senate and the assembly. The senate could both discuss and vote public measures; the assembly could only vote upon them. The assembly determined on peace or war, and was a court of appeal from the decisions of the king or a judge. Besides the patricii there was the mass of

the people, divided into two orders of clients and slaves. The clients were the dependents of the noble houses. They bore the clan-name of their patron. Though personally free, they had no political power. They usually cultivated the lands of their patrons or carried on a trade under their protection. They followed their patron to war, contributed to his ransom, or to that of his children in case of their captivity, and assisted in defraying the expenses of any law-suit in which he might be engaged, or the cost of his serving in any of the honorable offices of the state. The patron on his part was bound to protect the interests of his clients, if necessary, at the legal tribunals. The relation of patron and client descended from father to son, and it was considered a great distinction for a noble house to have a numerous clientage. The slaves were situated similarly to those of all countries, but were not numerous in the earlier periods.



ASSARION.

The addition by Tullus of the Albans to his subjects increased the patrician order by the union of the Alban nobles. The tribes became three in number, the "gentes" or "houses" three hundred, and the "curiæ" thirty. The senate retained its old number at first, the Alban gentes not yet being given the privilege of forming a part of it. The college of Vestal Virgins was increased from four to six, as Rome had now become the home of the Albans, but no other changes were made in the religious organization.

The successor of Tullus Hostilius was Ancus Martius, who came to the throne, according to the received chronology, B. C. 640. He is said to have been one of the Sabines or Titians. He made war upon the Latin towns, conquered several, and transported their inhabitants to Rome, whose power and importance were thus greatly increased. Many of the new settlers became clients of the noble houses, but the richer and more independent class refused to assume this position, and at length these became so numerous as to make it necessary to assign them some definite place in the

state. They were organized by Ancus Martius, according to the belief of the later Romans, into a distinct class of freemen, dependent on the protection of the king, and known as the "Plebs" or Commonalty. They consisted of several elements: 1. Free settlers; either political refugees, mercenary soldiers, or merchants. 2. Forced settlers, composed of the conquered people transported to Rome, except those who were admitted into the patrician order, or who became the clients of a noble house. 3. Clients whose patrons had been lost by the extinction of the gens to which they were formerly attached. 4. The issue of marriages of inequality, or the children of patricians by wives of a lower grade with whom their marriages were illegal, and who could not attain the rank of their fathers. Rome had grown so rapidly that it had become necessary to grant a formal recognition to this class of freemen at this early period. Ancus settled them upon the Aventine Hill, and having thus granted them an entire quarter of the city must unquestionably have given them fixed institutions, as he could not have left them without a government.

In the reign of Ancus Rome made rapid strides towards civilization and power. The Roman territory was extended to the sea; the port of Ostia was built; salt works were established in its vicinity; a bridge of piles, the "pons sublicius," was built across the Tiber; the hill Janiculum was strongly fortified; the low lands about the seven hills were drained by the "Fossa Quiritium;" and the first prison was erected.

The successor of Ancus was Lucius Tarquinius Priscus, whose accession is placed by the received chronology in B. C. 616. His reign extended to B. C. 578. Tarquinius was of Etruscan origin, but had long been settled at Rome. He repulsed the Sabines, who had crossed the Anio and threatened Rome itself. He then attacked the Latin towns on the upper Tiber, and in the angle between the Tiber and Anio, and conquered all of them except Nomentum. In the latter part of his reign he invaded the territory of the Etruscans, and gained important advantages over them. By these conquests he added very greatly to the population and to the dominions of Rome. He did much also for the improvement of the city. He built the great sewer, called the "Cloaca Maxima," and restrained the overflow of the Tiber by the erection of a strong

quay of massive masonry along the left bank of the river. This drain and quay redeemed the marshy valley lying between the Palatine and Capitoline Hills, and here Tarquin erected the Forum, with its surrounding rows of porticos and shops. Between the Palatine and Aventine Hills he built the race course known as the Circus Maximus for the amusement of the people. He began the erection of a temple to Jupiter on the Capitoline Hill, but the work was mainly performed by his son.

Two important constitutional changes are attributed to Tarquin. 1. He increased the number of the senate from 200 to 300, by adding to it the representatives of the "Gentes Minores" or "Younger Houses," who are supposed to be the "houses" adopted into the patrician order from the Alban nobility upon their removal to Rome. 2. He "doubled the equestrian centuries;" or in plainer terms doubled the actual number of patrician "Houses." The number of patrician houses had actually dwindled down to 150. From the noblest of the conquered people, Tarquin formed three half-tribes of fifty "Houses" each, attaching them to the old Ramnes, Tities, and Luceres, but on terms of inferiority.

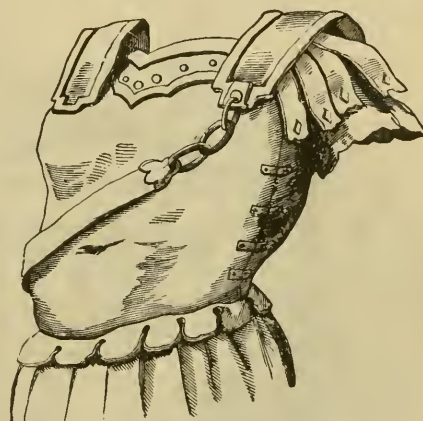
Before passing to the events of the next century, it will be best to pause here and examine the religious belief of the Romans, a knowledge of which is necessary to the student of their history. For at least 170 years from the foundation of the city the Romans had no images of their gods. Idolatry was a later corruption of their system, which was designed mainly to keep alive the simple virtues of the household, and to regulate the transactions of everyday life by a series of principles pure in themselves.

The chief gods of the Romans were Jupiter and Mars. The former was the supreme deity, but the latter was the especial god of this warlike people. Quirinus, under which name Romulus was worshipped, was only a duplicate Mars. March, the first month of the Roman year, was sacred to, and named in honor of Mars. The great war festival occupied a portion of this month. This festival was introduced with horse-racing on the 27th of February. Its principal days were known as the day of the shield forger (March 14th), the day of the armed dance at the Comitium (March 19th), and of the consecration of trumpets (March 25th). During the first days of

the festival, the twelve priests of Mars, chosen from the noblest families, and called Salii or Leapers, marched through the streets singing and dancing and beating on their brazen shields. Wars were begun with this festival. The close of the campaign was followed in the autumn by a second festival in honor of Mars, called the consecration of arms (October 19th). Quirinus also had his festival, the Quirinalia, which was celebrated on the 17th of February, with similar ceremonies.

All the days of the full moon were sacred to Jupiter, besides all the wine festivals, and various other days.

The next festivals in importance were those which related to corn and wine, and marked the various periods of the farmer's year. The first of these was held on the



COAT OF MAIL.

15th of April, when sacrifices were offered to Tellus, the nourishing earth. The second was on the 19th, and sacrifices were offered to Ceres, the goddess of germination and growth; on the 21st, sacrifices were offered to Pales, the patroness of flocks; on the 23d to Jupiter, as the protector of the vines and the vats of the previous year's vintage, which were opened for the first time on this day; on the 25th, a deprecatory offering was made to Rust, the bad enemy of the crops. In May, the twelve priests called the Arval Brothers held a three days festival in honor of Dea Dia, invoking her blessing in the maintenance of the fertility of the earth and the giving of prosperity to the whole Roman territory. In August the harvest festivals were celebrated; in October the wine celebrations in honor of Jupiter. In December there were

two thanksgivings—one in gratitude for the full granaries; the other, the Saturnalia, or seed-sowing festival, on the 17th. There was a third celebration in this month in honor of the shortest day of the year, which brings in the new sun (December 21st). The close of the ceremonial year was marked by the singular festival called Lupercalia, or the wolf festival, during which a certain class of priests ran about the city, girdled with the skins of goats, and lashed the spectator with knotted scourges; and by the Terminalia, instituted in honor of Terminus, the god of boundaries or landmarks.

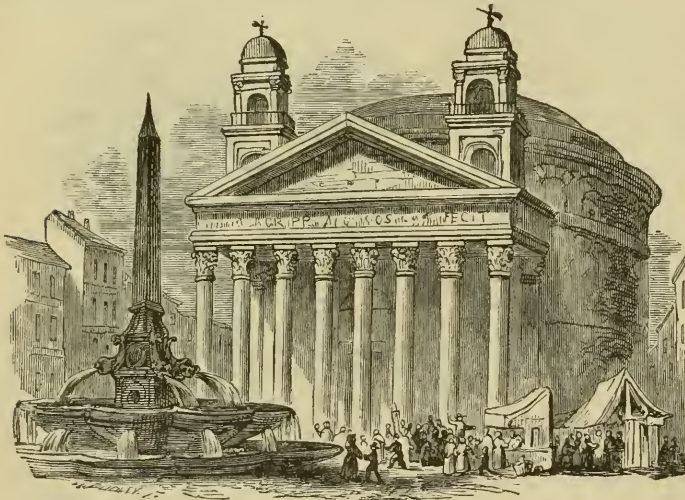
One of the most thoroughly Roman divinities was Janus, the double-faced god of beginnings. The morning, all gates and

tended prosecuting during the year. The temple of Janus stood at the foot of the Capitoline Hill, between the old Roman and Sabine cities. Armies leaving the city marched out through its gates, and returning passed through them into the city. These gates stood open during the continuance of war, as has been already stated.

Vulcan, the god of fire and of the forge, was another of the principal gods of Rome. He was accorded two festivals, the consecration of trumpets in May, and one in August called the Volcanalia.

Vesta, the goddess of the hearth, or the household, was of inferior rank to those named, but was very dear to the Romans, who regarded her as the source of their domestic happiness and prosperity. Every

Roman hearthstone was a shrine to her, and every meal a sacrifice in her honor. Over the principal entrance of every dwelling was a small chapel dedicated to the Lares. Here the father of the family performed his devotions upon returning home before attending to any other duty. The Lares were supposed to be the spirits of good men, and especially of the ancestors of the family. Each city had its protecting divinities, or public Lares, which were worshipped in a temple and numerous chapels, generally



THE PANTHEON—ROME.

doors, the beginning of all solemnities, and the month of January (which, however, was originally the eleventh month of the Roman year), were sacred to him, and he was always invoked before any other god. January, though next to the last month, was dedicated to him because in southern Italy it witnessed the beginning of the labors of the husbandman. Sacrifices were offered to him on twelve altars, and prayers at the opening of each day. The first of March, the Roman New Year's Day, was especially sacred to him. That day was supposed to give tone to the whole year, and people were especially careful of their thoughts and conduct. They exchanged gifts and good wishes with their friends, and usually began some work which they in-

located at the intersection of the streets. Their names were kept secret, for the Romans deeply cherished the "belief that the name of the proper tutelary spirit of the community ought to remain forever unpronounced, lest an enemy should come to learn it and calling the god by his name should entice him beyond the bounds." Rural Lares and Lares Viales were worshipped by travellers.

The Romans, after their intercourse with the Greeks began, regularly consulted the Delphic oracle, and valued its utterances highly. There was but one Roman oracle—that of Faunus, the Favorable god, on the Aventine Hill. There were a number of oracles in Latium, but none of them gave an audible response. The will of

the gods was generally ascertained by augury.

The Sibylline Books, which constituted one of the most precious possessions of the Romans, were believed to have been purchased by one of the Tarquins from a mysterious woman who brought them to Rome and demanded an exorbitant price for them. There were nine books at first. The king refused to purchase them, and the Sibyl carried them away, destroyed three volumes and returned with the other six, for which she demanded the price she had asked for the nine. Tarquin again refused to purchase them—she then destroyed three more of the books, and offered him the remaining three at the same price. His curiosity was aroused, and he bought them, and found them to contain important predictions as to the future destiny of Rome. They were placed in charge of one of the four sacred colleges, and kept in a stone box under the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus. They were consulted only by order of the senate, and in times of great public calamity.

The sacred colleges bore an important part in the Roman system. They were three in number. The *Augurs* were charged with the duty of ascertaining the will of the gods from the flight of birds and the appearance of the entrails of victims. The *Pontifices*, or "Bridge Builders," were the Roman engineers. They were charged with the regulation of the calendar, and it was their duty to see that every festival and religious ceremony and every judicial act took place on the right day. They proclaimed to the people the time of the new and full moon, and were consulted by all classes as to the propriety of performing important actions on certain days. They kept the "book of annals," and were thus the state historians. The *Fetiales*, or "Heralds," were charged with the preservation of the treaties concluded with the neighboring nations, and were required "to pronounce an authoritative opinion on alleged infractions of treaty rights, and in cases of need to demand satisfaction and declare war. They had precisely the same position with regard to international, that the Pontifices had with reference to religious, law; and were, therefore, like the latter, entitled to point out the law, although not to administer it."

The priests of especial gods were called *Flamens*, or "Kindlers," because they offered sacrifices by fire. The most impor-

tant of these was the *Flamen Dialis*, or priest of Jupiter. Next in rank were the priests of Mars and Quirinus. Many restrictions bound the priest to a life of purity and protected his dignity.

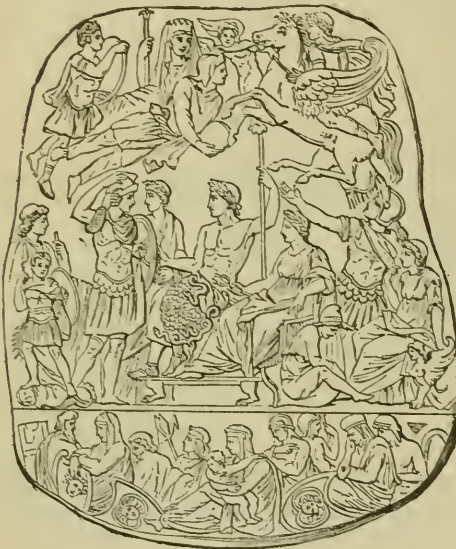
Such were the principal features of the Roman religion in its purely national form. With the beginning of intercourse with the Greeks, Greek ideas crept into the system, and finally many of the gods of Hellas became naturalized at Rome.

The reign of the first Tarquin was brought to a close in B. C. 578 by his murder by hired agents of the sons of Ancus Martius, who hoped to secure the crown for themselves. Their efforts were unsuccessful, and Tarquin was succeeded by his son-in-law, Servius Tullius, an Etruscan general, who boldly seized the throne. Having gained some important successes over the Etruscans, Servius resolved to put into effect a series of radical changes in the Roman constitution.

Until this reign all the powers of the state not vested in the king had been reserved to the nobility. Servius decided to extend the franchise to all free citizens. Taking the existing organization of the army as a basis, he formed a new Popular Assembly, which he named the *Comitia Centuriata*. He divided the entire body of Roman citizens into classes according to their wealth, and subdivided these classes into centuries according to the total amount of property represented by the class. Each century, no matter how great the number of persons composing it, had but a single vote in the assembly. "The result was that a decidedly preponderating power was given to the richer classes; but if they differed among themselves, the poorer classes came in and decided the point in dispute." Each citizen owning property was obliged to serve in the army, and his position in the military service was accurately fixed by his rank in civil life, or, in other words, by his wealth. The highest class established by Servius were the *Equites*, or horsemen. It was divided into eighteen centuries. The first six—two for each of the original tribes—were patricians; the remaining twelve consisted of the wealthier and more powerful plebeians.

With the exception of the equites, the Roman soldiers fought on foot. The mass of the people were divided into five classes. The first consisted of eighty centuries, and was made up of those who were able to

equip themselves in complete brazen armor. These perfectly armed soldiers constituted the front rank of the phalanx. Forty of these centuries were formed of young men, from seventeen to forty-five years of age, the flower of the Roman infantry. The remaining forty consisted of men over the age of forty-six. These were usually reserved as a garrison for the city. The second class consisted of twenty centuries, as did all the others save the fifth, in which the number of centuries was thirty. The second class fought immediately behind the first. They did not wear the coat of mail, and bore wooden instead of brazen shields. The third class wore no greaves; the fourth



ANCIENT COMEO.

was without shields. The fifth class did not form a part of the phalanx, but served as light-armed infantry, and was armed with javelins and slings. All these classes were required to equip themselves for war. Below them were the poorest people, who were only called upon in times of great emergency, when they were armed at the expense of the state. The meeting place of the centuries was without the city walls, on the Field of Mars.

Until the reign of Servius the only Roman tribes were those of the patrician order—the Ramnes, Tities, and Luceres. Servius now divided the city into four tribes, and the country into twenty-six, constituting each tribe of property-holders, without regard to nobility of rank. The

place of meeting of the tribes was the Forum, though it is probable that the rural tribes did not enjoy this right until a later period. To each tribe he accorded the right of meeting and of self-government. Each appointed its own tribunes and aediles, and perhaps its judges. By this arrangement Servius not only contented the plebeians by giving them the right of self-government, but provided for the proper assessment of the land tax, which was levied and collected by the tribunes, and paid by them into the treasury. He provided for the needy plebeians by assigning them a portion of the public lands on the Etruscan side of the Tiber, which had been gained in his early wars. These lands were assigned them in full ownership. This act greatly exasperated the patricians, who had previously leased these lands from the state for the pasturage of their cattle and flocks, and were unwilling to surrender them.

Servius also extended the limits of the city of Rome. The original "Roma Quadrata" stood on the Palatine Hill, but the Esquiline, Caelian and Aventine Hills were now covered with suburban settlements, while the Sabines occupied the Capitoline, Quirinal and Viminal Hills. Servius enclosed all these eminences and a considerable space beyond them within a new wall. This continued to be the city wall without change for more than eight centuries, until the time of Aurelian.

Having completed his reforms, Servius determined to secure their continuance by abdicating his royal power, and causing the people, assembled in their centuries, to choose by their free votes two chief magistrates who should administer the government. These were to be elected for a single year only, and at the close of their term of office were to secure the choice of their successors in like manner. But the change from royalty to popular government was not to be effected so easily and bloodlessly. Before the king could put his resolve into execution, the members of the patrician order, disgusted by his changes, revolted under the leadership of Tarquin, the son of the first monarch of that name, murdered Servius in the senate house, and placed Tarquin upon the throne. The date assigned to this event is B. C. 534.

Lucius Tarquinius Superbus was the last King of Rome. He began his reign by setting aside the whole of the Servian constitution, and restoring the laws which had

existed under the earlier kings. Although he owed his crown exclusively to the patricians, he oppressed them in common with the other classes of the people. He compelled the poorer classes to labor upon the public works which his father had begun, and those originated by himself. He took away the property of the citizens without consulting the senate, and laid upon all classes, civil and military, labors beyond what was due by law. He built a new system of sewers in the city, and the great Temple of Jupiter on the Capitoline Hill, and constructed stone seats in the Circus Maximus. He made a treaty of friendship and commerce with Carthage, and gave other evidences of a capacity to rule, but his tyranny increased yearly. Becoming suspicious of the patricians he caused charges to be made against a number of them, and took cognizance of them himself, sentencing some to death, and some to exile without the right of appeal. Finally matters were brought to a crisis by a dastardly outrage by his son Sextus upon a noble patrician matron named Lucretia. The relatives of Lucretia appealed to the people to avenge her, and a general revolt ensued. The monarchy was overthrown. Tarquin fled from the city, and he and all his clan were banished from the Roman dominions, B. C. 508. Some modern writers have doubted the charges of tyranny brought against Tarquin by the Roman historians; but, as Mommsen well says, they are proved in the main "by the formal vow which they (the Romans) made, man by man, for themselves and for their posterity, that henceforth they would never tolerate a king;" and "by the blind hatred with which the name of king was ever afterwards regarded at Rome." Even Julius Cæsar, centuries later, did not venture to assume the kingly title, though it was thrice offered to him, and Augustus, in setting up an empire, was obliged to avoid the outward appearance of a revival of royalty. The king, however, had been charged with the duty of offering certain sacrifices, and the name was accordingly retained in the office of the "king for offering sacrifice." It was enacted that this "king"—"whom they considered it their duty to create that the gods might not miss their accustomed mediator—should be disqualified from holding any further office, so that this official was at once the first in rank and the least in power of all the Roman magistrates."

CHAPTER II.

FROM THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE REPUBLIC TO THE WAR WITH THE VEIL.

The First Consuls—Republican Institutions Introduced—Rome Loses Prestige by the Establishment of the Republic—Wars with the Latins and Etruscans—Perfidy of the Patricians—They Oppress the Common People—Imprisonments for Debt—Secession of the Plebeians—Mons Sacer Occupied by them—Concessions to them—They Return to Rome—Spurius Cassius Consul—The First Agrarian Law—It is Nullified by the Patricians—The Plebeians Excluded from the Consulship—Revenge of the Plebs—The Fabii—Murder of Genucius—Volero Publilius Chosen Tribune—The Publilian Law—Wars with Oscans and Etruscans—Struggle of the Commons for their Rights—Cincinnatus—Is made Dictator and Defeats the Æqui—The First Decemvirs—The Laws of the Twelve Tables—Appius Claudius—He Seizes Virginia, a Roman Maiden—She is Slain by her Father—Revolt of the Romans—Fall of Appius Claudius—Second Secession of the Plebeians—The Decemvirate Abolished—The Plebs Return to Rome—Measures of Reform—Defeat of the Sabines—The People Accord the Consuls a Triumph in Spite of the Opposition of the Senate—Short-sighted Policy of the Patricians—Third Secession of the Plebeians—Concessions to them—Their Return—Appointment of Censors and Military Tribunes—The Census.

THE Tarquins being expelled, the leaders of the revolution proceeded to lay the foundations of the Roman republic. They not only restored the constitution of Servius, but added to it. Two consuls, Lucius Junius Brutus, the principal leader of the revolution, and Lucius Tarquinius Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia, were chosen by the free votes of the centuries according to the laws of Servius. Collatinus represented the patrician order, but Brutus was a plebeian. The senate, which had fallen away under Tarquin, was brought up to the ideal number of 300 by the addition of 164 life-members, chosen from the richest members of the order of Equites, of whom many were plebeians. Tarquin had suspended the right of appeal. It was now revived and extended to all freemen. These arrangements produced a spirit of harmony between the various orders of the state. The patricians were not satisfied, however. Their hatred and fear of Tarquin had made it necessary for them to conciliate the plebeians in order to secure their powerful aid in the revolution. Hence they made important concessions to them which they meant to recall at the earliest opportunity.

The immediate result to Rome of the change from the monarchy to the republic

was a loss of power and prestige in Latium. The internal affairs of the Romans occupied their entire attention for a long period, and left them no time to maintain their supremacy. Consequently Rome fell from the first to a very low position among the central Italian nations. The Latins threw off their dependence, and the Etruscans made war upon Rome. Lars Porsenna, the Etruscan king, appears to have actually held Rome in subjection for a number of years. Although the Etruscan yoke was ultimately shaken off, the Roman lands west of the Tiber were lost. The hostile Latins and the Sabines and Oscans ravaged the other lands of the Romans without restraint, sweeping away the crops and farm buildings, and carrying off the cattle. These losses resulted in a general impoverishment of the Romans, the chief suffering naturally falling upon the poorer people, whose little patches of land constituted their sole possession and their only means of support.

As has been stated, the concessions of the patrician order to the common people of Rome at the establishment of the republic were such as they meant to recall at the first opportunity. Their lack of sympathy with the people is strikingly shown by the events now to be related.

The loss of the lands west of the Tiber, and the ravages of the hostile nations in the Roman territory after the establishment of the republic, had produced a general poverty. At the same time the taxes were increased, and these were levied upon the scale of former assessments and not upon the reduced values prevailing at the time. Besides this the state required the payment at once of the taxes for five years. To meet their needs the poorer classes were obliged to borrow money at exorbitant rates of interest from the rich. The debtor class was unable to discharge its obligations, and the nobles availed themselves of the opportunity thus afforded them to put into execution the cruel laws concerning debt, and thereby to increase their own power and diminish that of the commons. The Roman law gave the creditor absolute power over the person of his debtor. He could either appropriate him to his own use or sell him as a slave, and it is believed could even put him to death. Many persons sold themselves as slaves to discharge their obligations, and thus condemned their posterity to the same fate. Those who refused to do this were seized by their creditors and im-

prisoned and tortured to make them sign away their liberty. There was scarcely a patrician mansion but had its captives thus imprisoned.

At length, a call being made for troops, the plebeians refused to enroll themselves unless the prisoners for debt were released. This was conceded by the patricians, but the danger had no sooner passed by than the barbarous measures against the debtor class were again put in execution. Driven to despair, the plebeians, in B. C. 494, abandoned Rome in a body, and occupied a hill on the opposite side of the Tiber, known in later times as Mons Sacer, or the Sacred Mount, where they declared their intention to build a city of their own in which they could live under just laws. The patricians now saw their error. They could not afford to have Rome weakened by the withdrawal of this large and useful class. They entered into negotiations with the plebeians, and allowed them to dictate the terms upon which they would return to the city. These were, 1. The cancellation of the debts of all persons who could prove themselves insolvent. 2. The release of all prisoners for debt. 3. The appointment of officers called "Tribunes of the Commons," to be annually elected by the people at large, whose persons should be sacred, who should be recognized as magistrates of the nation, and whose especial business should be the protection of the rights of all plebeians appealing to them. Two such tribunes were at first appointed. The number was afterwards increased to five, and finally to ten. Two plebeian *Ædiles* were also appointed, whose duties were to superintend the streets, buildings, markets, and the general peace and order of the city. They had also the superintendence of the public games and festivals, and were judges in minor cases. At a later period they were made the guardians of the decrees of the senate, which were not always safe in the hands of the patricians. The plebeians having won this great battle for popular rights returned to their old homes at Rome.

In B. C. 485 Spurius Cassius, the consul, proposed to divide certain of the public lands among the plebeians as a means of preventing future suffering. He also proposed that the common people when serving in the army should be paid for their services, and that the tithe of produce levied by the state upon the lands leased to the patricians should be applied to this purpose. The

other consul opposed this measure, and charged Cassius with seeking to gain popularity, in order to make himself king. Nevertheless the measure—the First Agrarian Law—was passed. When Cassius retired from office at the end of his year, the patrician influence was powerful enough to secure his condemnation and execution as a traitor. The real crime of Cassius was his generous attempt to protect the poor against the rich.

The patricians now boldly unmasked their policy. They excluded the plebeians from the consulship, and asserted their right to choose these officers themselves, requiring the commons simply to ratify their choice. The consuls thus chosen refused to execute the agrarian law. The people had



ROMAN SHIELDS.

but one means of redress. They refused to be enrolled in the army, and were protected in their refusal by the tribunes. The consuls then held their levy outside of the walls of the city, where the tribunes had no jurisdiction. They ordered the confiscation of the landed property of those who refused to enlist, and the commons were thus obliged to enter the army to save their possessions which lay beyond the jurisdiction of the tribunes. Still, though they could be forced into the ranks, they had their revenge. Esteeming the patricians their worst enemies, they suffered themselves to be defeated by the Veientians.

For six years the Fabii, the most devoted champions of the aristocracy, had held the consulship. In B. C. 479 Kæso Fabius, being made consul, demanded the execution

of the agrarian law of Cassius, as he was convinced that a further refusal to do justice to the common people would be productive of serious trouble. The patricians haughtily refused his demand, and the Fabii abandoned Rome in disgust and formed a little colony in Etruria. Two years later their settlement was overpowered by the Veientians, and every man slain. The execution of the agrarian law being still prevented by the consuls, they were impeached in B. C. 473 by the tribune Genucius. The patricians, alarmed at the danger which threatened them, caused Genucius to be murdered on the night previous to the trial. This action greatly increased the popular indignation, and when the consuls ordered a new levy of troops, Volero Publilius, who had served as centurion, refused to be enrolled, and appealed to the tribunes for protection. They, alarmed by the fate of Genucius, hesitated, and Volero called on the people to assist him in maintaining his rights. A tumult ensued, and the consuls and their retinue were driven from the forum. The next year, B. C. 471, Volero was chosen tribune. Until now the tribunes had been chosen by the entire people in the centuries, and the patricians, by controlling the votes of their clients, had been able to secure the return of men of their own selection. Volero now procured the passage of a law which gave to the people the selection of their own champions by requiring that the tribunes should be elected by the plebeians alone in the assembly of the tribes in the forum. This measure is known as the Publilian law, and was an important gain for the cause of the people, but it was so stoutly resisted by the patrician party, under Appius Claudius, one of the consuls, that Rome narrowly escaped a civil war.

While the two orders were thus engaged in struggling for power within the city, war was being waged against Rome by the Volscæ and Æqui, two Oscan nations which had conquered a large part of Latium, and had pushed their advance to within a short distance of Rome itself. At the same time the Veii, or Veientians, an Etruscan people, had advanced to the opposite side of the Tiber and had threatened the hill Janiculum. The rural population were obliged to fly before these invasions, and they took refuge within the walls of Rome, where a plague broke out and added its horrors to the sufferings of the war.

Within the city party spirit raged so bitterly as to be often stronger than patriotism. The exiled noble, sent away from Rome, thought himself justified in leaguings with the enemies of his country in order to defeat the commons and extend the power of his order.

The plague once more broke out at Rome and swept away large numbers of citizens. At the same time the Æqui and Volsci extended their ravages to the walls of the city, and a famine broke out within the walls. All this while the patricians maintained their pretensions unabated, and the commons watched eagerly for an opportunity to place their rights upon a secure footing. These internal troubles weakened Rome so greatly that she could barely maintain herself against the attacks of her enemies. It was evident that a thorough reform was necessary. In B. C. 462 Terentilius Harsa, the tribune, proposed the appointment of a board of five patrician and five plebeian commissioners, who should be charged with the task of codifying the existing laws, limiting and defining the authority of the consuls, and framing a constitution which should secure justice to both orders. The patricians bitterly opposed this measure, and for ten years the opposition to it kept Rome on the brink of ruin. Several times the city came near falling into the hands of the Volscians. Once, a band of slaves, led by a Sabine named Appius Herdonius, seized the capitol and demanded the restoration of all the exiled citizens. The citizens drove out the invaders and regained the capitol.

One of the most prominent of the exiles was Kæso Quinctius, the son of Lucius Quinctius. The father was called Cincinnatus because he wore his hair in long curling locks. Kæso had been banished for his ungovernable violence, and is believed to have been slain in the struggle at the capitol, in which the consul who led the attacking party was also slain. Cincinnatus was chosen the successor of this consul, and in revenge for the fate of his son, he declared that the law of Terentilius should never pass while he was in office, and that he would exercise all his power to prevent the meeting of a properly qualified assembly. The senate and the more prudent of the patrician party, seeing that such an exercise of the consul's power would tax the patience of the commons too far, prevailed upon him to desist. Cincinnatus, at the

end of his year of office, went back to his farm, which he cultivated himself, though a patrician. Two years later, Rome being hard pressed by the Æqui, B. C. 458, the senate sent to summon Cincinnatus to undertake the task of defeating the enemy. The messengers found him at his plow, and formally communicated to him the resolution of the senate creating him Dictator, with absolute power. He accepted the trust, hastened to Rome, raised an army in a single day, marched the following evening against the Æqui, inflicted upon them a crushing defeat, and returned home in triumph the next day. He made use of his power, however, to cause the banishment of the man who had secured the exile of his son Kæso. Then he surrendered the dictatorship and returned to his farm.

The passage of the law of Terentilius was delayed six years longer, but in B. C. 452 the patricians yielded, and ten commissioners were chosen. They were all patricians, but were men of known moderation, and enjoyed the confidence of both orders. All the powers of the state were intrusted to them for the time. They are known as the first Decemvirs. During the debate upon the bill, commissioners had been sent to Greece to study the laws of the states of that country. These now returned, bringing with them a learned Greek, Hermodorus of Ephesus, who rendered such important aid to the decemvirs in their task that he was honored with a statue in the Roman Comitium. The code which the decemvirs prepared is known as the "Laws of the Twelve Tables," and became the basis of all Roman law and practice for many centuries. The existing offices of the state were swept away, and a new government established, consisting of Ten Men, or Decemvirs, half patricians and half plebeians, in whom was lodged the executive power. They were elected by the centuries and confirmed by the patrician assembly, and held office for one year. The provisions of the code extended to every department of life. They gave satisfaction to all parties, and for several centuries the Romans were content to live under them.

The change in the form of government did not work so well. The people soon found that they had simply made ten consuls instead of two, and had swept away the protection which had formerly been afforded them by their tribunes. Appius Claudius, one of the new decemvirs, made

his influence over his colleagues so powerful, that he was really master of Rome. He now became the oppressor of the people, and in the end drove them to rebellion.

Among the pupils who attended the daily school in the forum was a beautiful maiden named Virginia, who came attended by her nurse. Appius Claudius became enamored of the maiden, and determined to obtain possession of her. He seized her in the forum and declared that she was the slave of one of his clients, that she had been born of a slave woman in his house and sold to the wife of Virginius, who had no children of her own. The friends of Virginia denounced the insolent falsehood, and rallied to her rescue in such numbers that the consul's officers were obliged to release her, her friends giving bonds for her appearance at the consular tribunal the next day, where it would be shown that she was the daughter of Virginius. Her father, who was a distinguished centurion, was absent with the army before Tusculum. He was at once summoned, rode all night, and reached Rome the next morning. He appeared in the forum with his daughter and friends, but to his amazement and indignation Appius declared that the maiden should be considered a slave until proved free, notwithstanding the existence of a law which he had himself proposed, that no one should be deemed a slave until proven such. Seeing that justice was denied him, and knowing well the fate that was in store for his daughter, Virginius drew her aside, under pretence of speaking to her, and snatching up a butcher's knife from one of the stalls of the forum, stabbed her to the heart, exclaiming: "Thus only, my child, can I keep thee free." Then, turning upon Appius Claudius, he cried, "On thy head be the curse of this innocent blood." The consul ordered his instant arrest, but not a hand was raised to stay him. He hastened from the forum to the army at Tusculum, which arose at his appeal, and marched upon Rome. Icilius, to whom Virginia had been betrothed, roused the other army near Fidenæ. The army under Virginius entered Rome and marched through the streets to the Aventine, calling upon the people to elect ten tribunes to defend their rights. The army under Icilius overthrew the decemvirs who were with them, and also elected ten tribunes and marched to Rome, where they joined their comrades. The twenty tribunes chose two of their

number to act for the rest, and placed a strong garrison in the Aventine. Then the entire plebeian class, accompanied by the army, abandoned the city and occupied the Sacred Mount, where they began the construction of a new plebeian city.

The senate until now had refused to take any action against the decemvirs, but the secession of the plebs compelled them to act. Rome was split in two, and thus divided could not hope to resist her foreign foes. The senate yielded, and the plebeians consented to return on condition of the abolition of the decemvirate, B. C. 449. Appius Claudius and his colleagues were removed. He and one of his colleagues were thrown into prison, where they died. The remainder fled from Rome, and their property was confiscated. The decemvirate was succeeded by a government composed of two consuls, who were freely elected by the centuries. The tribunate of the plebs was restored as it had existed previous to the decemvirate, the number of the tribunes being increased to ten. The people were given the right of appeal to the comitia from the sentence of the consuls. The ædiles were made the keepers of the decrees of the senate in order to prevent them from being ignored or falsified by the magistrates. It was furthermore distinctly enacted that the tribunes should have the right to initiate legislation by consulting the tribes on matters of public importance.

The first consuls chosen under this settlement were Valerius and Horatius, patricians, who possessed the confidence of the plebs. Their first act was to lead the army against the Sabines, who had been encouraged by the internal troubles of Rome to invade the Roman territory. They inflicted such a crushing defeat upon them that the Sabines did not renew their efforts against Rome for a century and a half. Returning home, the consuls were denied the triumphal entry to which they were entitled, by the senate, which, true to its aristocratic spirit, refused to bestow any honors upon the friends of the people. Upon this, the people met in their tribes, and decreed a "triumph" to the consuls in spite of the senate, which was again obliged to yield to the popular will.

An aristocratic reaction now set in, and the patricians opposed the execution of the new laws so energetically, that the plebs again withdrew from the city, this time seizing the Janiculan Hill across the Tiber, B.

c. 444. A compromise was again effected and the plebs returned home. A law was passed legalizing marriages between patricians and plebeians, and providing that the children of such unions should inherit the rank of their father. The consulate, however, was still closed against the plebeians, and its powers and honors were divided among five persons of unequal rank—two censors and three military tribunes. According to Mommsen, the number of these officials was *eight*—two censors and *six* military tribunes. These officials were chosen by the free vote of the tribes, but the censors could only be selected from the patrician order. The military tribunes might be chosen from either order. The patricians managed to prevent the election of the tribunes for six years, and during this time the censors alone were regularly elected. The choice of tribunes took place for the first time in B. C. 438, and it was only with great difficulty that the people secured their election during the three succeeding years. The excuse of the patricians was that the auspices were irregular or unfavorable. In B. C. 433 Æmilius, having been made dictator, caused the passage of a law limiting the term of the censors' office to eighteen months. They were appointed once in five years, and thus the office was vacant during the greater part of the time. The powers of the censors were very great. They caused the general registry of citizens to be made once in five years, immediately after their appointment. The taking of the census was followed by a ceremonial purification of the people, called a *lustration*. Hence the period of five years between the taking of each census was called a *lustrum*. The censors had authority to erase from the registry the name of any citizen they chose, their power being regulated only by their convictions of duty. They were expected to erase only the names of the unworthy, and they had also the right to add the names of those who in their opinion merited the honor. They were the sole judges of the evidence in the cases brought before them. They punished the citizen who tyrannized over his family, wasted his fortune, or maltreated his slaves, by degrading him from his rank, whatever that might be; and such degradation was equivalent to disfranchisement in the case of a private citizen. It will thus be seen that their powers were designed for good; the abuse of them worked great trouble in the future.

CHAPTER III.

FROM THE WAR WITH THE VEII TO THE
EXPULSION OF PYRRHUS FROM ITALY.

Commencement of the War with the Veii—Capture of Veii by Camillus—Discontents of the Romans—Irruption of the Gauls into Italy—Capture and Destruction of Rome—The Capitol Besieged—"Rome Saved by a Goose"—The City Ransomed—Withdrawal of the Gauls—Successes of Camillus—Rome Rebuilt—Errors of the Romans—Hard Terms of the Government—Sufferings of the People—The Licinian Laws—Second Invasion of the Gauls Defeated by Camillus—The First Samnite War—The Army Marches upon Rome and Demands Redress for the Plebeians—Concessions by the Government—The Latins Conquered—The Second Samnite War—Defeat of the Romans at the Caudine Forks—Reverses of Rome—She Recovers from them—The Samnites Conquered—Rome Supreme in Italy—The Latins Conciliated—The Æqui Subdued—The Third Samnite War—Self-Sacrifice of the Consul Decius—Final Conquest of the Samnites and Sabines—Distress of the Common People of Rome—Curius Dentatus Proposes the Second Agrarian Law—Fourth Secession of the Plebeians—The Patricians Yield—The Hortensian Laws—The War with Tarentum—Pyrrhus in Italy—First Conflict between the Romans and the Greeks—The Tarentines find a Master in Pyrrhus—His Early Successes—Fails to Induce the Latins and Romans to Join him—Rome Refuses to Treat with him—Events of the War—Pyrrhus becomes Disheartened—Goes to Sicily—His Successes there—Returns to Italy—His Disasters—Abandons Italy and Returns to Greece—Conquest of Southern Italy by the Romans—It is Settled with Roman Colonies—Roman Roads—The Appian Way—The Roman Colonial System—The Plebeians Admitted to Political Equality at Rome.

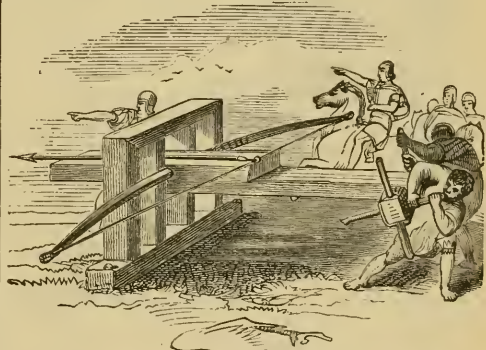
IN B. C. 405 Rome made war upon the Veientians, who had harassed her sorely during her period of internal trouble. This war lasted ten years, and was brought to a close in B. C. 392 by the capture of Veii by the dictator Camillus. The continuance of hostilities made it necessary to keep the army in the field during the entire year. This continuous service of the troops gave rise to the employment of a standing army, which soon became an important part of the Roman state. To quiet the discontents of the people the senate made important concessions to them, among which was the doubling of the number of the military tribunes. All disputes were suddenly hushed by a new danger which now burst upon Rome.

The Gallic hordes which had begun to pour over the Alps about B. C. 400 had conquered northern Italy and the greater part of Etruria. They now advanced into the valley of the Tiber, in irresistible numbers, defeated the entire armed force of Rome on

the banks of the Allia, and advanced to the city. The mass of the people and the fugitives from the beaten army took refuge in Veii, while the priests and the vestal virgins fled to Cæré in Etruria. The noblest of the patricians threw themselves into the capitol, resolved to defend it to the last extremity. The Gauls found the city deserted except by the senators, who had remained to sacrifice themselves to the infernal gods for their country's safety. They were massacred by the barbarians, who burned the city, and laid siege to the capitol. The siege lasted eight months. Towards its close the Gauls attempted to surprise the garrison by night. The foremost man of their storming party had reached the summit unobserved by the sleeping sentinels, when his movements startled a flock of geese sacred to Juno, which the garrison, although suffering from hunger, had spared. The shrill cries of the geese aroused Marcus Manlius, who rushed forward, hurled the foremost assailant from the cliff and defended it until his comrades could come to his aid and repulse the attack. At length, when the garrison was on the point of starvation, and when the Gauls, who had lost many men by their intemperate living and their exposure to the malaria, and who were alarmed by the news that the Venetians were attacking their possessions in northern Italy, were anxious to depart, peace was made. The Romans ransomed their city by the payment of a thousand pounds of gold, and the barbarians retired. They were followed by Camillus, who had again been made dictator. He cut off a number of stragglers, and seems to have recovered a part of the booty carried away by the enemy, but the stories once credited of his annihilation of, or even of a great victory over, the Gallic host, must be regarded as fictions.

One would naturally suppose that such a calamity as had befallen her would have destroyed the power of Rome in Italy, and doubtless it would had not Rome been but one of many sufferers. The Gauls had not crippled her alone. They had first crushed the Etruscans, and had thus relieved Rome from any danger at their hands; and had then extended their ravages to the Umbrians, Sabines, Latins, Æqui and Volsci, who had all suffered severely, and almost as much as Rome. Consequently the enemies of the republic were not in a condition to take advantage of its weakness.

The immediate result to Rome from the invasion of the Gauls was a wide-spread and general distress. The city was in ruins, and the rural districts were in quite as bad a plight. The first duty was to restore the houses of the city and the dwellings of the farmers. The government provided materials for the roofs, and permitted the people to take wood and stone from the national forests and quarries, exacting from each person thus aided a pledge to complete his house within a year. Many were unable to comply with this promise, and thus forfeited their security. The poor were obliged to borrow money at ruinous rates of interest from the rich, to meet the cost of rebuilding, and to pay the heavy taxes levied by the state for the purpose of restoring the fortifications and the temples. The rich again became the absolute masters of the poor, and the severe laws against debtors were once more put in general operation. The haste with which the state sought to



THE CATAPULT, A MACHINE FOR THROWING HEAVY DARTS.

secure the restoration of the city was productive of great confusion. The lines of the former streets could not be traced, as they were covered with rubbish, and the government took no measures to lay off others. "Men built their houses where they could, where the ground was most clear of rubbish, or where old materials were most easy to be got. Hence, when these houses came to be joined together by others so as to form streets, these streets were narrow and crooked, and, what was still worse, were often built across the lines of the ancient sewers, so that there was now no good and effectual drainage. This irregularity continued till Rome was again rebuilt after the great fire in the time of the Emperor Nero." Another evil which threatened the city was the general desire

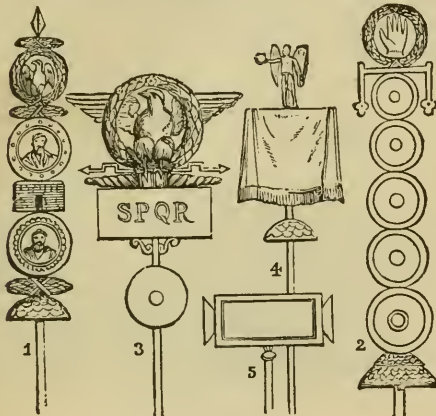
of the plebeian class to remain at Veii, where they could live free from the oppression of the patricians. Through the influence of Camillus a general secession was prevented, but still the number who refused to return was so great that many Etruscans were settled in the city, provided with Roman lands, and admitted to the rights of citizenship.

The distress of the people was very great, and Marcus Manlius exerted himself to relieve it. Unfortunately he endeavored to use the popularity which he thus gained to advance his own ambitious schemes, and was arrested. The people refused to sentence the man who had saved the capitol; but he was afterwards condemned for treason and hurled from the Tarpeian rock.

At length the popular distress became so great that it was evident that it would be

occupation; that no proprietor should hold more than 500 jugera or about 300 English acres; and that each landholder should employ a certain proportion of free labor in the cultivation of his farm. To remedy the political inequality, they proposed the restoration of the consulship, with the proviso that one of the consuls should each year be a plebeian; and in order to make the gain of the commons still more secure, they proposed to increase the number of the keepers of the Sibylline books to ten, five of whom should be plebeians. The patricians bitterly opposed these changes, and it was not until B. C. 367 that they were formally accepted and ratified by the Senate and the *Comitia Curiata*. The first plebeian Consul under these laws was L. Sextius. At the same time two new offices were established, that of *Prætor*, which was restricted to the patrician order, and that of *Curule Ædile*. The friends of the people now hoped that their rights had been fairly secured to them, but the patricians illegally set aside the Licinian constitution, and for fully twenty years contrived to secure the election of patricians almost exclusively to the consulate. In fourteen of these years there were twenty-one patrician and seven plebeian consuls. As a matter of course the harmony which the Temple of Concord was supposed to represent did not exist between the two orders. The plebeians felt that they had been shamefully cheated, and the patricians were aware that on the slightest occasion the storm which they had so carefully prepared by their unjust and illegal course might break out. They endeavored to avert the danger by making peace with all their neighbors, and thus avoiding the necessity for calling out the army; but their ambition was too strong to be always controlled, and it at length involved them in war with the Samnites, which gave the people the opportunity for which they were watching.

In the meantime, however, the Gauls had attempted a second invasion of central Italy, in B. C. 367. They were defeated by Camillus. A few years later they again appeared and encamped within five miles of the city, but suddenly broke up their camp and marched into Campania without molesting Rome. Returning through Latium, they were attacked and defeated. In B. C. 350 they joined the Greek pirates on the coast in plundering the country, and were beaten and driven northward by L. Furius Camil-



ROMAN STANDARDS.

the cause of serious misfortunes to Rome if not alleviated. C. Licinius Stolo, a wealthy plebeian, connected with the patrician order by intermarriages, and L. Sextius, also a plebeian, were made tribunes in B. C. 376. They proposed a scheme for the relief of the general suffering. They sought to remedy first the wide-spread poverty, and secondly the political inequality which bore so hard on their own order. They proposed, 1. That the enormous interest which had been paid by the debtor class should be regarded as a payment of an equal part of the principal, and should be deducted from the sum still due. 2. That the balance due upon such debts should be demandable only in instalments which should be spread over the space of three years. 3. For the prevention of future poverty they proposed to throw open the public lands to plebeian

lus, the son of the dictator. In B. C. 346 a treaty was made between the Romans and the Gauls, after which they invaded central Italy no more.

The Samnites had been since a period anterior to the expulsion of the Tarquins settled as conquerors in the possession of the hill country, which rises between the Apulian and Campanian plains, and commands them both. The Campanians were a highly civilized, luxurious people, who had adopted Hellenic culture and habits to a considerable extent, and they dreaded their ruder countrymen of the Samnian hills, who were constantly descending from their heights and ravaging the rich plains of Campania. They therefore sent to Rome and asked aid against the Samnites, offering to become subject allies of Rome if their request was granted. Rome was at peace with Samnium, but the Campanian offer was too tempting to be rejected. The Samnites were already the chief power in southern Italy, and the only rivals of the Romans in that quarter. To reject the proposed alliance would be to strengthen them; to accept it would be to about double the Roman territory. A treaty was made with Campania, and two Roman armies were sent into that country, B. C. 343. At the same time the Latin allies of Rome invaded the country of the Peligni, and threatened Samnium on the north. Thus began the *First Samnite War*. The Romans were successful in their operations, and wintered in Campania. The absence of the troops from home caused considerable suffering to their families, who were still struggling under the load of poverty, and great dissatisfaction prevailed in the army.

The next year this disaffection culminated in a mutiny, and the plebeian troops now determined to settle the long quarrel between themselves and the patricians. The consuls endeavored to disband the army by degrees before the mutiny came to an open outbreak, but the army prevented the execution of this design by rebelling at once, and marching upon Rome, where it made a formal demand for the redress of the grievances of the people. The government made a hasty levy to oppose the rebellious troops, but the latter army refused to fight, and the patricians were forced to come to terms. After a lengthy negotiation, a tribune of the people named Genucius secured the enactment of a series of laws which both sides accepted as the basis

of a reconciliation. The Licinian constitution was practically restored, and the patricians were punished for their long violation of it by a provision that while both consuls might legally be plebeians, both could not be chosen from the patrician order. It was also enacted that no plebeian should hold the same office twice within ten years, or two offices within a year. To relieve the general distress all outstanding debts were abolished, and it was made illegal to lend money upon interest.

During these troubles the Latins had been left to carry on the war with the Samnites. They were so successful that they declared their independence of Rome. Rome now made peace with Samnium, B. C. 341, and strengthened herself by an alliance with "the Marsian League," a confederation of Sabine towns. Latium secured for allies the Campanians, Sidicinians, and Volscians. The Samnites held aloof from the struggle, and confined their efforts to pushing their frontier forward into the Volscian territory. The war lasted three years, and was really decided by the events of the first campaign. The decisive battle was fought in this campaign at the foot of Mount Vesuvius. The Romans attributed their victory to the self-sacrifice of their plebeian consul, Publius Decius, who allowed himself to be slain, as the augurs had declared that the fates demanded the sacrifice of a general on one side and of an army on the other. The Latins and their allies rallied again, but were easily defeated, and had neither heart nor strength for another effort. The Latin Confederacy was broken up, and the local institutions were everywhere replaced by Roman laws and customs. The Latins being of the same race and language as the Romans, discarded their hostility, which was only temporary, and submitted to the sovereignty of Rome, after a little passing discontent.

The Romans were prevented, however, from undertaking any important war for the next twelve years by the first discontents of the Latins, and by the invasion of Italy by Alexander of Epirus, in B. C. 332. He was a nephew of Alexander the Great, and had come to attack the Samnites. The Romans made a treaty with him, and at the same time prepared to take the field against him if he ventured to attack their possessions, as he surely would have done had he been successful against the Samnites. He was defeated, however, and slain, in B. C. 326.

Rome was now mistress of Latium and Campania; had secured her Etruscan frontier from immediate attack by treaty, and she now felt strong enough to attempt the conquest of the Samnites, who alone disputed with her the possession of southern Italy. The *Second Samnite War* began in B. C. 326 and lasted until B. C. 304. It was begun by the aggressions of Rome upon the Samnian territory, and its undisguised object was the attainment of the supremacy in the peninsula. Nearly all the nations of Italy were ranged on one side or the other as allies of the principals.

For five years the war was prosecuted languidly; both parties seemed to be reserving their strength. The general advantage at first lay with the Romans, but in B. C. 321 the Samnites inflicted upon their adversaries one of the most disgraceful defeats ever suffered by a Roman army. The Romans, under the command of the two consuls, were surprised in the Caudine Forks, a mountain pass between Naples and Beneventum, and were defeated with the loss of half their number. The remainder surrendered. Pontius, the Samnite king, magnanimously spared these prisoners on condition that an honorable peace should be signed by the consuls and the two tribunes of the people who were present with the army. This was done, and the Romans were disarmed, made to "pass under the yoke" in token of surrender. Pontius then released them from captivity and sent them back to Rome. His generosity was thrown away, however, for the senate, having gotten back its troops, refused to be bound by the treaty, on the ground that it was informal. The signers of the treaty were delivered, bound and naked, to Pontius, who refused to receive them, as he did not regard them as responsible for the bad faith of the Roman government. The war went on.

In B. C. 315 the Samnites gained a second great victory at Lautulae. The cause of Rome now seemed so hopeless that her allies deserted her with but few exceptions. Campania revolted, and the Ausonians and Volscians became allies of Samnium. In B. C. 314, however, the tide turned. The Romans by an extraordinary effort placed a powerful army in the field, and defeated the Samnites so terribly in the battle of Cinnna that the latter were crushed beyond hope of recovery. The war would have come to an end then but for the efforts of

the Etruscans, Oscans, and Umbrians, who sought to prevent Rome from becoming supreme in Italy. They acted apart from each other, however, and though they managed to prolong the war for ten years more, they were finally defeated in detail, and in B. C. 304 the Samnites were reduced to subjection to Rome. The other nations then made peace. Rome was now the first nation in Italy. The conquered Samnites were the superiors of the Romans in intellectual culture, for the former had long been subject to the refining influences of Greek civilization, but the latter had vindicated their right to the sovereignty of the peninsula.

In the second year of the war the discontents of the Latins broke out into open hostilities. The Romans adopted a policy of conciliation, and the discontented part of Latium was incorporated into Rome. To show that this was not a merely nominal union, the Romans made L. Fulvius, the leader of the rebels, consul for the year. These wise measures thoroughly identified Latium with Rome, and ended the trouble between the Latins and the Eternal City.

Towards the close of the Second Samnite War the Æqui made war upon Rome. In B. C. 304, as soon as the peace of that year had left them free to act, the Romans invaded the territory of the Æqui with 40,000 men, and in fifty days captured and destroyed forty-one towns. Many of the captives taken were sold into slavery; the rest were made subject to the Roman authority. Some years later they were made Roman citizens, and took part in the wars with the Samnites in the ranks of the Roman army.

The Second Samnite War closed in B. C. 304. The next five years were spent by Samnium in organizing the "League of Italy," a confederation of the Italian states, viz.: the Etruscans, Umbrians, and the Gauls on the north, and the Samnites, Lucanians, and most of the Greek cities on the south, all animated and bound together by a common hatred of Rome.

In B. C. 298 the *Third Samnite War* began. The Romans invaded both Etruria and Samnium. They defeated the Etruscans at Volaterra, and about the same time captured Bovianum and Aufidena in northern Samnium. In the next year the Consul Fabius gained a victory over the Samnites, and Decius, the other consul, defeated the Apulians, and Lucania was compelled to

submit to Rome. The movements of the next year were unimportant, but in B. C. 295 the combined forces of the Gauls, Etruscans, Umbrians and Samnites advanced upon Rome. The boldness and decision of the Romans now saved them. They retained one army at home to meet the invasion, and sent another into Etruria. The Etruscans and Umbrians, alarmed for the safety of their own country, recalled their forces. The allies then retreated across the Apennines, and were followed and attacked by the second Roman army at Sentinum. A

bloody struggle ensued, and the Consul Decius solemnly devoted himself to death, as his father had done at Vesuvius. The victory was won by the Romans, who inflicted a loss of 25,000 men upon the allies. The battle was really decisive of the war. It broke up the confederacy. The Gauls withdrew to their own country, and took no further part in the struggle. Rome now carried on the war separately in Etruria and Samnium. The Samnites resisted bravely, and in B. C. 292 Pontius, the Samnite king, defeated the Roman army under Fabius Gurgus. In order to appease the wrath of the Romans, who threatened to de-

prive Fabius, who was the consul, of his command, his father Fabius Maximus offered to serve as his lieutenant. The result was a great victory the next year, in which the power of the Samnites was finally broken, and Pontius was taken prisoner. The war languished a little longer, but Samnium was obliged to submit unconditionally. A portion of the Samnite territory was annexed to Rome, and Samnium thus weakened became a subject ally of the republic. The Romans stained their victory by compelling Pontius, who had spared their whole army twenty-nine years before, to walk loaded

with chains in the triumph of the consul, and then putting him to death, B. C. 290. In the same year the Sabines, who had espoused the Samnite cause, were conquered by the Consul Curius Dentatus, and their country, rich in forests of oak, and abounding in oil and wine, passed into the possession of the republic.

These wars, though successful, brought serious suffering to the commons. In order to ransom the prisoners ruinous sacrifices had to be made by their relatives, and the prolonged absence of so many men from the



ROMAN MATRONS.

farms brought the agricultural population to the brink of ruin. To relieve the general distress, Curius Dentatus proposed a new agrarian law, which provided for the division of the public lands among the Roman poor. The aristocratic party opposed this measure with so much bitterness that the life of Curius was in danger, notwithstanding his great services. As the opposition of the patricians increased, the demands of the people rose higher, and at last they seceded from Rome and established themselves on the Janiculan Hill. Even then the aristocrats refused to yield,

and only the danger of a foreign war, which seemed imminent, induced the senate to grant the popular demands. Hortensius, a plebeian of ancient family, was appointed dictator. He proposed the famous "Hortensian Laws," which were solemnly ratified by the vote of the people. He either abolished or made a great reduction in all outstanding debts, allotted seven jugera of land to every citizen, deprived the senate of its veto, and declared the people assembled in their tribes to be the supreme legislative power, B. C. 286.

A new danger now burst upon the republic. To reward the Lucanians for their services in the Samnite war, the Romans gave up to them the Greek cities in their territory; but when, in alliance with the Bruttians, they began the attempt to reduce



ROMAN CUIRASSES.

these cities, the inhabitants of Thurii appealed to Rome for protection. Their request was granted, and the Lucanians and Bruttians were forbidden to secure the spoil that had been promised them. The inhabitants of Tarentum, who had long been jealous of the Roman power, and who had been for some time exerting themselves to organize a new coalition against Rome, now took advantage of the anger of the states thus deprived of their prey, to draw them into an alliance with themselves. The efforts of Tarentum were successful. Nearly every nation of Italy was induced to join the league against Rome, and in B. C. 283 Rome found herself menaced by the Etruscans, Umbrians, and Gauls, in the north, and the Samnites, Lucanians, and Bruttians, in the south. Arretium alone remained faithful to Rome, and was besieged by a

combined army of Etruscans and Gauls. Metellus, the consul, was sent to its relief, but was beaten and lost his entire army. The Romans then sent ambassadors to remonstrate with the Senonian Gauls for their violation of the treaty, but these messengers, held sacred by even the most savage tribes, were brutally murdered. Their fate was sternly avenged. A Roman army, under the Consul Dolabella, invaded and ravaged the territory of the Gauls, burning every village, putting all the men to the sword, and carrying off the women and children into slavery. This tribe was literally erased from the list of Italian nations. The Boian Gauls, alarmed and exasperated by the fate of their brethren, now took up arms to avenge them, and united their forces with those of the Etruscans. The combined armies marched at once upon Rome, but were defeated by the Romans with fearful loss at their passage of the Tiber, near the little lake of Vadimo.

In the south a small Roman army had with difficulty maintained itself in Thurii. In B. C. 282 the Consul Gaius Fabricius Luscinius, raised the siege and defeated the Lucanians in an important battle, which was followed by defeats of the Samnites and Bruttians. These successes broke up the coalition in the south, and placed the Romans in possession of an amount of spoil sufficient to defray the entire expense of the war, to allow each soldier a large share, and to leave a surplus in the Roman treasury equal to half a million of American dollars.

Tarentum, the real originator of the war, had taken no part in it, but had contrived to throw all the danger and labors of the struggle upon her allies. Rome was not to be deceived by this appearance of neutrality, and a fleet was sent to cruise around the southern end of the peninsula to watch the Tarentines. In proceeding to the Adriatic it cast anchor in the harbor of Tarentum, which was still at peace with Rome. The long-cherished hostility of the Tarentines now flamed up, and they proceeded in a mob to the harbor, attacked the Romans, who were unsuspecting of danger, and sunk their vessels. They then marched upon Thurii, expelled the Roman garrison, and severely punished the inhabitants for having submitted to the republic. The Romans, with surprising moderation, offered to refrain from making war upon Tarentum on condition of the release of the prisoners

taken, the restoration of Thurii, and the surrender of the originators of the attack upon the fleet. These terms were rejected, and the Tarentines, in behalf of all the Greek cities of Italy, invited Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, to their aid. The invitation was promptly accepted by Pyrrhus, whose restless ambition never allowed him to remain quiet, and in B. C. 280 he crossed the Adriatic and invaded Italy with an army of 22,500 infantry, 3,000 cavalry, and twenty elephants. The latter were now seen for the first time in Italy.

Pyrrhus had already won and lost the Macedonian crown for the first time, and his army was disciplined in the Macedonian school. He was himself the most accomplished general of the time, and his personal character was superior to that of every monarch who then sat on the throne. "He was the first Greek that met the Romans in battle. With him began those direct relations between Rome and Hellas, on which the whole subsequent development of ancient, and an essential part of modern, civilization, are based. The struggle between phalanxes and cohorts, between a mercenary army and a militia, between military monarchy and senatorial government, between individual talent and national vigor—this struggle was first fought out in the battles between Pyrrhus and the Roman generals; and though the defeated party often afterwards appealed anew to the arbitration of arms, every succeeding day of battle simply confirmed the decision." The Tarentines had supposed that the Epirote king would fight their battles for them and leave them to enjoy the ease which they had secured during the first part of the war; but Pyrrhus soon showed them that they had found a master instead of a servant. He put a stop to the performances in the circus and theatre, and compelled the citizens to do garrison duty day and night. They soon became disgusted, and attempted to make terms with Rome, but Pyrrhus tightened his grasp upon them and treated Tarentum as a conquered city. He also sent a number of the leading men to Epirus as hostages.

Having secured the city of Tarentum, which provided him with an excellent base of operations, Pyrrhus took the field against the Romans, and with a smaller army defeated them at Heraclea. Had not one of the officers of the retreating army wounded an elephant, and thereby thrown the pur-

suing troops into confusion, not a man of the fugitives would have escaped. As it was the Romans lost 15,000 men, 7,000 of whom were killed. Pyrrhus, however, purchased his victory with the loss of 4,000 of his best troops and several of his ablest commanders, and he had not the advantage which the Romans possessed of being able to replace his slain.

Pyrrhus had thus shown himself an able general, and he now proceeded to reap the reward of his victory. Many Italian cities joined him, and the Greek cities, with scarcely an exception, went over to him. He endeavored to recruit his army from the prisoners he had taken in battle, and whose courage he had recognized by his generous treatment of them. He explained to them that this was a frequent practice among the Greeks; but to his surprise not a single Latin or Roman joined him. He "learned that he was fighting not with mercenaries, but with a nation." He appears to have been deeply impressed with this conviction, and with the difficulty of the task he had undertaken, and dropping the role of the warrior, he endeavored to gain his end by the exercise of the acute statesmanship of which he was a master. He hoped that their first reverse would so thoroughly dishearten the Romans that they would be inclined to accept an honorable peace, and he sought to secure the freedom of the Greek cities of Italy and to protect it by erecting between them and the Roman territories a series of states of the second and third order as dependent allies of the new Greek power. In plainer terms, he demanded as the conditions of peace the release of all the Greek towns—and therefore of the Campanian and Lucanian towns in particular—from allegiance to Rome, and restitution of the territory taken from the Samnites, Dannians, Lucanians, and Bruttians. His demand was sent to Rome by his confidential minister Cineas, a Thesalian, a master of eloquence, who was charged by the king to lose no opportunity of impressing the Romans with the admiration he really felt for their conduct in battle. Cineas performed his part ably, and won over so many of the Romans to his proposals that the senate began to waver. At this juncture Appius Claudius, who had been censor thirty years before, but who was now old and blind, was told of the mission of Cineas, and of his success with the senate. Filled with patriotic indigna-

tion at the mere thought of making peace with a foreign conqueror on Italian ground, the old man caused his attendants to convey him in a litter into the senate house, where he burst into such a torrent of eloquent and indignant denunciations of the proposals of Pyrrhus that the senate rose to a true sense of its duty, and answered the messenger of the Epirote king that Rome never negotiated so long as there were foreign troops on Italian soil. Cineas was at once conducted from the city, and he went back to Pyrrhus so deeply impressed with the manly patriotism of the Romans that he declared to his master that every Roman citizen had seemed to him a king. The war then went on; Pyrrhus seeking glory only, the Romans fighting for their country.

Pyrrhus had moved into Campania while these negotiations were in progress. As soon as he received the answer of the senate he advanced upon Rome, intending to act in concert with the Etruscans. To his surprise he found the Romans ready to resist him with a fresh army, under the Consul Publius Lævinus, whom he had defeated at Heracleæ. The Roman commander protected Capua against the king, and put a stop to his efforts to communicate with Neapolis. Moreover, the attitude of Rome was so firm that none of her allies of any note—save the Greek cities of southern Italy—ventured to desert her. On his march through the country towards Rome, Pyrrhus encountered no army, but the Latin cities one and all closed their gates against him. The flourishing condition of the country astonished him, and gave him a better idea of the resources of Rome than he had ever had before. The Consul Lævinus followed him closely, ready to attack him at the favorable moment, and a second Roman army under the other Consul Tiberius Cornucanius, who had just concluded a peace with the Etruscans, marched rapidly from the north to meet the enemy, while in Rome itself a third army was organizing. Pyrrhus advanced to within forty miles of Rome, and then withdrew to Tarentum, where he passed the winter. The Romans also went into winter quarters. The Romans during the winter endeavored to effect an exchange of prisoners, but Pyrrhus refused to consent to the measure. He generously allowed all his captives to return home to take part in the saturnalia on their word of honor to return after the holidays if

peace were not made before. No treaty being effected they fulfilled their promise.

In B. C. 279 Pyrrhus gained a second victory, this time at Ausculum, in Apulia. He brought into the field, besides his Macedonian troops, upwards of 50,000 Italians provided by his allies. The Romans were driven from the field, but their army was neither demoralized nor broken up. It was plain to Pyrrhus that he might go on achieving such victories, but as each produced a diminution of his Macedonians, the only troops upon whom he could depend, while the Romans filled the gaps in their ranks with fresh levies, the more victories he should gain the weaker he would be in the end. The courage and patience of the Romans were barriers against which he dashed his army in vain. His allies, except the Samnites, were of no use to him, and he despised them. Still his military honor did not allow him to abandon the struggle just yet. The next year an opportunity presented itself to him to withdraw from the peninsula, and he was so thoroughly disgusted with the results of the war, that he at once embraced it.

The wife of Pyrrhus was the daughter of Agathocles, the tyrant of Syracuse, and his son the grandson of Agathocles, and both were the natural heirs of that monarch. Agathocles having been murdered, and Syracuse being hard pressed by the Carthaginians, the inhabitants of that city invited Pyrrhus to come to their aid. They consoled themselves with the reflection that if Syracuse was destined to lose her freedom, she might, under the Epirote king, become the capital of a great Hellenic empire of the west. Pyrrhus accepted the invitation, and left Italy for Sicily in B. C. 278, leaving garrisons in Locri and Tarentum. Previous to his arrival the Carthaginians entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with Rome, and just before his departure from Italy Pyrrhus made another unsuccessful effort to secure peace with the Romans. Reaching Sicily he drove back the Carthaginians, and reduced them to such straits that they offered to make peace, notwithstanding their alliance with Rome, offering him ships and money which he sorely needed. Pyrrhus haughtily rejected their offer; but his good fortune was brought to a sudden close by a defeat which he suffered at Lilybæum. He remained two years altogether in Sicily, and at one time it seemed that he was about to succeed in his

plans; but he was seized with his old restlessness, and was hurt by the complaints of his Italian allies, who accused him of deserting them, and rashly returned to Italy near the close of B. C. 276. On his voyage his fleet was attacked by the Carthaginians, who captured a number of his ships. His Sicilian conquests immediately rebelled against him. Landing in Italy Pyrrhus attempted to take Rhegium, but was defeated. He succeeded in seizing Locri, which had massacred its Epirote garrison in his absence. He inflicted a severe punishment upon the inhabitants, and plundered the rich treasury of the temple of Persephone to replenish his own exhausted military chest. He then marched to Tarentum, where he arrived with 20,000 infantry and 3,000 cavalry. These were mostly Italian mercenaries; nearly all of the tried veterans he had brought from Epirus having perished in his wars. The money taken from the Locrian temple was sent to Tarentum by ship, but the vessel was driven back by a storm upon the coast of Locri. Pyrrhus, believing that he had aroused the wrath of the goddess by his sacrilege, restored the treasure to the temple, and put to death the men who had urged him to the act. A little later he was defeated at Beneventum by the Consul Curius Dentatus, and towards the close of the year he abandoned the war and returned to Epirus, leaving a garrison in Tarentum, B. C. 275. The Romans now proceeded to reconquer southern Italy. In B. C. 272 Tarentum was taken, and Lucania and Bruttium were forced to submit. Rhegium was taken by storm in B. C. 270, and by the close of B. C. 265 all southern Italy had been conquered, and Rome was supreme mistress of the peninsula from the Macra to Tarentum and Rhegium.

The successful termination of these wars greatly increased the wealth of the Romans, and consequently made a change in their style of living. The state property of the conquered nations went to the Roman state. It consisted principally of public lands, valuable forests, mines, quarries, and fisheries. The senate now granted to each free Roman a sum of money or seven jugera of land, as he elected.

In order to hold her new territories Rome planted them with colonies. This system is said to have been begun as early as the days of the Tarquins, but it now received a powerful impetus by the great growth of the

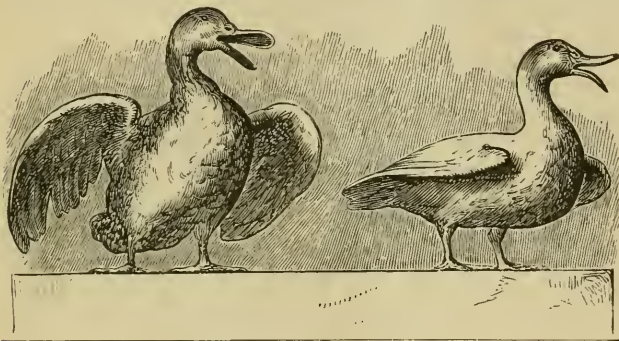
Roman power. Several centuries later these colonies extended from the western coast of Europe to the Euphrates. They were of two kinds, "Roman" and "Latin." In the colonies of "Roman citizens," the inhabitants retained all their rights as citizens of Rome, they voted in the assembly, and were eligible to any public office to which they could be chosen if residents of Rome. In the Latin colonies, the inhabitants lost their rights as citizens of Rome, such as the right to vote and hold office, but retained the rest of their citizenship. The colonies were planted thickly through the peninsula, and as their interests lay with Rome rather than with the country in which they were located, they formed the great bulwarks of Roman power in Italy.

The colonies were connected with the capital by a system of roads, of which the first was the famous Appian Way, a solid, paved highway of such excellent construction that much of it remains to the present day. It was built at the instance of Appius Claudius, "the Blind," between the years B. C. 310-306. It left Rome by the Porta Capena or Gate of Capua, and passing through Aricia, Velitræ, Setia, Terracina, Minturnæ, Sinuessa, and Casilinum, reached Capua, from which it was continued about B. C. 291 to Venusia, and later on to Brundisium. As time passed on, other roads were built to other parts of the peninsula. Wherever Rome extended her power, a well-built road was constructed connecting the principal points of the country with some centre from which communication could be maintained with the Eternal City, so that it became a popular saying that "All roads lead to Rome."

The system by which the Romans maintained their authority over the conquered Italian states was very complex. In the management of her colonies, Rome granted them the right of self-government. They elected their own officers, and administered their own internal affairs. Every foreign city under Roman rule was regarded as a separate state, "and was placed on a certain definite footing with regard to the central community. The most highly favored were the *federatæ civitates*—states that had submitted to Rome upon terms, varying, of course, in different cases, but in all implying the management of their own affairs, the appointment of their own governors, and the administration of their own laws. Next to these in advantage of position were

the *municipia*, foreign states which had received all the burthens together with some or all the rights of Roman citizenship. Last of all came the *dedititi*, natives of communities which had surrendered themselves to Rome absolutely, and which had all the burthens without any of the rights of citizens. Roman law was administered in these communities by a governor appointed by Rome." Certain rights were reserved to Rome, which she esteemed sufficient for the protection of her sovereignty. She had the sole power to make war or peace; she alone might receive embassies from foreign powers, make treaties, or coin money. She had also the right to demand

ence upon the prosperity of the Romans. United and contented at home, they were able to show a solid front to Pyrrhus, and ultimately to triumph over him and to extend their power throughout Italy. Indeed the efforts of the censors had to be exerted to check the power of the commons. Appius Claudius, "the Blind," about B. C. 312, had extended the right of suffrage, which had hitherto rested upon the double qualification of free birth, and the ownership of a tract of freehold land, to two classes, each very numerous—freedmen who had been born slaves, and those who owned no land at all. Instead of assigning them to the tribes of the city, where they properly belonged, he spread them through all or nearly all the tribes in order to enable them to control the elections. His successors in the censorship succeeded in rescuing Rome from the danger of mob rule by confining these voters to four out of the thirty-one tribes, and these located in the city. By the first years of the third century before Christ the matter had been arranged. In this century also the Romans began to use



GEESSE OF THE CAPITOL.

of her subject allies such troops, and the money for their equipment and support, as she needed in time of war. The property of the conquered states passed to her, as has been stated, and by B. C. 267 the public domain had increased so largely that it was necessary to appoint four "Italian quaestors" to collect the revenue from it. They were "the first Roman functionaries to whom a residence and a district out of Rome were assigned by law."

This period also witnessed the destruction of the last vestiges of patrician supremacy, and the admission of the plebeians to full political equality with that order. In B. C. 339 a law proposed by Publilius Philo had thrown open one place in the censorship, and the praetorship (most probably) to the plebeians. A law of Ovinius, the date of which is uncertain, gave to all ex-consuls, praetors, and curule aediles, a right to seats in the senate. In B. C. 300 the Ogulnian law increased the number of pontiffs and augurs, and provided that half of each should be plebeians. These changes were in full operation at the period we are now considering, and exercised a marked influ-

a silver currency; hitherto their coins had been made of copper.

CHAPTER IV.

THE STRUGGLE WITH CARTHAGE.

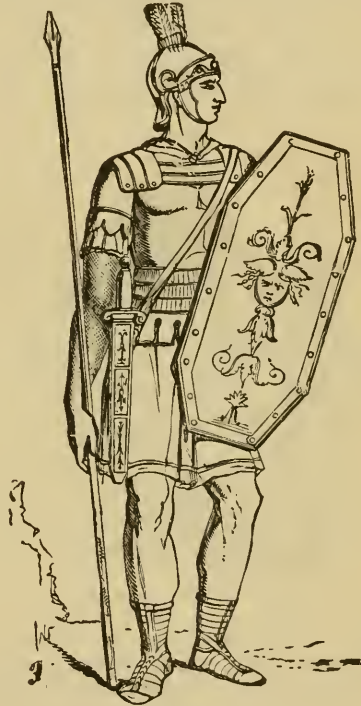
The Wealth of the Romans Increased by their Wars—The Republic Adopts War as a Means of Acquiring Riches and Territory—The Conquest of Carthage Resolved upon—A Pretext for War Found—The First Punic War begun—The Carthaginians Defeated in Sicily—Roman Expedition to Africa—The Home Territory of Carthage Ravaged—Defeat and Capture of Regulus—Loss of the Roman Fleet—Roman Reverses in Sicily—The Carthaginian Fleet Harasses the Italian Coast—The People of Rome Build a Fleet—Battle of Ægusa—Sicily and the Neighboring Islands Conquered by the Romans—Humiliation of Carthage—Close of the War—Rome a great Naval Power—The Romans Seize Sardinia—The Illyrian Pirates Exterminated—Conquest and Annexation of Cisalpine Gaul by Rome—The Roman Territory Extended Northward to the Alps—The Carthaginians in Spain—Their Wise Policy—Hannibal—He Succeeds to the Command in Spain—The Second Punic War—Hannibal Resolves to Invade Italy—Crosses the Alps—Defeats the Romans at the Trebia and at Lake Trasimene—Fabius in Command of the Roman Army—His Wise Policy—Battle of Cannæ—Hannibal Master of Southern Italy—Firmness of Rome—Hannibal Winters at

Capua—Victories of the Scipios in Spain—Marcellus takes Syracuse—Defeat and Death of the Scipios in Spain—The Younger Scipio Succeeds them—He Defeats Hasdrubal—Hasdrubal Ordered to Italy—Crosses the Alps and Enters Northern Italy—His Error—Hannibal Moves to Canusium and awaits the Arrival of his Brother—Hasdrubal Defeated and Slain by the Romans—His Head thrown into Hannibal's Camp—Retreat of Hannibal—Scipio Conquers Spain—Sails to Africa and Attacks Carthage—Battle of Zama—Carthage Conquered and made Tributary to Rome—Wars of Rome in Greece and Asia Minor—Conquest of Sardinia—Greece Conquered by Rome—The Third Punic War—Final Conquest and Destruction of Carthage.

THE earlier wars of Rome had brought pecuniary distress to her citizens. The war with Pyrrhus and those which followed it had actually increased the wealth of the people. They began to regard war as a means of profit, and after the subjugation of southern Italy, they sought a new quarrel for the deliberate purpose of increasing their riches. The wealthy republic of Carthage seemed to promise the most plunder, and as Rome had been forced by the necessities of her late struggle to become to some extent a naval power, it was decided to attack Carthage. A pretext for war was soon found. Under the pretence of aiding the Mamertines against Hiero of Syracuse, the Carthaginians had gotten possession of the citadel of Messana. The Mamertines appealed to Rome for help, and an alliance was made with them, notwithstanding their disreputable character. An expedition was despatched to their aid, and C. Claudius, the commander of the vanguard, succeeded in crossing with his troops from the mainland to Sicily. A little later he seized the Carthaginian Admiral Hanno in a public assembly in Messana, and in order to gain his liberty Hanno removed the Carthaginian garrison from the citadel, surrendered it to the Romans, and left Messana with his fleet. Upon his return home he was crucified by order of the Carthaginian government, and another officer of the same name was put in command of the fleet. At the same time Carthage declared war against Rome, B. C. 264. The struggle which now ensued is known as the *First Punic War*.

The Romans succeeded in throwing a force of 20,000 men into Sicily, to which island the war was at first confined. In B. C. 262 they inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Carthaginians, and captured Agrigentum. About the same time a Carthaginian galley was driven ashore on the Italian

coast, and furnished the Romans with a model, upon which they improved, and soon had a powerful fleet at sea, with which in the next two years they won important successes. In B. C. 256 a fleet of 330 ships, and an army of 40,000 men, under the Consuls Manlius and Regulus, sailed from Italy to Africa, defeating a superior Carthaginian fleet on the way, and landed near Carthage without opposition. They ravaged the Carthaginian territory; sent 20,000 captives, many of whom were of the highest rank, to the slave markets of Rome, and took an immense booty. The next year,



REGULUS.

Regulus being left in Africa with an inferior force, the Carthaginians took heart, and defeated him with the loss of the greater part of his army. Among the few prisoners taken was Regulus himself. Immediately after the battle a Roman fleet was despatched to bring back the survivors, which task it accomplished after defeating the Carthaginian fleet off the Hermaean promontory, with a loss of 114 ships. On the return to Italy the fleet was overtaken by a violent storm, in which 270 ships with all on board were lost. Only 80 ships escaped.

The Carthaginians were so elated at this

disaster that they ventured to renew the war in Sicily, expecting to find that island an easy conquest, but the Romans met them with a strong army, and in the spring of B. C. 254 sent a new fleet of 300 first-class ships to the Sicilian waters. The next year was one of disaster at sea, 150 ships being lost in a storm, and the war languished until B. C. 250, when the Consul Cæcilius Metellus won a brilliant victory over the Carthaginians under the walls of Panormus, capturing the entire Punic force of war elephants, 120 in number. This loss obliged the Carthaginians to quit the open field and retire to their fortresses, which were besieged by the Romans. For the next seven years the war went on, the Carthaginians being generally successful. The exploits of Hamilcar Barca, the Carthaginian leader,



LEGIONARY SOLDIERS.

greatly disheartened the Romans, and caused them severe suffering, as he ravaged the Italian coast at will, meeting with hardly any resistance. The Romans could bring forward no leader capable of defeating him, and the senate made scarcely an effort to resist the enemy. At last in B. C. 242 the citizens of Rome took the matter in their own hands, and by one of the most magnificent efforts of patriotism ever exhibited, brought the war to a close. In the twenty-third year of this exhausting war, they built and equipped a fleet of 200 first-class ships, manned by 60,000 sailors, and presented it to the state. The command was given to the Consul Gaius Lutatius Catulus. He drove the inferior force of the Carthaginians before him, reached Sicily, and seizing the harbors of Lilybæum and Drepana, laid siege vigor-

ously to those places by land and sea. Carthage hastily despatched a fleet to Sicily, which arrived off Drepana in the spring of B. C. 241. The Romans at once sailed out to attack them, brought them to action off the little island of Ægusa, now Favignano, and defeated them, sinking fifty and capturing seventy of their ships. The Carthaginians were so disheartened by this reverse that they consented to make peace, to abandon Sicily and all the neighboring islands, to pay an indemnity of 2,000 talents, or \$2,400,000, and release all the Roman prisoners without ransom.

Thus closed the first Punic war, after a duration of nearly twenty-four years. It was a great gain for Rome. Carthage was expelled from Italian waters, and Rome had grown into a first-class naval power.

In B. C. 238, Carthage being embarrassed by a mutiny of her mercenary troops, Rome seized the island of Sardinia, and not only refused to surrender it upon the demand of Carthage, but threatened to renew the war. Carthage, in no condition for such an encounter, consented to the cession of the island, and paid a fine of 1,200 talents for her remonstrance. In B. C. 227 Rome, encouraged by her success in Sardinia, annexed Corsica. In order to govern these islands and Sicily, she placed them under proconsuls, which officials were at once governor, commander-in-chief, and supreme judge. A proconsul was appointed for Sicily and another for Sardinia and Corsica. This was the beginning of this important branch of Roman rule.

A year or two previous the cities of Greece on the Adriatic coast besought aid from Rome against the Illyrian pirates, from whose ravages they had suffered severely. In B. C. 230 Rome sent an embassy to the Illyrians to demand a cessation of their outrages. The ambassadors were murdered, and war was at once declared by Rome. The next year a fleet of 200 ships was sent into the Adriatic and the pirates were exterminated. More important results to Rome were the establishment of Roman power over a part of Illyria and Dalmatia, and of a Roman protectorate over the Greeks of Apollonia, Epidamnus, and Corcyra. In return for these services the Romans were admitted by the Greeks to participation in the Isthmian Games and the Eleusinian Mysteries. What was more important to Rome was, that she had acquired a footing on the opposite side of the

Adriatic, and the right to interfere in the affairs of Greece.

During these years troubles had been going on with the Gauls and Ligurians in northern Italy. They made war upon Rome in B. C. 238, but were obliged to make peace at the cost of some of their lands two years later. In B. C. 232 Rome, being determined to put an end to the power of the Gauls, which measure would free her from a constant danger in that quarter, and at the same time extend her territory, began to push her colonies into the country of the Senonian Gauls. These colonies were pushed forward so steadily, and made so numerous in the next seven years, and the purpose of Rome became so clear, that the Gauls were obliged to take up arms. War began in B. C. 225, the Senonian Gauls being aided by their kindred beyond the Alps. The struggle lasted three years, and though at one time the Gallic army advanced as far as Clusium and threatened the Eternal City with the fate that had been inflicted upon it by Brennus, the Gauls were utterly routed in a great battle near Telamon in Etruria. The result of the war was that all Cisalpine Gaul was conquered and annexed to the Roman dominions. In order to hold it, it was planted thickly with colonies, which were connected with Rome by the great military road and its branches, known as the Flaminian Way. Rome was now mistress of all Italy, from the great wall of the Alps to the southern coast of Sicily, and from sea to sea.

During all this while Carthage, which had submitted to Rome only from necessity, and had consented to the aggressions of her rival only because of her inability to prevent them, had been energetically seeking to retrieve her losses and prepare for a renewal of the war, which she meant to bring about as soon as she was ready for it. As a means of increasing both her power and wealth, Hamilcar began in B. C. 236 the conquest of the Spanish peninsula. In B. C. 238, at his death, the work was taken up by his son-in-law Hasdrubal, and carried on with vigor and intelligence. These commanders not only sought to bring Spain under the control of Carthage, but exerted themselves at the same time to raise it to a condition which would enable it to become a useful ally. Towns were built, commerce and trade were fostered, the natives were taught the arts of civilization, especially

agriculture, and were trained as soldiers, and the newly-discovered silver mines were worked successfully. Thus the resources of Spain were developed and the country placed in possession of a prosperity greater than it had ever known before, and the revenue derived from it not only defrayed all the expenses of the province, but yielded a large surplus which went into the Carthaginian treasury.

An important change made in the Carthaginian system at the close of the first Punic war was the appointment of Hamilcar to the chief command of the army for an indefinite period, and the relinquishment to the army of the right to select his successor. He was slain in battle with the natives, B. C. 227, and was succeeded by his son-in-law Hasdrubal, who perished by the hand of an assassin in B. C. 220. The Carthaginian army at once chose Hannibal, the eldest son of Hamilcar, to be their successor, and the home government was obliged to confirm the choice.

The new general was a young man who had not yet completed his twenty-ninth year; but, though young, he was a tried soldier. His first recollections were of war. He had accompanied his father to Sicily when a mere child, and had witnessed the agony of that brave commander when compelled to consent to the disgraceful peace which closed the first Punic war. At the age of nine he had gone into Spain with his father, who had taken him before the altar of his country's gods and made him swear undying hatred to Rome. He had thus been trained to regard himself as the avenger of his country's wrongs, and he had been carefully prepared for his mission. Though the greater part of his life had been passed in the camp, his education was not neglected. Besides such culture as belonged to the Phœnicians of rank in his day, he was well acquainted with the Greek language. He was light and firmly built in body, an excellent runner, swordsman, and rider, and possessed of a remarkable power for enduring fatigue, hunger, and loss of sleep. He soon distinguished himself in the army, and was fighting by his father's side when the latter was slain. His brother-in-law gave him the command of the cavalry, and he quickly won the confidence of the army by his great skill as a leader and his brilliant personal courage, and when Hasdrubal was killed the troops turned instinctively to Hannibal as their natural

leader. He was one of the noblest as well as one of the most gifted characters of his day. "The power which he wielded over men is shown by his incomparable control over an army of various nations and many tongues—an army which never in the worst times mutinied against him. He was a great man; wherever he went he riveted the eyes of all."

Hannibal's first care was to complete the establishment of the Carthaginian power in Spain, and to train his army for the great enterprise for which he destined it by waging war for two years against the native Spanish tribes. He understood the peculiar weakness of Carthage in a defensive war, and he determined from the first to attack Rome in her own dominions and prevent her from assailing the home territory of her rival. At length, believing that the hour had come, he deliberately forced a quarrel with Rome. The Greek city of Saguntum had placed itself under Roman protection. Hannibal attacked it, and captured it after a siege of eight months. He then sent the spoil to Carthage for distribution. The Romans demanded the surrender of Hannibal and the restoration of Saguntum. The reply of Carthage was a declaration of war. Thus began the *Second Punic War*, B. C. 219.

Hannibal, like his father and brother-in-law, held the supreme command both in Spain and in Africa, and upon him devolved the defence of both countries. He had determined at the outset to secure both by invading Italy. His army was devoted to him, and as he had not a navy sufficient to cope with the Romans, he determined to invade Italy from the land. The Gauls had taught him by their repeated passages of the Alps that the great barrier could be crossed, and he resolved to enter the enemy's country from that quarter. Leaving his brother Hasdrubal in command of Spain, and having offered sacrifices to the Tyrian Hercules at the distant shrine of Gades, Hannibal set out from Carthage in the spring of B. C. 218, at the head of an army of 90,000 foot, 12,000 horse, and thirty-seven elephants. Two-thirds of the troops were Africans, and the remainder Spaniards—all subjects of Carthage. Hannibal placed no reliance upon his elephants, but carried them merely for the moral effect he expected them to produce upon the Gauls. The Spanish tribes between the Ebro and the Pyrenees resisted his march, but were

conquered, and a detachment of 11,000 men was left to keep them quiet. Arrived at the Pyrenees, Hannibal sent a portion of his force back home—a measure on which he had been resolved from the first, in order to show the remainder how confident he was of success. He retained a force of 50,000 foot and 9,000 cavalry. With these troops and his elephants he continued his march through the territory of the friendly Gauls to the Rhone.

The Romans in the meantime had been busy preparing an expedition against Carthage. When in readiness the troops destined to take part in it were called off to suppress an insurrection in the plain of the Po. When they returned it was decided to send them into Spain under the Consul Publius Cornelius Scipio, to assist the allies of Rome in that quarter. On the voyage Scipio touched at Massilia, which was in alliance with Rome, and to his astonishment learned that Hannibal was already on the banks of the Rhone. He therefore abandoned the expedition to Spain, and, aided by the Celtic tribes of the lower Rhone, who were friendly, undertook to keep his enemy on the right bank of that river; but Hannibal succeeded in passing his army over the Rhone by means of rafts and such boats as could be found, before Scipio could reach him. He crossed the river near the modern town of Orange, about twenty miles above Avignon. Once over the Rhone it was impossible to prevent the Carthaginian army from reaching the Alps. Hannibal had expected to find no lack of guides among the natives, and he was not disappointed in this expectation. He chose the pass now known as the Little St. Bernard, which, though the highest and longest, was the easiest of the ancient routes across the Alps, and permitted him to transport the baggage and stores of the army. His passage occupied fifteen days and was full of dangers and difficulties, for, besides overcoming the natural perils of the route, the Carthaginian leader had to fight his way through the territory of hostile tribes. At length, however, he overcame all his difficulties and descended into the plain of the Po, but with only half of the 59,000 men who had crossed the Pyrenees with him. Whatever may have been the faults of his plan, his passage of the Alps stamped him as a great general.

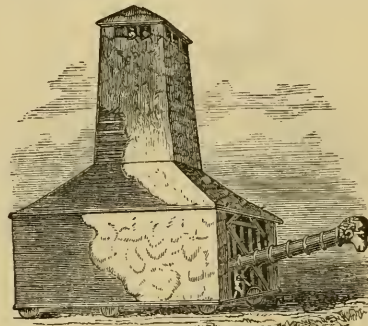
Hannibal was welcomed as a deliverer by the Insubrian Gauls, who embraced this

opportunity to get rid of their Roman masters. He spent a brief period in their territory to rest his troops, and then pressed on to the Ticinus, to meet the Roman army which had been assembled to oppose him under Scipio. He defeated the consul on the banks of that river, and in December of the same year routed the armies of the two consuls, Scipio and Tiberius Sempronius (commanded by the latter in consequence of a wound of Scipio) on the banks of the Trebia. This victory made the Carthaginian master of northern Italy, and he was joined at once by all the Gauls, who had until now held aloof to watch the issue of the conflict. In spite of these successes, however, he was greatly hampered by the sufferings of his African and Spanish troops, who were unable to stand the unusual cold of the winter.

The next spring, B. C. 217, he crossed the Apennines, passed the difficult marshes of the Arno in safety, and pressed on into the heart of Italy, thus anticipating the movement of the Consul Gaius Flaminius, who intended to dispute with him the passage of the Apennines. Failing to prevent this, Flaminius awaited him at Arretium. The consul was an arrant braggart, who regarded himself as more than a match for Hannibal; but the latter soon undeceived him. Instead of attacking Flaminius, he marched past him, and laid waste the country along his route, and at the same time, by his taunts, stung the consul into leaving his strong position and following him. Fully informed of his adversary's movements, Hannibal selected his field of battle—"a narrow defile between two steep mountain walls, closed at its outlet by a high hill, and at its entrance by the Trasimene lake." When Flaminius sought to dislodge him from this position, he turned upon him and demolished his army. There was no battle; it was a mere rout. Notwithstanding the bravery of the legions, the Roman army was almost annihilated, Flaminius himself being among the slain; and 15,000 were made prisoners. All Etruria was lost and the road to Rome was open. The Romans broke down all the bridges over the Tiber and made Quintus Fabius Maximus dictator, with full powers to meet the emergency. Hannibal, however, did not advance upon Rome, but turned aside into Apulia to rest and recruit his army. He sought to detach the Italian nations from the Roman alliance by re-

leasing the prisoners belonging to them that he had taken, and sent them away without ransom. His efforts were in vain, however; the Italian towns closed their gates against him, and not one joined him. He also undertook and successfully carried out in the month which elapsed between his great victory and the resumption of active operations, the entire reorganization of his army upon the Roman method. The arms taken in battle provided him with the means of equipping his troops, and the hazardous undertaking was accomplished with entire success in the very presence of the enemy.

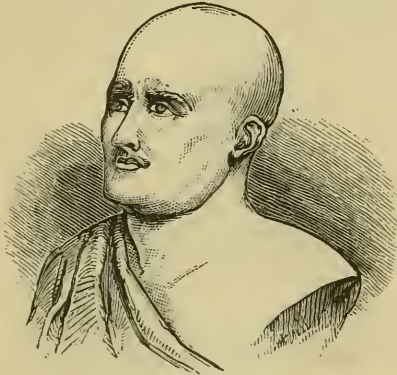
Fabius, upon taking command of the Roman army, put in execution a plan of operations entirely different from that pursued by his predecessor. He was determined to avoid a pitched battle with the invaders, whom he hoped to be able to wear out by starvation, dependent as they were on foraging for their supplies. He seems



ROMAN BATTERING-RAM AND TOWER.

to have thought that Hannibal would not dare to advance as long as he held the Roman army intact; but he was soon made aware of his error in this respect by the Carthaginian, who eluded him and descended into the rich plains of Campania. He had formed connections in Capua, the most important city of the republic except Rome; and he was hopeful that the Campanians would revolt from the Roman alliance and join him; but he was disappointed, and he was forced to content himself with ravaging the country and collecting provisions for the supply of his army during the coming winter. During all this while, the Roman army, under its cautious leader, was forced to look down from the hills upon the depredations of Numidian cavalry, who harried the country with fire and sword under their very eyes. The army was bit-

terly incensed against Fabius, and demanded to be led to battle. At length Fabius seemed to have secured the opportunity for which the troops were so impatient. He seized the road leading by Casilinum (the modern Capua), and lined the heights commanding it with his troops, and flattered himself that he had intercepted the retreat of his enemy. Hannibal, who had mastered the character of Fabius, now secured his safety by a characteristic stratagem. He waited until night, and sent his light troops to climb the heights. They drove before them a number of oxen, each of whom bore a lighted brand on each horn, so that it seemed to the Romans that their enemy was marching over the heights by torchlight. Fabius at once withdrew the force he had posted to hold the road, and followed what he supposed to be Hannibal's army. The latter, as soon as he



SCIPIO AFRICANUS.

found the road clear, marched his army rapidly by the point of danger, and the next morning extricated his light troops from their position on the heights, and inflicted a sharp loss upon the Romans. He then withdrew into Apulia, well-provisioned for the winter.

The policy of Fabius, though utterly distasteful to the Romans, was vindicated by the results of the next spring, B. C. 216. An army of nearly 90,000 men, under the Consuls Æmilius Paulus and Terentius Varro, was sent into Apulia. It was defeated by Hannibal near the little town of Cannæ, with a loss of from 40,000 to 50,000 men killed, among whom were the Consul Æmilius and eighty senators. The remainder of the troops were either fugitives or prisoners, except a small band under Varro, which had secured its retreat in good order.

It was the most terrible reverse Rome had ever suffered, and had been inflicted by an inferior force. It threw all of southern Italy into Hannibal's hands. With the exception of the Roman colonies and the Greek cities held by Roman garrisons, every town surrendered to him. Capua threw open its gates at his approach, and became his quarters for the winter. Philip V. of Macedon, and Hieronymus of Syracuse, became the allies of Carthage and compelled the Romans to divide their forces to meet them. Hannibal regarded his ultimate success as assured. Perhaps it would have been had Carthage pursued a less selfish and ungenerous policy in her treatment of the only man who was capable of defeating Rome.

The conduct of Rome at this crisis of her fate was admirable. By the greatest exertions another army was put in the field to face Hannibal, and Macedon and Syracuse were kept too much engaged at home to be able to send assistance to him. The Greek cities and the Roman colonies, undismayed by the result of Cannæ, kept their gates closed against the Carthaginians, and it was clear that Hannibal had gained every advantage which could be won without a new display of force. Moreover, new generals had succeeded to the control of the Roman armies. Led by such able commanders as Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus and Marcus Valerius, and, above all, by Marcus Claudius Marcellus, who became the controlling spirit of the war, the Romans were able during the year B. C. 215 to defeat Hannibal under the walls of Nola, and to throw him on the defensive. His troops, weakened by their luxurious life in Capua during the previous winter, were no longer able to beat the Romans, and he was compelled to own that if he was to succeed in the conquest of Italy, he must have heavy reinforcements from Africa and Spain. Hasdrubal, however, had been beaten by the Scipios on the Ebro in Spain, and was so hard pressed there that the men and supplies raised in Carthage for Hannibal were sent to him, as it was of the first importance to hold Spain. In B. C. 215 Hieronymus of Syracuse was killed, and in B. C. 212 Syracuse was captured by Marcellus after a siege of two years. In Spain Hasdrubal had made a gallant struggle against the Scipios—Cneius and Publius—who endeavored to wrest that peninsula from Carthage. They had gradually succeeded in getting the better of

him, and had almost forced him out of Spain, but in B. C. 212 he succeeded in inflicting upon them a terrible defeat, in which both of them were slain. Gaius Claudius Nero, an able but unpopular officer, was sent to succeed them with a reinforcement of 12,000 troops. He succeeded in restoring the balance of arms, but he could not win over allies to Rome, though he came near capturing Hasdrubal in B. C. 210, and the next year the senate sent Publius Scipio, the son of the consul of that name who had fallen in Spain, to succeed him. The younger Scipio was the first of a long line of great Roman generals, and he soon showed his abilities by reducing Hasdrubal to severe straits, and taking his capital of Carthage. In B. C. 208 he defeated Hasdrubal in Adalusia. Hasdrubal had received orders to march through Gaul into Italy to the aid of Hannibal, and after this last battle he left Spain in the hands of two of his subordinates, and set out on his march. He fought his way to the northern coast of Spain, crossed the Pyrenees at their western end, and entered Gaul. He advanced to the Alps without meeting any resistance. He was joined by many of the Gauls, so that his army increased as he advanced. He passed the Alps by his brother's road, and in the spring of B. C. 207 descended upon the plain of the Po. He had not been expected so soon in Italy, and the Romans were unprepared to meet him. Had he marched promptly upon Rome he might have captured the city and decided the war, but he turned aside to besiege Placentia, and his letter stating his plans fell into the hands of the Consul Nero.

In the meantime Hannibal, who had spent the time since the battle of Cannæ in completing the conquest of southern Italy, began to move to the north as soon as he heard of his brother's passage of the Alps. He was closely followed by Nero with an army of 40,000 men, but it seems clear that the Carthaginian was not hampered in his movements by this force, as he eluded it by one of his characteristic flank marches whenever he saw fit to do so. Reaching Canusium, he halted to await a despatch from his brother providing for the junction of their forces. This letter was intercepted by the Roman outposts and carried to Nero. It revealed Hasdrubal's intention to move southward by the Flaminian road, and named Narnia as the point where he

hoped to join Hannibal. Nero at once despatched a column of 8,000 men from his army to Narnia to secure that place, and with a force of 7,000 picked troops he left his camp and hastened to Sena Gallica, where the other consul, Marcus Livius, was awaiting the advance of Hasdrubal. Both consuls then marched upon Hasdrubal, whom they found crossing the Metaurus, forced him to battle, and after a severe struggle, defeated him. The Carthaginian army was destroyed, and Hasdrubal, scorning to survive his disaster, plunged into the Roman ranks, and met a soldier's death. Nero then marched rapidly back to Canusium, where he found Hannibal, as he had expected, waiting anxiously for a message from his brother. Two weeks had elapsed since the camp had been formed there, and still no tidings had come from Hasdrubal. The consul brought the message with him. It was the gory head of Hasdrubal, which he ordered to be thrown into Hannibal's camp, repaying in this brutal manner the generosity of the Carthaginian hero, who had given honorable burial to Paulus, Gracchus, and Marcellus. Hannibal interpreted the message aright. All was lost. He abandoned his camp and retreated into the country of the Bruttians, whose mountain fastnesses enabled him to maintain his position in the peninsula, and whose ports afforded him the means of withdrawing from that country. For three years he held this position, but the events of the war in Italy were unsuccessful.

During this time Scipio had retrieved his error of permitting Hasdrubal to leave Spain by the conquest of that country. In B. C. 204 he resolved to attack the home territories of Carthage, and sailed from Italy for Africa with 30,000 men, 40 ships of war, and 400 transports, and, meeting no enemy on his passage, landed near Utica. He found the Carthaginians supported by a force of 50,000 Libyan infantry, and 10,000 cavalry, under Syphax, a native king, and he was obliged to confine himself to the coast. The next year, B. C. 203, he surprised the Carthaginian camp and defeated their army. A few weeks later they were reinforced by a force of Macedonian and Spanish auxiliaries, and were again defeated by Scipio. They could keep the field no longer after these defeats, and Hannibal was recalled from Italy to save Carthage. Without a murmur, or a reproach for the treatment he had received

from his government, Hannibal returned to Carthage, and endeavored to execute the task assigned him. He collected an army and met Scipio at Zama in the spring of B. C. 202. He found in him an abler adversary than he had yet encountered. In spite of his skilful conduct of the battle and the bravery of his veterans, Hannibal was defeated, his army was annihilated, and he fled with a handful of men to Hadrumentum. Carthage was now at the mercy of Rome, and peace was made in B. C. 201. Carthage surrendered all her territories beyond the limits of Africa and restored all the lands taken from Numidia, whose king, Massinissa, had been a valuable ally of

her path a formidable rival, but gained the complete supremacy of the western Mediterranean. A Roman protectorate was established over the native African tribes, and the independent state of Syracuse was added to the Roman province of Sicily. The principal part of Spain was added to the Roman domain, and the wealth of the republic was greatly increased. The revolt of the southern Italian states was severely punished. In all Italy, except in Latium, the native races were depressed, and a Latin dominion was established over the entire peninsula. The war with the Cisalpine Gauls went on after the defeat of Carthage, but, by B. C. 191, they were entirely and finally subdued, and became Latinized with a facility which is surprising even in this race.

While occupied with the Gauls, Rome was also engaged in her second war with Philip V., of Macedon, the events and results of which have been related in the Greek history of this period. This war was ended in B. C. 197. It was followed by the attempt of Antiochus the Great of Syria to add Macedonia and Asia Minor to his



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Scipio in the last campaign of the war. Her fleet and elephants were also given up to the Romans, and she agreed to pay a yearly tribute of 200 talents, and bound herself to engage in no war without the consent of Rome. In other words, Carthage lost her independence, and became a tributary of Rome. Returning home, Scipio was received with enthusiasm, and was honored with the most splendid triumph the city had ever witnessed. He received the surname of Africanus, in memory of his conquest.

By the successful result of the second Punic war Rome not only removed from

dominions. This struggle and the victories by which the Romans chased Antiochus out of Europe and Asia Minor, and brought him to their feet as a suppliant for mercy, have also been related in the Greek and Syrian histories of this period. By her victories Rome gained not a single inch of territory for herself, but gave all the conquered and surrendered territory to her allies, Pergamus and Rhodes. She was but carrying out a wise policy, which was to make it apparent to all the Eastern nations that her friendship was as profitable as it was powerful; and her influence and the terror of her name were spread far and

wide—results more valuable than the mere acquisition of territory.

During this period four other wars were carried on in western Europe. The Spanish peninsula was not yet entirely subdued, and the brave resistance of the inhabitants of Lusitania (Portugal) gave constant employment to a Roman army; wars were also maintained with the mountain tribes of Liguria, and with Sardinia and Corsica. Sardinia was conquered by Sempronius Gracchus about B. C. 176. He brought so many captives to Rome for sale as slaves, that the term "Sardinians for sale" became a synonym for cheapness.

The final wars in Greece, which resulted in the conquest of Macedonia and the suppression of the Achaean League, have been related, and the narrative need not be repeated here. By the final defeat of the Macedonian army at Pydna it was made plain to the world that the Roman army had no equal, and that it was useless to contend with it. Rome was now mistress of the world, having extended her power over Egypt as well as Asia by assuming the protectorate of that kingdom. None of the civilized nations dared to resist her commands.

Rome was fully aware of her power, but was not satisfied with it. Eighteen uneventful years passed away, marked only by petty wars with the Alpine and Spanish tribes, and then the senate began the execution of the great design which made the Roman empire and the civilized world one and the same. As the first step in this direction, it was agreed to destroy Carthage, the only city which, though reduced and weakened, was felt to be the rival of Rome. Carthage had more than faithfully complied with the conditions of the peace, and Rome had not the slightest cause for a renewal of war with her. It was resolved to make a pretext, but as Carthage had readily sacrificed everything in the interests of peace, it was difficult to manufacture a plausible ground for a quarrel. The bitter hatred of Rome to her rival was well exemplified by Cato, the sternest of Roman censors. When called upon for his vote in the senate on any question whatsoever, his invariable answer was, "I vote that Carthage no longer be." His answer suggested a pretext for war. The senate ordered the Carthaginians to destroy their city and remove to a site ten miles distant from the sea. The Carthaginians read the design of

the Romans in this demand, and naturally refused to commit the national suicide required of them. Rome at once declared war against Carthage, B. C. 149. Thus began the *Third Punic War*.

The Carthaginians maintained the unequal struggle for four years, for they fought with the courage of despair. There was no time at which they might have entertained a reasonable hope of success. They had no ships and were almost without arms, for, before stating the ultimatum of the senate, the Roman commanders in Africa had demanded and received the surrender of armor and weapons for 200,000 men as a measure of peace; and the Carthaginians had no allies. Yet, with a zeal and energy worthy of all admiration, these heroic people set to work to make up their deficiencies.

Catapults for the defence of the walls, and armor and arms for the troops were made; public buildings were torn down to provide wood and metal; and all classes and both sexes worked day and night to complete these instruments. The women cut off their long hair and gave it to make cords for the catapults, and in a marvelously short time the walls and their defenders were once more armed. All this while the Roman army lay at Utica, so that the work was carried on in the very face of the enemy. At length the Romans advanced, expecting to find the city defenceless. To their amazement they saw the walls armed, and lined with defenders ready to fight to the death. An assault being impossible, the siege of Carthage was begun by land and sea. In the third year of the war and of the siege, the Carthaginians built a fleet of 120 ships in their blockaded port, and cut a canal from the harbor across the land to the sea, and thus got their galleys to the ocean. Had they attacked the Roman fleet at once, which was at the moment of their appearance totally unprepared to meet them, the Carthaginians would most likely have destroyed it, but they contented themselves with a mere demonstration and retired. When they returned three days later to offer battle, the Romans were ready for them, and they were driven back, and crowding together into the canal inflicted such damage upon each other that it was equivalent to a defeat.

During the winter of B. C. 147-146, famine and pestilence made such sore ravages among the defenders of the city that

when the first assault was made in the spring of B. C. 146, they were unable to defend the walls with their accustomed vigor, and the inner port was gained. Six days of hard fighting were still necessary, however, to bring the Romans to the foot of the citadel walls. The Consul Scipio Æmilianus ordered the city to be fired in every direction, and large numbers of the people concealed in the houses perished in the flames. The defenders of the citadel then surrendered. The Carthaginiian commander, Hasdrubal, had taken refuge with his family in the temple of the God of Healing. When it was fired by some of the Roman deserters who had taken refuge there with him, and who preferred death here to falling into the hands of their countrymen, Hasdrubal fled from it, and casting himself at the feet of Scipio begged for his life, which was granted him. His noble wife, beholding his cowardice from the roof of the burning temple where she was standing with her two children, called to him, in an agony of shame at his disgrace, to be careful to save his life, and then sprang with her children into the flames. The city was utterly destroyed. A tenth-part only of the population survived—about 30,000 men and 25,000 women. These were mostly sold into slavery. The ruins of the city alone remained standing, and the senate sternly ordered Scipio to destroy even these. They were set on fire, and burned for seventeen days, until no trace of the city was left, except the heap of ashes which marked where Carthage once stood. Scipio was horror-struck at his own work. The Carthaginian territories were reorganized by the Romans as the province of Africa, of which Utica was made the capital. It became a noted resort of Roman merchants and ships, and these succeeded to the flourishing commerce once enjoyed by Carthage.

CHAPTER V.

FROM THE DESTRUCTION OF CARTHAGE TO THE DEATH OF MARIUS.

Final Conquest of Greece—It becomes a Roman Province—Wars in the Spanish Peninsula—Lusitania Subdued and made a Roman Province—The Numantines Conquered—The Romans Gain Pergamus and become Supreme in Asia Minor—Rapid Increase of the Population of Rome—Proportionate Growth of Pauperism—Reasons for it—Political Corruption—The First Servile War—Efforts to Remedy the Political and Social Troubles at Rome—Tiberius Gracchus—He Proposes an Agrarian Law—His Measures Carried—Opposition to the Law—Murder of Tiberius Gracchus—Scipio

Æmilianus Murdered—Discontents of the Latins and Italians—Caius Gracchus—Is made Tribune—His Measures to Improve the Condition of the People—The "Sempronian Granaries"—The Pauper Population of Rome Increased—Unpopularity of the Proposal to Extend the Roman Citizenship to all the Italians—Downfall of Gracchus—His Murder—The Plebs take a Lesson in Violence from the Aristocracy—The War with Jugurtha—Rise of Caius Marius—Brings the Jugurthine War to a Close—Is Re-elected Consul—Invasion of Gaul by the Cimbrians and Teutons—They Defeat the Roman Armies—Marius is sent Against them and Defeats them—The Cimbric Enter Italy, and are Exterminated by Marius—Ambition of Marius—His Opportunities and his Hesitation—The Second Servile War—Murder of Drusus—The Social War—Concessions of Rome to the Italians—Rivalry of Marius and Sulla—The Final Rupture between them—The First Civil War—Triumph of Sulla and Flight of Marius—Cinna Driven from Rome—Return of Marius—He Captures Rome—The Marian Massacre—Seventh Consulship and Death of Marius—Sertorius Slaughters the Marian Assassins.

DURING the third Punic war, Rome had been called upon to suppress an outbreak in Greece. A pretender, who claimed to be the son of Perseus, the last King of Macedonia and Greece, raised the standard of revolt in Macedonia, invaded Thessaly, and defeated the Romans in a pitched battle in B. C. 149. The next year, however, he was himself defeated and made a prisoner by Metellus. Availing herself of the opportunity thus afforded, Rome reduced Macedonia to the form of a province. In the same year the war with the Achæan league broke out, as has been related elsewhere. It was closed in B. C. 146 by the Consul L. Mummius, who captured Corinth, and plundered and destroyed it. A curse was pronounced upon whomsoever should rebuild it. Corinth was rich in works of art. The greater part of these were sent to Rome by Mummius to adorn that city.

In Spain the war still went on. The native tribes of the Spanish peninsula were hardy, brave, and devoted to their freedom, and their country was easily defended in consequence of its natural strength. In the northern and western portions of the peninsula the native tribes still maintained a gallant resistance to the Romans, who found it almost impossible to subdue them. The Lusitanians were especially noted for their bravery and their unconquerable spirit. They even inflicted a stinging defeat on the prætor Servius Sulpicius Galba in B. C. 151. The next year Galba avenged himself by an act of the most infamous treachery. He made a treaty with three Lusitanian

tribes on the right bank of the Tagus, and promised to transfer them to better settlements. Trusting to his plighted word, the Lusitanians, to the number of 7,000, came to him to receive the promised lands. They were separated into three divisions, disarmed, and a portion of them was massacred; the remainder were sold into slavery.

Among those who escaped from the treacherous Galba was a man named Viriathus, of humble origin, but of great daring. His countrymen now chose him as their leader. His great bravery and skill won their admiration, and his simple, frugal habits, unaffected manner, and unbounded generosity to his countrymen aroused their enthusiasm, and he was universally acknowledged as their king. "It seemed as if in that thoroughly prosaic age one of the Homeric heroes had appeared." He defeated the Romans in seven well-contested battles, and in the last of these compelled the Roman general, Servilianus, to surrender with his whole army. He made a generous use of his victory, and concluded a peace with the Roman commander by which the community of the Lusitanians was recognized as sovereign, and Viriathus acknowledged as king. The Romans promised to respect the kingdom of Viriathus, who, on his part, agreed to be their friend and ally. The senate ratified these terms, but with the deliberate intention of breaking them. The first pretext was made use of to renew the war. When Viriathus sent trusted messengers to remonstrate against the rupture of the treaty and to propose terms of peace, the consul bribed the envoys to murder their chief, and the Lusitanian hero was stabbed in his sleep by his most trusted friends. The Lusitanian army accorded their dead king a superb funeral, and went on with the war, but within a year it was decisively defeated and obliged to surrender, and Lusitania (Portugal) became a province of Rome.

The war still went on against Numantia in the north of Spain, the Romans supplementing the efforts of their armies with the usual perfidy of their commanders. The war continued for six years, and was finally brought to a close by Scipio Æmilianus, who starved Numantia into submission. Reduced to despair, the Numantines asked a few days delay in order that those who preferred to die rather than surrender, might end their lives, a privilege of which not a few availed themselves. The remain-

der then yielded up their city. Scipio chose fifty of the most eminent survivors to adorn his triumph, and sold the rest into slavery. The city was then levelled with the ground, and its territory distributed among the neighboring tribes. With the exception of the northern coast, all the Spanish peninsula was now in the hands of the Romans. It was divided into three provinces, Hither and Farther Spain, and Lusitania. Although the Lusitanian mountains continued for long years to be infested with brigands, a state of affairs which made it necessary for the farm-houses in this region to be built like fortresses, capable of defence in case of need, Spain eventually became the most flourishing and best organized country subject to Rome; the population was numerous, and the country was rich in corn and cattle.

About the same time the Romans came into the possession of the kingdom of Pergamus, by the bequest of Attalus III., the last king. Though the legacy was disputed by Aristonicus, his opposition was speedily crushed, and Pergamus was organized into the "province of Asia." The Greater Phrygia was detached and given to Mithridates IV., of Pontus, for his assistance in the war against Aristonicus. Thus Rome acquired the greater part of Asia Minor.

Towards the middle of this century Rome reached a point at which her foreign wars became few and unimportant, and her internal affairs demanded all her attention. The old trouble of the poverty of the masses now loomed up again, and more dangerously than ever. During the long period of war which elapsed between the close of the Second Samnite War and the final settlement of northern Italy, from B. C. 303 to 177, the repeated and heavy losses in battle had kept the population sufficiently decimated to prevent the pressure of poverty from being very generally felt. By the latter date (B. C. 177) these exhausting wars ceased, and the population began to increase rapidly. In B. C. 173 the number of adult male Roman citizens was only 269,015; by B. C. 136 this number had increased to over 320,000; and in B. C. 125 it was 390,736; and in B. C. 114 it was 394,336. The result was that the labor market of Rome became overcrowded; no new colony had been sent out since B. C. 177, no more plunder from conquered countries remained to be distributed, and as the lands

of Italy had all been assigned, and all the neighboring nations had been conquered, no further relief was to be expected from that source. With the increase of the population poverty became more wide-spread and deeper. The Licinian laws, which required the employment of a certain amount of free labor by landholders and restricted the amount of land held by a single proprietor, had been long disregarded in both particulars. The lands of the public domain had been taken up by capitalists, and had thus fallen into the hands of a small class, who preferred to cultivate them by slave labor, which was cheaper to them. The difficulty of earning a living at Rome was becoming greater every day, and the only means of acquiring wealth there lay in the occupation and cultivation of the public lands on a large scale, in the farming of the revenue, or the government of the provinces. These sources of wealth, however, were absolutely controlled by the ruling class, who assigned them only to the members of their own order; and so it had come to pass that the rich were growing richer while the poor were sinking deeper into poverty. It is true that the franchise was constantly being conferred upon freedmen, and that, now that the distinctions between the two great orders of the state were ended, many plebeian houses had become noble through their members having held high offices in the state, but the number of these was comparatively small, and they soon found that their new interests were identical with those of the patricians rather than with those of the order from which they had sprung. The common ties of wealth and future gains in riches and power united them. On the other hand the market was crowded with slaves, who could be purchased at so low a rate that free labor was being driven into beggary. To make the matter worse, the mass of the voters had become accustomed to being bribed by actual gifts of money, by distributions of corn, or by the exhibitions of splendid games at the private cost of the magistrates. This systematic training in corruption had made the populace ready to follow the bidding of any demagogue who should promise them relief from the evils which were evident to all. Moreover, it was plain that the sympathy of the troops was with their suffering fellow-citizens rather than with the government, and that in the event of a popular outbreak the army could not be relied upon. Let the people

be driven by hunger and despair to rebellion, and there were certain allies ready to join them—the immense mass of slaves whose brutal treatment kept them always ripe for revolt. The wisest of the Roman leaders recognized these elements of danger, but the bulk of the nobles shut their eyes to it; and, intent only upon their own selfish interests, defeated the few remedies proposed.

A foreshadowing of the danger which threatened Rome was given in the *First Servile War*, which broke out in Sicily in B. C. 134, and continued for two years. Two hundred thousand slaves, driven to despair by their treatment, rose in rebellion, and scourged the beautiful island of Sicily by their revengeful acts. Their revolt was with difficulty suppressed, and at one time it seemed likely to spread to the mainland of Italy. In several places, especially at Minturnæ and Sinuessa, servile outbreaks were attempted, but were promptly suppressed.

Among those who recognized the existing evils, and most earnestly sought to remedy them, was a member of one of the noblest of the plebeian houses, Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus, a grandson of Scipio Africanus, and a tribune of the people. In B. C. 133 he proposed a series of measures which sought to relieve the existing distress among the Roman citizens, and to improve the general condition of Italy by substituting free labor for that of the slaves in the cultivation of the soil, and thus giving employment to the bulk of the poorer class of freemen. He proposed, 1. To revive the long-neglected Licinian laws, and to limit the amount of land which a man might legally hold to 500 jugera, with a provision allowing him to hold 250 jugera additional for each adult unemancipated son. 2. The appointment of a permanent commission of three members to enforce this law. 3. The division among the poorer citizens of the lands of the state which would become vacant by the enforcement of the first measure. 4. The compensation of the large landholders thus dispossessed for their losses in improvements, etc., by making them absolute owners of the 500 jugera of land assigned them. 5. The proviso that the new enactments when once made should be inalienable.

There seems no reason to doubt that Gracchus was influenced by pure patriotism in proposing these measures. They were

fiercely opposed by the nobles, however, and their author was bitterly denounced. By the disregard of the Licinian laws many of the nobles and wealthier Italians had become holders of amounts of land largely in excess of the maximum limit proposed. These lands had been in the possession of such families for years, and great expense had been incurred in erecting buildings upon them, and the property had been transferred and used as though the holders were its absolute owners. The opposition to the laws was led by Octavius, a tribune, the colleague of Gracchus. When the measures were proposed in the assembly of the tribes, Octavius interposed his veto, and prevented the vote from being taken. In the hot dispute which ensued, Gracchus unfortunately lost his moderation, and appealed to the people to depose Octavius, which measure was carried. The laws were then passed by the tribes, and a commission of three, consisting of Gracchus, his brother Caius Gracchus, and his father-in-law Appius Claudius, was appointed to see to the enforcement.

The work of resuming the control of the public lands and redistributing them was begun. It proved a more difficult task than Gracchus had imagined. He had to meet not only the constant and unceasing hostility of the aristocracy, who declared that while they could not prevent the enforcement of the law, its author should not escape their vengeance, but also the increasing demands of the people, which forced him to measures of a more revolutionary nature. The Romans had just become the masters of the kingdom of Pergamus, which came to them with a full treasury. Gracchus proposed to the people that the Pergamene treasures should be distributed among the new landholders for the purpose of supplying them with funds to provide their lands with implements and stock, and based his proposition on the assertion that the citizens of Rome had the right to decide upon the disposition of the treasures which came to them under such circumstances. He is said to have proposed to shorten the term of military service, to take from the senators their exclusive right to act as civil jurymen, and to admit the Italian allies to the Roman citizenship. Matters were now at a crisis. When the election for tribunes for the ensuing year came on, the aristocratic party, roused to fury, sought by all means in their power to prevent the re-

election of Gracchus. Finding this impossible, the senators, headed by Publius Scipio Nascia, attacked Gracchus and his friends in the senate-house. Gracchus was slain on the steps of the capitol as he endeavored to escape, and three hundred of his supporters fell with him. His enemies barbarously refused to allow his body to receive decent burial, but flung it into the Tiber.

Political assassinations rarely accomplish their object; it was so in this case. The people were horror-struck at the open murder of one of their tribunes. So bold an outrage had never been committed before by the nobles, and the people were more than ever determined that the work of the reformer should go on. The party in the senate favorable to the reforms now came into power in that body, and by order of the senate the work of redistributing the lands was resumed. In B. C. 129 Scipio Æmilianus, who had been one of the first to recognize the need of reform, and who was a sincere friend of the people, seeing that the lack of moderation on the part of the agrarian commission was really defeating the object of the law, and stirring up fresh discontents, proposed and carried a measure which removed the distribution from the hands of the commission, and intrusted it to the consuls. He paid with his life for his effort to control the reform. He was found murdered in his bed on the morning of the day he had appointed for an oration before the senate respecting the rights of the Latins in the matter of the distribution of the lands. The murder was undoubtedly an act of the Gracchan party, and a most ill-advised one, as he was more their friend than their foe. The popular party opposed an investigation of the crime, and the aristocracy feeling that they had lost an opponent rather than a friend, were not unwilling that the matter should sleep. The loss to Rome was great. In Scipio Æmilianus perished "the first statesman and first general of his age," and one of the purest and most disinterested public men the republic ever produced. The senate, sustained by the general indignation of the more moderate citizens at the murder of Scipio, now suspended the operation of the disputed law. This did not amount to much of a gain, however, as the lands were nearly all distributed.

A new trouble was now created by the claims of the Latins and Italians to the

franchise. These claims were advocated by some of the popular leaders, who believed that such an accession to the tribes would enable them more effectually to control the senate. The claims were presented to the senate in the form of a law to which its assent was asked by Q. Fabius Flaccus, the consul, in B. C. 125. By sending him on a foreign mission the senate contrived to avoid the necessity of acting upon the measure. The town of Fregellæ vented its disappointment in an open revolt. The outbreak was quelled, the walls of the city were destroyed, and it was deprived of all its privileges and reduced to the rank of a village. This severe punishment frightened the other Latin and Italian towns into submission.

In the meantime Caius Gracchus, the younger brother of the murdered Tiberius, appeared in Rome. He had been detained in Sardinia as quaestor by the government, but had been recalled on the charge of being one of the instigators of the revolt of Fregellæ. He was triumphantly acquitted of this charge, and was joyfully greeted by the popular party, who made him their tribune by an unusually large vote. For the first time in many years the commons had a great man for a leader. Caius was in every respect the superior of his brother, and his measures, while more revolutionary and varied than those of Tiberius, were at the same time more statesmanlike, and better calculated to remedy the evils they attacked. His chief objects were to relieve the poorer classes, and to humble the senate, to benefit his friends and avenge himself on his enemies. His measures may be thus stated: 1. A renewal of the agrarian law of Tiberius Gracchus, with certain modifications. Caius diminished the size of the allotment, and provided that the landholders should be regarded as the owners of the lands on condition of paying an annual quit-rent to the state. He required that good character should be an indispensable condition to holding lands. 2. The state was required to sell corn to each citizen who should apply for it, at half the usual price. This was a most dangerous measure, but may have been justified by the urgent necessity of relieving the prevailing suffering. 3. The minimum age of enlisted men was fixed at seventeen years, and the state was required to provide the soldier's equipment which had formerly been deducted from his pay. 4. The equites or knights were assigned the exclusive privilege of furnishing juries. By

this measure the knights were elevated into a distinct order. 5. The senate was required to determine the consular provinces, and leave it to the consuls to decide among themselves, by agreement or by lot, which province each should administer. 6. The assessment of taxes for the new province of Asia was confided to the Roman censors. 7. The management of the public roads of the Italian peninsula was confided to the tribunes of the people. 8. The planting of colonies at Capua, Tarentum, and elsewhere in Italy, at Carthage and in Gaul.

By the last measure Caius sought to afford an outlet to the overcrowded population of Rome. A colony of 6,000 persons was sent to Carthage to build a city on the deserted site of the Punic metropolis; and another colony was sent to Aquæ Sextiæ (the modern Aix) in southern Gaul. Thus Caius may be said to have given new life to the colonial system of Rome, as he was certainly the originator of its extension into the provinces.

His second measure, while it may have been justified by the existing distress, was not productive of such happy results. The law limited the distribution of grain to residents of the city. An extensive series of storehouses, called the "Sempronian Granaries," was erected to meet the demand which set in. The law also caused the flocking to Rome of all the poor and incapable people from the surrounding country, who became residents of the city. Caius had designed this in order that he might thus increase the number of his friends, and be able to control the elections. He was successful, but the measure had a more far-reaching consequence. It filled Rome with a lazy, half-fed, and troublesome mob, which for centuries proved a real danger to the city.

By giving the censors the right to tax the province of Asia, it was made necessary to farm out the revenues of that province to a new class which now arose to supply the need for it. The privilege of collecting the taxes was sold to the highest bidder. The class thus charged with this collection became unpleasantly conspicuous in the future history of Rome under the name of "Publicans."

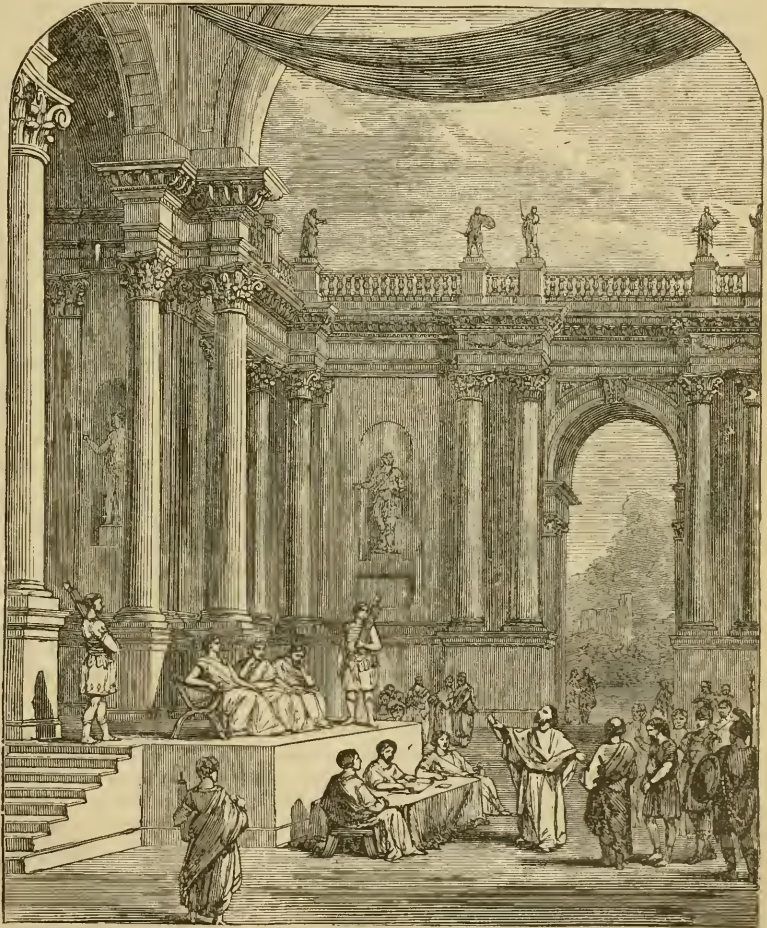
Caius desired to extend the Roman citizenship to all free Italians, and would have done so had he dared, but the mere proposal of it was fatal to his influence. Both the aristocracy and the commons were unwilling to grant this extension of the franchise,

and the latter, alarmed by the proposal, gave heed to the tales with which the former endeavored to poison their minds against Caius. Livius Drusus, the colleague of Caius, was encouraged by the senate to supplant him in the favor of the fickle populace, by proposing still more popular measures, which, however, were never meant to be adopted. He proposed that the landholders should be released from the quit-rent imposed upon them by Caius, and that there should be established twelve Italian colonies, each of 3,000 colonists, for the planting of which the people might nominate suitable men. The people ratified these laws as readily as they had done those of Caius, and when he offered himself as a candidate for the tribunate in B. C. 121, defeated him.

In the month of December, B. C. 121, Caius ceased to be tribune by the expiration of his term of office. The new consuls were bitterly opposed to him, and the aristocracy were determined to get

rid of him as speedily and as summarily as they had disposed of his brother. They began by attacking his establishment of the colony of Junonia on the site of Carthage, the most unpopular, but still the wisest of his measures. It was now asserted that the African hyenas had dug up the newly planted boundary stones of the colony. The augurs, when consulted, declared that such signs ought to constitute a

solemn warning against seeking to build a city or a site accursed by the gods. The senate, following out the programme, forbade the establishment of the Junonian colony. In the assembly convoked for the purpose of confirming this law, Caius Gracchus endeavored to secure its defeat. In the intense excitement which prevailed, an attendant of the priests was slain while the



A ROMAN HALL OF JUSTICE.

auguries were being taken. This brought matters to a crisis. The next day the aristocratic party occupied the forum and senate house, armed, and the capitol was filled with the Cretan mercenaries of the army. Caius and his followers, finding a conflict inevitable, though he had earnestly endeavored to give no occasion for it, retired to the Aventine, the old stronghold of the plebs. By threats and promises the consul induced

the commons to desert their leader, and offered a reward for his head. When the ranks on the Aventine had been thinned sufficiently, the nobles and the Cretans, assisted by the slaves, stormed the mount, and put to death all whom they found there, about 250 persons of humble rank. Caius was pursued, overtaken and slain, as was also his former colleague, Marcus Flaccus. The aristocrats then wreaked their vengeance upon the adherents of Caius by causing 3,000 of them to be strangled in prison by order of the senate. The memory of the Gracchi was officially proscribed. Cornelia, their mother, was forbidden to wear mourning for Caius. The people paid little heed to the mandates of the government, however, and



A ROMAN SLINGER.

cherished the memory of the brothers, especially that of Caius, and in spite of the precautions of the police, paid almost religious honors to the spots consecrated by their life-blood. Nor were the Gracchi without their avengers. The corruption of the aristocracy increased every day, and became so apparent that they began to lose the power they had gotten so iniquitously. The commons, perceiving what success had attended the use of violence and armed tumult in the hands of the aristocrats, soon began to turn these weapons against them, and ere long found leaders who more than improved upon the lessons of their aristocratic teachers. As far as the corruption was concerned, however, both classes were at fault. If foreign princes bought their crowns from the nobles, the latter bought their offices from the people.

This state of affairs was made painfully prominent by the Jugurthine war, which began in B. C. 111. Massinissa, the Numidian king, who had been the ally of the Romans in the second Punic war, had been rewarded for his services by the gift of the major part of the territories of Carthage. His son Micipsa, caring little for power, had placed the control of his kingdom in the hands of his nephew Jugurtha, whom he raised to a footing of equality with his

own sons Adherbal and Hiempsal. At his death he divided the civil and military offices between the three princes. Neither was satisfied with the will. The two sons of the old king disputed Jugurtha's right to any share in the government, while the latter boldly claimed it all. During the quarrel, Hiempsal was assassinated, and a civil war ensued between Jugurtha and Adherbal, in which the latter was beaten by his cousin, who was a brilliant and competent leader, and a master of intrigue, having learned the latter art and his trade as a soldier in the Roman service. Adherbal escaped to Rome, and appealed to the senate to reinstate him in his authority. Jugurtha, knowing that every senator had his price, sent his envoys to Rome and supplied them with funds, which they used so well that the senate not only refused the demand of Adherbal to be put in the place of Jugurtha, but blamed him for the murder of his brother. A division of the Numidian kingdom was made by Roman commissioners. Jugurtha was given the better part, comprising the region afterwards called Mauritania; Adherbal received Cirta, the capital and a sandy tract stretching into the eastern desert. Jugurtha, dissatisfied with this arrangement, made war upon his cousin, took his territory from him, put him to death, and massacred the inhabitants of Cirta, many of whom were Italians. War was at once declared by Rome, and an army was sent into Numidia, which won so many successes that Jugurtha found it expedient to make peace. His gold was his great argument, and it was used liberally. He was obliged to surrender unconditionally, but his kingdom was restored to him on payment of a slight fine. The popular indignation obliged the Roman government to investigate the manner in which the peace had been obtained, and Jugurtha was summoned to Rome to answer concerning it. He obeyed. His cousin Massiva took advantage of his presence to advance his claim to the crown. Jugurtha caused him to be assassinated in Rome, and assisted the murderer to escape. The senate, enraged at this insult, cancelled the peace, and dismissed Jugurtha at once. He quitted Rome with the sarcastic but true remark, "If I had gold enough, I would buy the city itself."

The war went on. Jugurtha's gold now demoralized the army as it had done the government, and the Roman generals suffered themselves to be defeated and made a

peace, by the terms of which Numidia was evacuated. Rome refused to acknowledge the treaty, and banished the defeated generals. The native tribes of Africa, believing that in Jugurtha they had found a deliverer from the dominion of Rome, rallied to his standard in strong force.

Rome was now in earnest, however. A brave, able, and determined general, Quintus Metellus, was given the command of the army in Africa, and among the lieutenants assigned him was Caius Marius, a farmer's son, who had risen by his gallantry and talents from the ranks. Marius was a favorite with the troops, to whom he endeared himself by sharing their hardships and dangers. Metellus found an able adversary in Jugurtha, and the war dragged along so slowly that the Roman people began to suspect, most unjustly, that he also had been bought by the Numidian king. Marius, whose ambition now began to show itself, returned home in B. C. 107, and availed himself of this suspicion against Metellus to secure his own election to the consulship. The people also decreed that he should be commander of the African army. Marius, however, did not make much greater head against Jugurtha than Metellus. The war went on, and was only brought to a close by the arts of Sulla, who in B. C. 105 persuaded the Mauritanian King Bocchus, the father-in-law of Jugurtha, to surrender the Numidian king to the Romans. Bocchus accepted the offer, and lured Jugurtha into an ambush, where he was captured by Sulla and delivered to Marius. The captive king was taken to Rome, where he was made, with his two sons, to adorn the triumph of Marius. He was then thrown into a dungeon, where he died in a few days from cold and hunger.

Marius was regarded by the people as the conqueror of Jugurtha, and in spite of the prohibition of the law was re-elected consul in B. C. 104, and held that office for five consecutive years.

A great danger threatened Rome before the close of the Jugurthine war. The savage tribes of the north of Europe—the Cimbri and Teutones, tribes partly Celtic and partly German—moved down from the region beyond the Rhine and the Danube, and overran the district between those rivers and the Alps. As early as B. C. 113 a horde of the Cimbri passed the Alps, entered Istria, and defeated Papirius Carbo, the consul. In B. C. 109 the Cimbri ap-

peared on the borders of southern Gaul, and demanded that lands should be assigned them. The Consul Silanus answered by attacking them, but he suffered a terrible defeat and lost his camp. They did not follow up their victory, but applied themselves to the task of reducing the neighboring tribes. Three Roman armies were sent against them, one in B. C. 107 and two in B. C. 105, but all three were defeated with heavy loss. In the last of these battles the Roman army, 80,000 strong, was defeated on the Rhone near the modern town of Orange, and Italy seemed at the mercy of the barbarians, who had but the Alps between them and the Roman territory. They turned aside into Spain, however, but were driven back across the Pyrenees by the Celtiberians, B. C. 104. Returning into Gaul, they spread rapidly over the western part of that region towards the Seine. They were joined in B. C. 103 by the Teutones, a kindred tribe from the region of the Baltic, and the Helvetii from the Swiss Alps. The combined tribes now arranged a systematic invasion of Italy. The Teutones undertook to invade Italy by way of Provence and the western passes of the Alps, while the Cimbri entered Switzerland and sought the eastern passes, with which they were acquainted.

Marius in the meantime had been sent to southern Gaul with a large army, and was accompanied by Sulla as his legate. It was all important to beat the two invading columns in detail and prevent their junction. For this purpose Marius threw his army upon the advancing host of the Teutones near the modern town of Aix, and gained a great victory over the savages in the summer of B. C. 102. The Teutones were utterly destroyed as a nation; 150,000 men and a large number of women were slain, and 90,000 were made prisoners and sold into slavery. Gaul was thus entirely freed from the enemy.

The Cimbri crossed the Alps by the Brenner Pass, and advanced into the valley of the Po. The Consul Catulus endeavored to drive them back, but was routed. The Cimbri were so well pleased with the rich country around them that, instead of following up their advantage, they went into winter quarters. This delay gave Marius time to march from Gaul to the aid of his colleague, whom he joined in the spring of B. C. 101. Upon the resumption of their advance by the Cimbri, in the summer of

that year, they were met by the combined armies of Marius and Catulus, and were defeated as decisively as their brethren had been by the former in Gaul. Their slain amounted to 140,000, and the remainder of the nation, 60,000 in number, were made prisoners and sold as slaves. Italy was safe. "The human avalanche which for thirteen years had alarmed the nations from the Danube to the Ebro, from the Seine to the Po, rested beneath the sod or toiled under the yoke of slavery."

Marius was honored with a magnificent triumph, in which he was hailed as the deliverer of Rome in the most flattering terms. He was chosen consul for the sixth consecutive time in defiance of the constitution. Had he been a statesman as well as a great general he might have accomplished then what Julius Cæsar did in the next century, and have made himself monarch of the Romans. His ambition was equal to the attempt, but his judgment and firmness were not. Indeed he does not seem to have understood exactly what position he wanted, or how to attain it. He chose as his most intimate friends and counsellors two worthless demagogues, Glaucia and Saturnius, who were encouraged by his countenance to attempt the passage of laws which were utterly distasteful to all the better class of Romans. Metellus opposed these measures and was driven into exile. Marius lent himself to the persecution of his old general, and thus drew upon himself the enmity of the senate and its adherents. The measures of the tribune Saturnius had already produced severe riots in the city. When the consular election came on the trouble increased. Mummius, the government candidate for the consulate, was beaten to death by the partisans of Glaucia and Saturnius, who were then declared public enemies by the senate. They seized the capitol; but Marius, being afraid to risk his popularity by defending them further, joined the senate against them. Trusting to his protection, they surrendered, and were confined by him in the Curia Hostilia. While he was endeavoring to secure them a regular trial, they were attacked by the partisans of the senate and slain, B. C. 100.

In B. C. 102 a second servile war broke out in Sicily. The slaves, driven to despair by the cruelty with which they were treated, took arms against their masters, whom they outnumbered. With the aid of the repub-

lic they were crushed after a struggle of three years, B. C. 99.

The fall of Saturnius was really the failure of Marius to overturn the government. A great general, but a poor statesman, he had used the wrong instruments to accomplish his ends, and had succeeded only in rendering himself unpopular. Quintus Metellus was recalled from banishment, and Marius, unwilling to witness the triumph of his rival, went on a journey to the East, ostensibly for the purpose of fulfilling a vow there. On his return he found himself deserted by the friends who had fawned upon him in his prosperity. Yet, having tasted the sweets of power, he was determined to become master of Rome. An oracle had promised him seven consulships, and he endeavored to profit by his experience and decide upon a surer plan of achieving his destiny.

In the meantime another reformer arose to trouble Rome. He was M. Livius Drusus, the son of him who had opposed Caius Gracchus. He was a man of good intentions but of small ability, and he undertook to remedy the evils from which the state was suffering by reconciling the Senatorian with the Equestrian Order at Rome, and doing justice to the Latins. He proposed, therefore, to deprive the equites or knights of the judicial power which they had abused, and restore it to the senate, and to admit all the Italians to the franchise. He succeeded in procuring the passage of a law which divided the right to furnish "judices" between the knights and the senate, but his bill to admit Italians to the franchise was stubbornly resisted, and the reformer himself was assassinated at his own door. The aristocrats had had recourse to their usual mode of warfare, but this time their blow was struck at one of their own order, B. C. 91.

The murder of Drusus was the signal for the civil war he had striven to avert. With him perished the last hope of the Italians that Rome would amicably settle their just claims. There was nothing left but to submit or rebel. They chose the latter alternative, and eight nations—the Marsi, Marucini, Peligni, Vestini, Picentini, Samnites, Apuli, and Lucani—took up arms, entered into a close alliance, formed a federal republic, which they named "Italia," and chose Corfinium, in the Pelignian Apennines, as their capital. Thus began the "Social War." They chose Pompædius

and Papius to be consuls. For a while it seemed as though the allies would be successful, and that Rome would be reduced to a petty state. Lucius Cæsar, one of the consuls, Paperna, his legate, and Postumias, the prætor, were defeated; Campania was overrun by the allies; and Cæpio, the consul, was defeated and his army destroyed in that region within a few months. Negotiations were then opened with the people of northern Italy, and it seemed that the whole peninsula would be drawn into the revolt.

Rome met the danger with an adroit concession, as her armies were unable to crush the revolt. A measure known as the "Julian Law" was adopted, conferring the Roman citizenship on all the Italians who had taken no part in the war, and on all who should withdraw from it. The measure was perfectly successful. It prevented further accessions to the ranks of the allies, and raised up a powerful peace party among them which clamored for an acceptance of the reconciliation offered by the "Julian Law." One by one the allies dropped away from the confederacy, and as it grew weaker the Romans began to be successful again. Sulla and the elder Pompey recovered Campania, and the capital of the allies was captured. At last only Samnium and Lucania remained in arms, and Rome once more tried the policy of concession. By granting all that the allies had ever claimed, these two nations were won over, and the "Social War" came to an end, B. C. 88.

During this struggle Marius had served as legate to the Consul Rutilius in the first year, which was so full of disaster to Rome, and his slow and cautious policy had added nothing to his credit. The honors had been carried off by Sulla, who in the campaigns of B. C. 89 and 88 had shown himself an able leader. Consequently, when the invasion of Asia Minor by Mithridates of Pontus demanded that a vigorous and competent general should be sent against him, Sulla, who was now consul, was assigned the command. The old friendship which once existed between Marius and Sulla had long ago given place to mutual jealousy. Marius bitterly resented the appointment of Sulla to his new command, and now set to work to neutralize the action of the senate. The government, with its usual bad faith, was endeavoring to render abortive the concession of citizenship to the Italians by confining them, in spite of their vast numbers, to eight tribes. Marius now

induced Publius Sulpicius Rufus, the tribune, to propose a law requiring the distribution of the new citizens among all the tribes. This arrangement would enable them to outnumber the old citizens, and they would naturally support Marius as their champion. The consuls endeavored to defeat the measure, but Marius and Rufus held the forum with an armed force and compelled the passage of the law. The vote conferring the command of the army on Sulla was reversed, and Marius was elected in his place, B. C. 88. The issue was thus sharply joined between the rivals.

Sulla was not the man to submit tamely to this outrage, and he had the advantage of being able to appear as the champion of the law. He appealed to his troops to sustain him, and at their head marched upon Rome. Marius had not expected such boldness from his rival, and was unprepared to meet it. Sulla became master of Rome, silencing opposition by threatening to burn the city over the heads of the people if resistance were offered. Marius was defeated and obliged to fly for his life. He passed through a series of romantic and stirring adventures, and at last reached Africa, an almost deserted fugitive.

Sulla, now master of Rome, put Rufus to death, repealed his laws, and put in force various measures calculated to strengthen the nobility. He was obliged to quit Rome soon afterwards to take command of the army in the east. His departure was instantly followed by a civil war. The people elected Cinna consul, and he endeavored to restore the laws of Rufus and to recall Marius. The aristocratic party flew to arms, and Cinna was driven from the city. He appealed to the army, and having won the support of the troops and of the great mass of Italians, invited Marius to return from Africa, and marched upon Rome, captured the city, and began the execution of a policy of vengeance, B. C. 87. Marius, returning to the city, was associated with Cinna in the consulship. The friends of Sulla were butchered. As Marius walked through the streets, attended by his guards, they cut down all whom he did not salute; and lists of those whom it was desirable to remove were made out every day, and given to assassins who had orders to despatch the persons named in the lists. The houses of the victims were plundered and their families given up to dishonor. Such a reign of terror had never been known in

Rome; and Marius wreaked his vengeance upon the nobility to his heart's content. In contempt for the law, he and Cinna declared themselves consuls for the year B. C. 86, without submitting to the usual form of election. Marius, deeply superstitious at heart, had now fulfilled the prediction of the oracle; and had entered upon his seventh consulship. He did not live to enjoy it long, however, but died eighteen days later, at the age of seventy-one, hurried to his end by his tardy remorse for his outrages upon his country. He left behind him his band of assassins, who, even after his death, attempted to continue their bloody work. Sertorius called them together under pretence of giving them their pay, and, having surrounded them with his troops, cut them down to a man. More than four thousand are said to have been slain.

CHAPTER VI.

FROM THE DEATH OF MARIUS TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE EMPIRE.

Cinna in Power at Rome—Threats of Sulla—The First Mithridatic War—Return of Sulla—The Second Civil War—Triumph of Sulla—Captures Rome—Dictatorship of Sulla—The Proscription—Measures of Sulla—His Retirement and Death—Revolt of Sertorius in Spain—His Murder—Pompey Puts Down the Revolt—Gladiatorial War—Spartacus—Crassus and Pompey Consuls—They Change their Politics—Their Reform Measures—Cicero—Pompey Subdues the Cilician Pirates—Pompey Sent into Asia—He Conquers Mithridates and Tigranes and Adds Syria and Pontus to the Roman Dominions—Returns to Rome—Cataline's Conspiracy—Pompey Distrusted by the Senate—His Moderation—Is Driven into Hostility to the Senate—Julius Cæsar—His Career and Services—Character of Cæsar—The First Triumvirate—Banishment of Cicero—Cato Sent to Cyprus—Conquest of Gaul by Cæsar—Invades Germany—The War with Parthia—Defeat and Death of Crassus—Quarrel of Cæsar and Pompey—The Senate Sides with Pompey—Cæsar Driven into Hostile Measures by the Senate—His Position—Appeals to his Troops to Aid him—Crosses the Rubicon—Pompey's Troops Desert to Cæsar—Pompey Retires into Greece—Cæsar Master of Italy—His Moderation—Establishes his Authority in Italy—Subdues Spain—Follows Pompey to Greece—Battle of Pharsalia—Flight of Pompey—He Reaches Egypt—His Murder—Cæsar in Egypt—Establishes his Authority in that Country, Asia Minor, and Africa—Returns to Rome—Is Made Dictator for Life—Great Designs of Cæsar—What he Accomplished—Conspiracy Against him—His Murder—Its Effect upon Rome—Mark Antony Secures the Power—Arrival of Octavius Cæsar—Claims his Inheritance—Antony Repairs to Gaul—Rapid Rise of Octavius to Power—Forms with Antony and Lepidus the Second Triumvirate—Battles of Phillippi—Division of the Roman Dominions Between the Triumvirs—Octavian Tri-

umphs Over Lepidus and Secures the Undivided Rule of Rome—Antony's Failure in the East—His Debauchery—Octavian Makes War upon him—Battle of Actium—Flight of Antony with Cleopatra—Octavian Conquers Egypt—Death of Antony and Cleopatra—Egypt Made a Roman Province—Return of Octavian to Rome—He Establishes the Roman Empire on the Ruins of the Republic.

THE death of Marius left Cinna sole consul. He held that position until B. C. 84, nominating himself, and associating with him whomsoever he saw fit. Yet he did nothing, and his government accomplished nothing. Sulla was outlawed, and a successor appointed in his place. At length a letter was received from Sulla, announcing the successful close of the war against Mithridates, and his speedy return to Italy. He stated that while he would protect the new citizens in their rights, he intended to secure the punishment of the authors of the revolution. Cinna was frightened out of his inaction by this letter, and undertook to march against Sulla, but his troops mutinied and murdered him at Ancona. The Consul Carbo, the colleague of Cinna, now abandoned the attempt to cross the Adriatic into Greece, and prepared to meet Sulla on his arrival in Italy.

During all these years the war against Mithridates had been successfully waged by Sulla, and the brilliant efforts of the Pontic monarch to stay the march of Roman conquest in the East had been defeated. The events of this war have been related in the history of Pontus, and may be passed over here.

Sulla regained Greece, Macedonia, and Asia Minor, compelled Mithridates to sue for peace and granted it upon the most humiliating terms. He had defrayed the cost of the war mainly from his private resources, and had deferred the settlement of his personal quarrel until after the defeat of the foreign enemy. He now returned to redress his own grievances with the prestige of his great victories, with a vast sum of money taken from the enemy, and at the head of an army enthusiastically devoted to him. He was unquestionably the first of living generals, and his troops were accustomed to victory. Still, while confident of success, he did not underrate his enemy. He knew the Marian faction to be formidable, and while he despised the Roman mob, he justly appreciated the power of the Italians, who constituted the chief strength of the party opposed to him. By his de-

claration that he intended to respect the rights of the new Italian citizens he succeeded in securing their neutrality at the opening of the struggle.

Sulla landed at Brundisium with 40,000 men in B. C. 83, and was joined almost at once by Metellus Pius, Crassus, and Pompey. He defeated the army of Consul Norbanus near Capua, and won over the troops of Scipio to his standard. Then, going into winter-quarters in central Italy, he devoted the winter to strengthening his cause. In the spring of B. C. 82, the Marian party put an army of 200,000 men in the field, commanded by the new consuls, Carbo and Marius the younger. Carbo took position at Clusium, in Etruria, as that region was friendly to his party. Sulla turned upon his younger opponent, Marius, defeated him in the great battle of Angiportus, and forced him to retreat to Præneste, where he left a force to blockade him. Then, marching through Rome, which was undefended, he attacked Carbo in his intrenched position, but failed to carry it. Young Marius, in the meantime, succeeded in inducing the Lucanians and Samnites to espouse his cause. They sent a force to the assistance of the Marians, which being unable to reach Præneste, joined Carbo, whose unskilful operations resulted in the repeated defeat of the army under him. The decisive battle was fought at the Colline Gate of Rome. The remnants of Carbo's army, reinforced by the Italians under Telesinus, attacked Rome with the deliberate intention of destroying it. After a desperate struggle they were routed by the troops of Sulla and Crassus. Four thousand prisoners were captured, and these were taken, by Sulla's orders, to the Campus Martius and put to death.

Sulla was now master of Rome, and the aristocratic faction was triumphant. A bloody vengeance was taken upon their enemies. The leaders of the late war and every relative of Marius, as far as they could be found, were put to death. Lists of the "proscribed" were made out, and any friend of Sulla was permitted to add to them. As the wealth of the victim went to his accuser, avarice was frequently the cause of the accusation. It is said that 3,000 persons perished at Rome, 12,000 at Præneste, "and numbers not much smaller at other Italian cities which had favored the Marians." The cruelties of Marius were more than equalled.

For three years Sulla remained master of the Roman state, first without any title, and then as dictator with unlimited power. He made a number of radical changes in the constitution, or more properly put in force a new constitution which was framed after his peculiar views and designed to strengthen his own order. Though his private character was notoriously bad, Sulla recognized the true source of the troubles of the state in the utter corruption of the people. He therefore undertook the hopeless task of reforming his countrymen by a series of severe enactments against crime and luxury, which were from the first practically disregarded. With respect to the government, he began by degrading the office of tribune of the plebs by stripping it of all its powers except that of protecting the persons of citizens against the other magistrates, and disqualifying the tribunes for the consulship. The senate was given the exclusive right of initiating legislation, and was once more placed in possession of the sole judicial power. The practice of electing any one to the office of pontiff or augur was abolished, and it was ordained that all candidates for the higher offices should be obliged to pass through the lower grades in regular succession and with fixed intervals of time between them. The senate was reorganized by the addition of 300 of Sulla's warmest partisans. The tribes were "purified" by the rejection of all Italians who had aided the Marian cause, and 10,000 slaves were liberated and given the franchise. The confiscated lands of the Marians were distributed among the veterans of Sulla, in many cases to the damage of the industry of the country.

After having held the dictatorship for three years, Sulla, to the surprise of every one, resigned it, and retired to his country-seat at Puteoli, B. C. 79. He devoted the remainder of his life to recreation and the composition of his memoirs. He died the next year, and was honored with the grandest funeral Italy had ever witnessed. Well might the senate mourn him; he had destroyed popular government, and restored the rule of the nobility.

But even the aristocratic party found his sweeping changes too great for them. The abolition of the election of pontiffs and augurs, and the law of succession in the offices of the state, placed an effectual check upon the ambition of the nobles, who coveted these honorable places, and objected to the

slow process by which they were now attained. In the year of Sulla's death, Lepidus, the consul, endeavored to procure the abolition of his laws, but failed. The time for the full reaction had not yet arrived.

The Marian factions in Sicily and Africa were crushed by Cneius Pompey, during the life of Sulla. In B. c. 77 Pompey was sent into Spain as proconsul, to put down the revolt of Sertorius. Sertorius was the ablest and the most upright of the Marian leaders, and had been given the command in Spain by Cinna chiefly to get him out of the way. During the Sullan proscription, many of the fugitive Marians repaired to him, and took service under him. Sulla's proconsul Annius drove him out of Spain, and he took refuge in Africa. At the invitation of the Lusitanians he returned in B. c. 81, at the head of a Libyan and Moorish force, and, defeating Sulla's forces on the Guadalquivir, made himself master of Spain. When Pompey arrived he had wrested almost the entire peninsula from the Romans. Even Pompey found it impossible to defeat him, and the war continued for five years more. At length, in B. c. 72, Sertorius was murdered by Perperna, one of his officers, who assumed the command of his army. Pompey defeated the murderer in the first engagement which followed, and captured him. It had been the design of Sertorius to restore the power of the Marians at Rome, and Perperna endeavored to secure his life by betraying the plans of this party in Rome; but Pompey put him to death. The war was soon ended, and Spain was brought once more under Roman rule.

Before the close of the Spanish war, a most formidable insurrection of the Gladiators broke out in Capua, in B. c. 73, under the leadership of Spartacus, a Thracian chief. He was joined by a large number of slaves and outlaws, and his force was increased to 100,000 men. He defeated four armies sent against him, and for two years ravaged Italy, and even threatened Rome itself. In B. c. 71 the Prætor Crassus was given the command of the army operating against him, and in six months brought the war to a successful close. The last remnant was beaten by Pompey, who came up with it on his return from Spain. The prisoners taken by Crassus, to the number of 6,000, were crucified along the Appian Way.

Returning to Rome, Crassus and Pompey demanded the consulship as the reward of

their services. The Sullan constitution forbade their election, as they had not passed through the requisite grades; but their services were too eminent, and they were too powerful for their demand to be refused. Consequently the laws of Sulla were set aside, and on the 1st of January, B. c. 70, Crassus and Pompey became consuls for the year. Until now they had been among the most devoted followers of Sulla, but upon entering upon their office, they changed their politics. It may be that they were convinced that a constitution so purely oligarchical could not be maintained; and it seems very evident that they were convinced that their own interests demanded its abrogation. They determined, therefore, to secure the support of the middle class, which would be very apt to bring with it that of the lower orders, and to crush the power of the aristocracy. Crassus, an eminently respectable man, and very rich, was easily led by his more daring and gifted colleague to take the desired stand. The consuls then proceeded to inaugurate their reforms. The tribunes were given back their old powers of which Sulla had deprived them, and the judicial power was again distributed in equal proportion between the senate, the knights, and the tribunes of the treasury, a class of moneyed men who collected the revenues and paid the wages of the troops. The government was purified of its grosser corruptions, partly by prosecutions, and partly by a revival of the office of censor, which Sulla had abolished. The senate was purged by the expulsion of sixty-four of its members. The senate and the nobility stubbornly resisted these measures, but were at length obliged to yield.

The movement for reform in the government won to the support of the consuls the first lawyer and greatest orator of Rome, Marcus Tullius Cicero. He came into prominence in the prosecution of Verres for the misgovernment of Sicily. By his untiring energy and his superb eloquence the guilt of Verres was established, and the criminal was driven into exile. More than this, Cicero so thoroughly exposed the rottenness of the system of provincial government that the senatorial party were left without defence, and were obliged to yield.

At the end of his term of office, Pompey declined to accept the government of a province as was usual with the retiring consuls, but remained quietly at Rome, taking

no part in public affairs, but awaiting the course of events. He was soon called upon to render the state another service. Since the destruction of the naval power of Carthage, Egypt and Syria, the Cilician pirates had become the lords of the Mediterranean. They had their strongholds on the Cilician coast, from which their ships ravaged the shores of Italy, swept the Mediterranean of merchantmen, plundered the Italian ports, and even extended their depredations as far inland as the Appian Way. Pompey was sent against them in B. C. 67, with unusual powers. He was given supreme authority over all the coasts of the Mediterranean and for a distance of fifty miles inland. In three months he swept the pirates from the sea, broke up their strongholds, and by his merciful and politic treatment of them converted many of the outlaws into peaceable and useful settlers in the Italian towns.

Returning from the war with the pirates, Pompey, on the motion of Manlius and Cicero, was intrusted with the command of the army in Asia, operating against Mithridates. He was placed in supreme control of the entire east "until he had brought the Mithridatic war to an end." He set out for his new command in B. C. 66, and in two years brought the war to a glorious conclusion, driving Mithridates into the regions beyond the Caucasus. He also compelled the Armenian King Tigranes to surrender Syria, of which he made himself master without a blow, and converted it into a Roman province. Proceeding southward, through Cœle-Syria, he captured Jerusalem, and generously spared the Temple and its treasures, but won the enmity of the Jews by entering the Holy of Holies. He then made war against the Idumæans, but did not continue the campaign, as the death of Mithridates closed the war. Pompey then spent the remainder of the year in organizing Bithynia and Pontus as Roman provinces, and settling the affairs of the neighboring nations. He allowed Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates, to retain the Crimea, bestowed Cappadocia upon Ariobarzanes, increased the territories of Galatia, and made Hyrcanus King of Judæa. Over all these countries the Roman supremacy was established. In B. C. 61 Pompey returned to Rome, and enjoyed one of the most splendid triumphs the city had ever witnessed.

Before his arrival, Rome had narrowly escaped a civil war. Lucius Sergius Cati-

lina, a man of noble birth, but a broken-down profligate, drew to himself a following of adventurers and disreputable persons, and organized a conspiracy for the overthrow of the government. He expected to be supported by all the disaffected Italians, and by the criminals, slaves, and gladiators, and counted on the tacit acquiescence of the Marian party. The conspiracy was discovered by the vigilance of Cicero, who was then consul, and he denounced Catiline so mercilessly before the senate that the conspirator fled from the city into Etruria, where he rallied his followers. War followed. Catiline was defeated and slain in battle by the Proconsul Antonius, in B. C. 62.

The return of Pompey with the prestige of his great success, immediately after the suppression of Catiline's revolt, greatly



M. TULLIUS CICERO.

alarmed the senate and the aristocratic party, who feared he would follow the example of Sulla; but he quieted their fears by disbanding his army as soon as he reached Italy, and proceeded to Rome accompanied by only a few friends. His triumphal procession, which could not be refused him, occupied three days in passing through the city, though the army took no part in it. When he demanded a second consulship for himself, allotments of land for his veterans, and the confirmation of his acts while in command in the East, he was met with a blunt refusal from the senate. The aristocratic party had determined to punish him for his appointment to the command in the East against their wishes; and with their usual short-sightedness they simply drew ruin upon themselves.

A new power had arisen in Rome during the absence of Pompey in Asia. The control of affairs had fallen into the hands of three men, Cicero, Cato, and Caius Julius Cæsar. Crassus was too insignificant and indolent to count for much; his only power lay in his wealth. Cicero was bold, daring, and the first orator in the world. Cato, a

Cinna. Sulla had at the first recognized his abilities, and had been with difficulty persuaded to exempt him from the proscription. He granted his pardon with the prophetic remark: "That boy will some day be the ruin of the aristocracy, for I see in him many Marii." Cæsar was now upwards of thirty years old, having been born



JULIUS CÆSAR.

descendant of the old censor who had spurred Rome on to destroy Carthage, was a man of the same stern mould. He was the leader of the senatorial party.

Cæsar was the acknowledged chief of the Marian party, and was regarded by the people as their champion. He was the nephew of Marius and the son-in-law of

in B. C. 100. Since the age of seventeen he had identified himself with the popular party, and, more than his noble birth, he prided himself on being the nephew of Marius by the marriage of his aunt Julia to that leader. He had seen his first service in the army at the siege of Mitylene, and had won a civic crown for saving a citizen.

Returning to Rome, he had distinguished himself by his speeches against Dolabella, whom he indicted for extortion in Macedonia. He then repaired to Rhodes to study eloquence under Molo, the preceptor of Cicero. On his way he was captured by the Cilician pirates. Redeemed by a heavy ransom, he collected a few ships, attacked his captors, made them prisoners, and crucified them. About B. C. 74, hearing that he had been chosen one of the pontifices, he repaired to Rome, where he spent the next seven years, without taking any part in politics, but winning many friends by his engaging manners. In B. C. 67, when Pompey sailed against the pirates, Cæsar was made Quæstor. In the same year his aunt Julia, the widow of Marius, died. Cæsar pronounced a noble oration over her remains, and in her funeral procession carried the waxen image of Marius in defiance of the law. In B. C. 65 he was made Curule Ædile, and increased his popularity by the magnificence, with which he celebrated the public games. As curator of the Appian way he rendered a more substantial service by repairing it at his own expense. Sulla had caused the removal of the Cimbrian trophies and the statues of Marius, and the republic possessed no memorial of the services of her greatest soldier. Cæsar now ventured to restore them in a single night. The next morning the citizens flocked to behold them, and the old soldiers of Marius burst into tears of joy at the sight. As Cæsar had not actually violated the law, the senate was not able to prosecute him for his act, and from this moment the people idolized him as their chief. Honors now came to him rapidly. In B. C. 63 he became pontifex maximus; in 62, prætor; and in 61 he obtained the government of Farther Spain. Here he displayed his great military genius by the conquest of Lusitania, and won the enthusiastic devotion of his troops. Though absent from Rome, Cæsar's influence did not wane, and he continued to direct the movements of his party. His Spanish government also furnished him with the means of paying a large part of his debts.

He was now thirty-nine years old, and the dawn of his great career had come. A model of manly beauty, he was conscious of his personal attractions, and was accused of foppishness by his enemies. He had preserved through all his early dissipations the perfect bodily vigor which served

him so well in after life, and he had now taken up habits of temperance. He was a master of fencing, riding and swimming, and his capacity for performing sudden and arduous journeys was remarkable. For the sake of gaining time he usually travelled by night. His mental vigor rivalled that of his body. His power of intuition was astonishing, and his memory was faultless; he never forgot anything. But what endeared him above all to his friends was his warm, generous heart, which never turned against a friend, but was ever faithful through good and evil fortune. Nor was this from calculation. Cæsar loved his friends; no partisan of his ever had cause to complain of his coldness or ingratitude; and their feelings for him were evinced by their passionate outburst of grief at his death. He cherished the purest veneration for his mother during her whole life, and he bore an honorable affection for his wives and his daughter Julia, which were not without their reward.

Like all men of genius, Cæsar was capable of supreme anger, but he ruled his temper perfectly. He was an eminently practical man, and, discarding mere theories, rarely failed to seize upon the best and most suitable measure in the conduct of his operations. He never sought to hasten events, but waited with the calmness of genius the proper moment for the execution of his designs. Whatever he undertook was marked by clearness of judgment, unflinching firmness, and a perfect independence of action, which no favorite or mistress could control. As a general he was quick in conception, rapid in execution, with unerring genius detecting the weakness of his enemy, and striking every blow in its true place. He shared the dangers and hardships of his troops, and was their generous friend and comrade, as well as their inflexible commander. No wonder then that victory followed where Cæsar led.

Such a man was of necessity a great statesman. "From his early youth Cæsar was a statesman in the deepest sense of the term, and his aim was the highest which man is allowed to propose to himself—the political, military, intellectual and moral regeneration of his own deeply decayed nation, and of the still more deeply decayed Hellenic nation, intimately akin to his own." His measures, while they seemed at times to affect the present only, looked far

into the future, and, though cut down at the very entrance upon his great mission, he lifted the world up out of its degradation and made it greater and nobler for his having lived in it. Amid all the gloom which enshrouds the history of this dim period, this great, grand figure stands out boldly, the most illustrious warrior, the most gifted statesman, the most perfect man of the ancient world.

It was to this man that Pompey turned for aid when denied by the senate the just price of his great services. Cæsar had for some time been seeking to detach him from the aristocratic party, and Pompey, sore from the injustice with which he was treated, accepted the offer. A private arrangement was effected between Cæsar, Pompey and Crassus, known as the Triumvirate, which enabled them to control the course of affairs at Rome.



POMPEY THE GREAT.

The first result of this agreement was the election of Cæsar to the consulate in B. C. 59. He at once brought forward a law for dividing the rich public lands of *Campania* among the Roman poor and the veterans of Pompey. The senate resisted bitterly, but was forced to submit, and the lands were divided. Pompey's acts in Asia were ratified, and the knights were won over to the triumvirate by granting them more favorable terms in the farming of the revenues of Asia. The alliance between the leaders was strengthened by the marriage of Pompey to Julia, the daughter of Cæsar. Cæsar, whose wife, Cornelia, had been dead for some years, married Calpurnia, the daughter of Piso. At the close of his term of office, Cæsar, who had been more of a dictator than a simple consul, obtained for himself the government of the two Gauls and of Illyricum for a term of five years, with instructions to "protect the friends and allies of the Roman people." He chose this position as it enabled him to build up a great military renown, to win the army more thoroughly to him, and to be at the same time near enough to Rome

to be able to seize the advantages that might arise there. He was now forty years old. Previous to his departure Cicero was banished, and Cato was sent to deprive Egypt of Cyprus and to convert it into a Roman province, an actual exile since he was confessedly unsuited to the task. The senate was thus deprived of its leaders.

A few days after the departure of Cicero from Rome, Cæsar received news from Gaul which compelled him to set out in haste for his province. Geneva, the extreme outpost of transalpine Gaul, was threatened by a strong body of Helvetians, who were advancing upon it for the purpose of crossing the Rhone at that point, and seeking new settlements in western Gaul. In eight days Cæsar reached Geneva. He secured the passage of the river by means of fortifications, and compelled the Helvetii to pass into Gaul by a longer route over the Jura. Then, following them across the Arar (or Saone) he inflicted a terrible defeat upon them at *Bibracté* (Antun in Burgundy) and compelled the survivors to return to their own country. They had begun their movement 368,000 strong, men, women and children. Less than a third went back.

Immediately after this victory Cæsar was implored by the *Ædni* and Gauls to help them against the *Sequani*, a Celtic tribe, dwelling north of the Helvetii, who had passed the Rhine and threatened to overrun all Gaul. They were led by their prince, *Ariovistus*, a gigantic German, who was esteemed invincible, and the men of the tribe themselves were all of such huge stature and so numerous, that the Roman army became panic-stricken at the mere prospect of engaging them. It required all Cæsar's genius to restore their confidence, and at length he shamed them into firmness by telling them that if they all deserted him, he would make the fight with the Tenth Legion alone. A desperate battle ensued near *Bâle*, in which the Germans were defeated and driven across the Rhine. *Ariovistus* himself fled over the river in a boat.

In B. C. 57 Cæsar invaded the territory of the *Belgæ*, north of the Seine, and after a stubborn campaign conquered it. The next year he built a fleet and reduced *Brittany*, which had given him considerable trouble; and in the same year chastised the maritime tribes. In three campaigns he had conquered the whole of Gaul, from the Rhine and Mount Jura to the Atlantic.

Cæsar spent his winters at his headquarters in Cisalpine Gaul, from which he could control the affairs of his party in Italy. In the winter of B. C. 56 he reconciled Pompey and Crassus, who were on the point of taking up arms against each other. He succeeded in bringing about a settlement of their quarrel at interviews held with them at Lucca and Ravenna, and arranged a plan of future operations for the three. He advised them to seek the consulship the next year. At the expiration of their term of office, Pompey was to receive the government of Spain, Crassus that of Asia, and the proconsular rule of Cæsar over Gaul was to be continued for another period of five years. Cæsar thus seemed to choose for himself the least advantageous position, but in reality it was that which enabled him to carry out the task to which he had devoted his life—the civilizing and harmonizing of Europe. More than this, he desired to be near Rome, when the course of events should compel him to take the decisive step.

In B. C. 55 the Germans again crossed the Rhine in considerable force. Cæsar defeated them on the left bank of that river, and then threw a bridge over the stream near Coblenz, and crossing into Germany inflicted a severe punishment upon the tribes of that region. In the late autumn of the same year he undertook a reconnoitring expedition into Britain, and obtained hostages from the tribes. The senate ordered a thanksgiving of twenty days for his victories, in spite of the opposition of Cato and the enemies of the great soldier. In B. C. 54 Cæsar invaded Britain a second time, and conquered the southern part of England. He took hostages of the native tribes, imposed tribute upon them, but established no garrisons to hold the island. In the winter of this year a revolt broke out in Gaul. A strong Roman detachment was defeated, and another, under Quintus Cicero, the brother of the orator, was in danger of a similar fate. Cæsar at once marched to Cicero's assistance, defeated a Gallic force of 60,000 warriors, and restored order to the country. The Germans having aided the Gallic revolt, he invaded their country again in the summer of B. C. 53; but the dread of his arms had now become so widespread that the Germans fled to the hills without offering any resistance. In B. C. 52 all central Gaul rose against Cæsar, led by the daring chief-

tain Vircingetorix, King of the Averni. By a series of daring and brilliant movements, and several hard-fought battles, Cæsar crushed out the rebellion and made its leader prisoner. By the year B. C. 50 he had succeeded by his wise and firm rule in bringing all of Gaul under Roman dominion and giving it something of a settled government.

In the meantime matters had hastened to a crisis at Rome. Crassus, ambitious of military glory, set out for his eastern government at the expiration of his consulship, and after plundering the Jewish and other temples to procure the funds for his project, plunged into a reckless and unprovoked war with Parthia. He was quickly defeated and was treacherously slain by the Parthians. The death of Crassus left Pompey the sole representative of the triumvirate at Rome. He had now become thoroughly jealous of Cæsar, and no longer pretended any friendship for him. He had not departed for Spain, but had remained at Rome to advance his interests, governing his province through his legates. He allied himself closely with the aristocratic party, and applied himself to the task of crushing and disgracing Cæsar. His wife, Julia, the daughter of Cæsar, was dead, and there was no longer any tie existing between the rivals. A law was passed by the senate requiring Cæsar to surrender his proconsulship, and return to Rome as a simple citizen, before standing for the consulate. To have done this would have been to place himself in the power of his enemies. Cato openly boasted that he would prosecute Cæsar as soon as he laid down his command. Not content with this, the enemies of Cæsar proceeded to compel him to take some decisive step. On pretence of providing troops for a war with Parthia, Pompey and Cæsar were required to furnish each a legion to be sent to Asia. Pompey had some time previous loaned a legion to Cæsar, and he now demanded its return for this service. By this shrewd trick he deprived his rival of two legions. Cæsar promptly dismissed the two legions, giving to each man the rewards that would have been his at the triumphal entry of the army into Rome. These troops were stationed at Capua within immediate reach of Pompey. Curio, a friend of Cæsar, now proposed that both Cæsar and Pompey should disband their armies, but the senate refused to act upon the proposition. Cæsar wrote to the

senate, expressing his willingness to disband his forces if Pompey would do likewise; but the only result of this offer was a decree of the senate that Cæsar should unconditionally disband his army by a fixed day, on pain of being declared a public enemy. Mark Antony and Cassius, the tribunes, vetoed the measure, but their veto was set aside, and they fled the next day to Cæsar's camp at Ravenna.

Cæsar was left no alternative. His enemies in their eagerness to destroy him had decided his course for him. Moreover, he knew that to submit would be to yield his country to incompetent men. Rome was a free government only in name, and was rotten to the core. The men who sought to brand Cæsar as an outlaw were false to the spirit of their laws, and sought only their selfish interests. Cæsar was the real champion of freedom, and upon his decision depended the very existence of the Roman state. A few days before, warned by the threatening aspect of affairs, he had hurried the thirteenth legion forward to Ravenna. Upon receiving the tidings of the tribunes who sought his protection, he resolved to march upon Rome at once and end the struggle. There was no other course for him to pursue. To save Rome it was necessary for him to overturn the worthless government in power. He drew up the thirteenth legion, and unfolded the state of affairs to them. "There spoke," says Mommsen, "the energetic and consistent statesman, who had now for nine and twenty years defended the cause of freedom in good and evil times; who had braved for it the daggers of assassins and the executioners of the aristocracy, the swords of the Germans, and the waves of the unknown ocean, without ever yielding or wavering; who had torn to pieces the Sullan Constitution, had overthrown the rule of the senate, and had furnished the defenceless and unarmed democracy with protection and with arms by means of the struggle beyond the Alps. And he spoke, not to the Clodian public whose republican enthusiasm had been long burnt down to ashes and dross, but to the young men from the towns and villages of northern Italy, who still felt freshly and purely the mighty influence of the thought of civic freedom; who were still capable of fighting and of dying for ideals; who had themselves received for their country in a revolutionary way from Cæsar the burgess rights which the government refused to

them; whom Cæsar's fall would leave once more at the mercy of the fasces, and who already possessed practical proofs of the inexorable use which the oligarchy proposed to make of these against the Transpadanes." The troops felt the truth and justice of Cæsar's appeal, and resolved to follow him to the death. Cæsar had but one legion with him, but the rest of the army was hurrying from Gaul by forced marches. At the head of the thirteenth legion he crossed the Rubicon, a little stream separating his province from Italy, and advanced rapidly upon Rome. The senate fled in dismay, leaving the funds of the treasury behind. The troops of Pompey deserted by the thousand, more than half of the ten legions under his command going over to Cæsar. Pompey threw himself into Brundisium, to which place Cæsar followed him. Seeing the impossibility of resisting his rival in Italy, the "eminently respectable Pompey" crossed over to Greece with the 25,000 men who remained faithful to him. He had contemplated this step from the first, hoping to be able to bring the entire power of the East against Cæsar in Italy, and crush him in the end. In so doing he surrendered to his rival the immense moral advantage of occupying the seat of government and ruling from Rome.

Cæsar, now master of Italy and Gaul, and of Sardinia and Sicily, devoted his first efforts to establishing his authority over the peninsula. He astonished his enemies by the moderation and justice of his course. He respected the property of his absent enemies, compelled his troops to conduct themselves as the fellow-citizens of the Italians and Romans, and not as their conquerors, and he won over the mass of the people, and especially the moneyed class, by the wise course which he pursued.

Italy being quieted, and his authority being submitted to, Cæsar passed into Spain, which remained faithful to Pompey, who had still seven legions there. He conquered it in a brilliant and severe campaign of forty days, and returned by way of Gaul, receiving on the march the submission of Massilia, which had held out stubbornly against his lieutenants, B. C. 49. During his absence he had been named dictator. He accepted the post, but held it only for eleven days. During this period he was elected consul, and passed laws restoring all the exiles banished by Sulla except Milo, and providing for the relief of debtors. He

took the first step in his great scheme of consolidating the provinces by extending the full Roman citizenship to the Gauls. Seeing that Pompey would not invade Italy, he crossed over to Greece with his army from Brundisium. Pompey's naval commanders allowed him to land in Epirus without opposition, and Cæsar succeeded in drawing his rival into the interior of Thessaly, where the latter could derive no advantage from his fleet, and forced him to a decisive battle at Pharsalia, on the 9th of August, according to the Roman calendar, B. C. 48. Pompey was defeated with a loss of 15,000 slain, and fled from the field; the next day 20,000 of his troops surrendered to Cæsar. Greece promptly submitted to the conqueror, and many of the fugitive aristocracy of Rome made their peace with him. Pompey fled to Egypt, which was now governed by the young Ptolemy XIII., who had driven his sister and wife, Cleopatra, into Syria. The Egyptian king was ruled by three Greek adventurers, who, fearing that Pompey would seek to make himself master of the kingdom, determined on his murder. The defeated general arrived off Alexandria with a few ships and a small force of troops, and announced his intention of landing. The Egyptians sent out a small boat for him, pretending that the water was too shallow for the ship to come near the shore. Pompey entered the boat alone, encouraged by recognizing in one of the crew an officer who had formerly served under him. As he was about to step from it on reaching the shore, he was set upon and stabbed. He covered his face with his mantle, and fell without a struggle. A few days later Cæsar arrived in pursuit of Pompey, bringing with him a force of 4,000 men. The ghastly head of Pompey was shown him, but he turned away weeping, and gave orders for the execution of the assassins. He spent five months at Alexandria, regulating the affairs of Egypt, and replaced Cleopatra, to whose charms he was not insensible, on the throne. This was an unpopular measure, and involved him in a struggle with the Alexandrians. In one of the battles on the Nile, his ship was sunk, and he was obliged to swim for his life to another, holding his "Commentaries" on Gallic war above his head, and his coat of mail between his teeth. He was successful at last, however. Ptolemy was drowned in the Nile, and Cleopatra's rule was established.

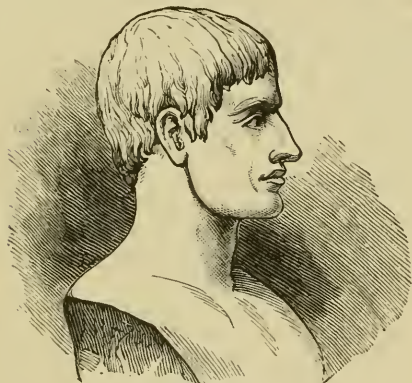
Leaving Egypt, Cæsar hastened to Asia Minor, where in a campaign of five days he defeated Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates of Pontus, who was seeking to recover his father's dominions. Then proceeding to Africa, he marched against the remnant of the Pompeian party, who had set up their senate and government at Utica, and though defeated by them in the battle of Ruspina, B. C. 47, he routed them in the greater battle of Thapsus, the next year. Cato, Scipio, and the King of Numidia committed suicide, and Africa submitted to the conqueror. In B. C. 45 he was obliged to repair to Spain to suppress a new revolt of the Pompeians. He was successful, but the settlement of Spain after the final victory was a difficult task and occupied him six months.

Cæsar returned to Rome for the fourth time since the commencement of the civil war, about the end of May, B. C. 46. Notwithstanding all his victories he had never triumphed before. He now enjoyed a triumph of four days—one for Gaul, one for Egypt, one for Pontus, and one for Numidia. The victories of Ilerda (in Spain) and Pharsalia were not commemorated, as they were won in civil strife. After the splendid shows were over each of the soldiers and every poor Roman received a gift of money and grain.

The work of the conqueror being now ended, that of the statesman began. He was made dictator for ten years and censor for three years, or in other words, absolute master of Rome. Though the forms of the republic were preserved, Rome was now a military monarchy, whose supreme law was the will of its great ruler; for after the last Spanish campaign he was made dictator and censor for life, with the power to make peace or war without consulting the senate, and the right of naming his successor. His person was declared sacred—to plot against him was treason.

In the brief period during which he held the dictatorship he inaugurated a series of measures which were at once popular, judicious, and moderate. He increased the senate to 900 members, and chose the new senators from the provinces as well as from Rome; he confined the judicial power once more to the senate and the knights; he conferred the full Roman citizenship upon the entire population of Transpadane Gaul, and upon many communities in Transalpine Gaul, in Spain, and elsewhere, and in every

possible way endeavored to break down the distinctions between Rome and the provinces, and to make the empire a harmonious whole. He rewarded his veterans with lands beyond the sea. He rebuilt Carthage and Corinth, and thus revived a valuable commerce which the selfish policy of the republic had destroyed. He thinned out the poorer population of Rome by planting 80,000 of the people in colonies in Europe, Africa, and Asia. He gave freedom to all professors of the liberal sciences, and endeavored to promote the cause of education in every part of the Roman dominions, and to civilize the world by the power of learning rather than by force. He arranged a settlement between the debtor and creditor classes on a basis which both acknowledged as liberal and just, and "which left financial honesty untouched." He revived the



M. JUNIUS BRUTUS.

old Licinian law requiring the employment of a certain amount of free labor in the cultivation of the lands. He encouraged an increase in the free population by granting exemptions to those who had as many as three children. He reformed the calendar, which had fallen into such confusion as to be worthless, by adding ninety days to the old Roman year, and adapting the new system to the sun's course; making the Roman year consist of 365 days, with an additional day every fourth year. This was a vast service to his country and to the world, and the senate gratefully ordered the month of his birth to be called July from his clan name. He proposed the codification of the Roman laws, a much needed work; presented a plan for changing the course of the Tiber so as to drain the Pontine marshes, and thus give to the city a large tract of land available for building;

and proposed to connect Rome with Terracina, a larger and more convenient port than Ostia. All this wonderful legislative activity was crowded into a period of five years, the greater portion of which was devoted to important foreign wars.

Cæsar was about to undertake another foreign war by invading Parthia, to avenge the death of Crassus, when his own career was suddenly brought to a close. His enemies charged that he intended to make himself king before his departure, and a conspiracy was organized against him. It was composed chiefly of his personal enemies, who succeeded in winning over to their side several honest republicans, who were influenced by their belief that the death of Cæsar would restore the freedom of the state. Unlike him they failed to perceive that the possibility of a republic in Rome had passed by. Cæsar "was monarch, but he never played the king. Cæsar was monarch, but he was never seized with the giddiness of the tyrant." At the festival of the Lupercalia (February 15), B. C. 44, Mark Antony offered Cæsar the crown, but he declined it. He received many warnings of the danger which threatened him, but his great soul could not suspect the Roman people, and he was too true a man to play the coward. On the 15th of March he repaired to the senate house, and had just taken his seat when the conspirators set upon him and stabbed him. The first blow was given by Casca. He defended himself with his stylus, wounding one of the assassins, hurling back another, and disarming a third. At this moment Brutus, whom he had loved and trusted and loaded with favors, struck him. This ingratitude seemed to paralyze his arm; he ceased his resistance, and exclaiming reproachfully, "And thou, Brutus," covered his face with his toga and fell at the foot of Pompey's statue, pierced with wounds. So died the greatest of the Romans.

Brutus, the organizer of the conspiracy, raising aloft his bloody dagger, cried to Cicero, "Rejoice, father of our country, for Rome is free!" Alas for the honest but short-sighted enthusiast. He had slain his country in killing Cæsar, for he had destroyed the only man capable of carrying Rome through the dangers into which the deep-seated corruption of the Roman people had plunged her. The death of one man could not change the nation. It needed a strong arm to protect it against the effects.

of its own corruption, and the conspirators had stricken that down.

The conspirators had hoped that the people would come at once to their support, but the Romans were thrown into utter consternation by the murder. All classes feared that Cæsar's death would be followed by a return of proscription and revenge. This hesitation gave Mark Antony time to possess himself of Cæsar's papers and treasures. He was now sole consul, and he exerted himself to prevent the assassins from profiting by their crime. He was aided by the procrastination of the conspirators, who failed to act with the decision their course required. Antony pronounced a noble funeral oration over the dead body of Cæsar, and in the course of it exhibited the will of the dictator, in which the Roman people were generously remembered, and succeeded in turning the crowd against the murderers. By securing the co-operation of Lepidus, who had been the chief of Cæsar's cavalry, and by entering into negotiations with the assassins, and professing to recognize the authority of the senate, Antony made himself actual master of Rome. Brutus and Cassius and their associates, fearing that he meant to destroy them, left Rome and appealed to the provinces to support them. Antony seemed on the point of realizing all his ambitious hopes, when there suddenly appeared a rival on the scene.

In his last will and testament Cæsar had named the grandson of his sister Julia, C. Octavius, as his heir and son by adoption. The young man had been educated with great care under the eye of the dictator, who was much attached to him. He was absent from Rome at the time of his uncle's murder, but as soon as informed of it hastened to the city to claim his inheritance. Coming into possession of Cæsar's estate, he distributed with scrupulous care the legacies left by the dictator to the troops and people, and so increased his popularity. Cicero embraced his cause, and in a series of orations known as the "Philippics," he destroyed the popularity of Antony, forced him to quit Rome, and freed the senate from his influence. Antony repaired to his province of Cisalpine Gaul and began the third civil war by laying siege to Mutina, which was held by Decimus Brutus. An army under the new consuls was sent against him, and at Cicero's instance Octavius was made prætor and associated with

the consuls in the command of the troops. Antony was defeated in two battles and driven across the Alps, two of his legions deserting to Octavius, B. C. 44-43. These victories were purchased at the cost of the lives of the consuls. Octavius being left sole commander of the army, which had transferred its love for his uncle to him, allowed Antony to escape, bluntly refusing to pursue him. He claimed the whole merit of the war, and sent a detachment of his troops to demand the consulship for himself. The senate refused his demand, and he at once marched upon Rome, plundering the country as he went. Sustained by his legions, he compelled the senate to confer the supreme power upon him, although he was but nineteen years of age. He called himself consul, and associated his cousin Quintus Pedius with him as his colleague. He caused the senate to confirm his adoption by his uncle, and to indict the murderers of Cæsar. As all these had fled from Rome at his approach, he had them condemned in their absence, and a similar sentence passed upon Sextus Pompey. Octavius was made sole commander of the forces of the republic, with power to make war or peace with Antony and Lepidus, who had now united their forces. The latter policy suited him best at present, as he needed the aid of his rivals to defeat the party of Brutus and Cassius. An interview between the three commanders was held on a small island in the river Reno, and resulted in the organization of the "Second Triumvirate," B. C. 43. By this arrangement Cæsar Octavius, Antony, and Lepidus agreed to share the government of the Roman dominions between them for five years. A proscription on a large scale was agreed upon and put in execution, partly to strike terror to their enemies and partly to enable the triumvirs to carry on the war. It was one of the cruellest campaigns of murder that had ever been waged in Italy, and among the victims was the orator Cicero, who, though a friend of Octavian (as he was now called), was sacrificed to the hatred of Antony. The property of the murdered man was invariably seized. Octavian and Antony then crossed the Adriatic into Greece at the head of 120,000 men, and defeated Brutus and Cassius in two battles at Phillippi, in November, B. C. 42. Brutus and Cassius both committed suicide.

The death of Brutus and Cassius com-

pleted the destruction of the republic. Neither of the triumvirs wished to restore it; the struggles of each were now directed solely to obtaining the mastery over his rivals. The immediate consequence of the battle of Phillippi was a new distribution of the empire between the three. Antony received the East, Octavian Italy and Spain, and Lepidus Africa. The division had hardly been made, however, before the parties to it began to quarrel over it. The position of Octavian was rendered difficult by the attitude of Sextus Pompey, who had made himself master of Sicily, and intercepted the supplies of Rome, and also from the despair of the Italians, numbers of whom were driven from their lands to make room for the veterans. Many of the veterans, disappointed in not receiving as much as they had expected, turned against Octavian. Antony took advantage of these troubles to plot against his rival. Though absent in the East, his interests were confided to his wife Fulvia and his brother Lucius. These attempted to raise a revolt, but were soon obliged to submit. A new arrangement between Antony and Octavian followed. Antony was obliged to give up a part of the East, and Octavian received, in addition to Italy and Spain, both of the Gauls and Illyricum, or, in other words, the whole West. Fulvia having died, Antony married Octavia, the widowed sister of his colleague. In B. C. 39 this arrangement was modified by the admission to the agreement of Sextus Pompey, who was given Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, on condition of his supplying Rome with grain. He failed to execute his part of the agreement, and in B. C. 38 Octavian made war upon him, and after a struggle of two years defeated him, and compelled him to fly to Asia, thus adding the Western islands to his own dominions. The land forces of Pompey, which were considerable, transferred their allegiance to Lepidus, who assumed the title of Imperator. Octavian boldly entered the camp of his rival, and appealed to the troops to join him. His eloquence was successful; the entire army went over to him. Octavian degraded Lepidus from his triumvirship, but spared his life and allowed him to retain his office of pontifex maximus, with which arrangement Lepidus was content.

Antony was now the only rival left to Octavian, and had mortally affronted him by abandoning his wife Octavia, and

by giving himself up to the allurements of the beautiful Egyptian Queen Cleopatra. In setting out for his war against the Parthians, in B. C. 37, Antony had left his wife in Italy, and soon after arriving in Asia was joined by Cleopatra, whose slave he continued to be until his death. During the years B. C. 36, 35 and 34, Antony conducted the war against the Parthians in a feeble and halting manner, winning but few successes, and no honors. He devoted the autumn of 34 to debauchery and pleasure. He bestowed crowns upon his children by Cleopatra, and gave to her the Roman provinces of Cœle-Syria and Cyprus. Octavian, who had spent these years in consolidating his power, and extending his dominions in the region of the western Alps, had become as popular with the Romans as he was once feared. He greatly increased his popularity by adorning and improving the city of Rome. He had long sought a pretext to attack Antony, and he was now furnished with one by the treasonable conduct of the latter in alienating the Roman territory by his gifts to Cleopatra. War was declared against Antony and Cleopatra in B. C. 32. The first year was uneventful. Antony had collected a powerful army and fleet from the East, and was superior in force to his rival, but his indecision and slavish infatuation for Cleopatra disgusted his followers, and he found himself the leader of a half mutinous army. His officers and men deserted in large numbers to Octavian, who received them kindly, and Antony became so disheartened that he formed the fatal resolution of deserting his forces and flying to Egypt with Cleopatra. With this deliberate intention he put to sea with his fleet from the coast of Epirus, on which his army was encamped. He encountered the fleet of Octavian off Actium on the 2d of September, B. C. 31. A battle ensued, the advantage being at first with Antony, whose ships were more formidable than those of his rival. In the midst of the fight Cleopatra, with sixty Egyptian ships, drew off and sailed for Egypt. Seeing this, Antony sprang from the deck of his flagship to a swift galley, and followed the queen. His fleet, thus deserted by its commander, was defeated by the inferior vessels of Octavian. A few days later, the flight of Antony becoming known to his army, it surrendered to Octavian. Octavian followed his rival to Egypt, defeated his forces and reduced the Egyptian queen to such

straits, that she offered to betray her lover as the price of her crown; but her offer was declined, as Cæsar sought the conquest of Egypt as well as revenge upon Antony. Defeated before Alexandria, and deserted by all his followers, Antony ended his life by suicide, and Cleopatra, seeing that Cæsar could not be moved by her wiles, followed the example of her lover. Egypt submitted and became a Roman province. In B. C. 29 Octavian returned to Rome, where he celebrated a triple triumph. He was supreme and undisputed master of the world; and in token of the universal peace which reigned throughout his dominions, the brazen gates of the temple of Janus were shut—for the third time since the founding of Rome.

Octavian now set up on the ruins of the old Roman commonwealth an imperial monarchy under the forms of a republic. He dated his empire from the day of Actium, the victory which made him master of the world. He was thirty-two years of age at this period, and he reigned for forty-five years. This long reign enabled him to establish securely the empire he founded, and to settle it so firmly that it survived for centuries in spite of the great trials to which it was subjected. His prudence and sagacity enabled him to avoid the errors of his uncle Julius, and to secure the supreme power in his own hands while appearing to conform strictly to the forms of the law. He thus conciliated the republicans, who believed they saw the republic revived un-

der his rule, and delighted the monarchists, who beheld their dearest wishes realized in him. He prudently avoided assuming the title of dictator, or the rank or state of a king. He lived as a wealthy senator in his mansion on the Palatine Hill, and when he went abroad it was without the



OCTAVIAN VIEWING THE DEAD BODY OF ANTONY.

pomp or the retinue of a monarch. Yet in spite of this apparent regard for republican forms, he was absolute master of the empire, and he attained this end by uniting in his own person the most important offices of the state, which had previously been held by different individuals. His most usual title was that of "Imperator," which

had formerly been borne by the consular generals during their official terms. As imperator or "Commander-in-chief," he had command of all the provinces. As "Prince of the Senate" he possessed the right of proposing laws to that body, which it promptly ratified. As Pontifex Maximus he was supreme in sacred affairs. As perpetual Tribune, Consul, and Censor, he was possessed of all the powers belonging to those offices. The senate conferred upon him the agnomen of Augustus, which was made hereditary in his family, but which brought with it no accession of power.

The senate continued to exist, nominally a check upon Augustus, but in reality his creature. All the bolder leaders had perished during the civil war, and the survivors cared more for the favor of the emperor than for their own rights or independence. The senators were 600 in number, and were composed of those persons whom Augustus, when censor, had suffered to remain, and of those whom he now appointed to the senatorial dignity. It comprised not only Romans and Italians, but also, to a certain extent, provincials. The latter were obliged to reside in Italy, and in later times were required to be landholders in Italy. No one could obtain a seat in it without being possessed of a property qualification, which was first placed by Augustus at 400,000 sesterces, and gradually advanced to 1,200,000 sesterces. Nominally the senate retained its old powers and privileges. According to the legal fiction of the times, the emperor derived his authority from it, and it was recognized as the ultimate seat of the civil power and authority, and Augustus was always most scrupulous to obtain its assent to his measures; an easy task, since all the senators were entirely subservient to him. At a later period the powers of the senate became insignificant and the emperors became absolute despots.

The wisdom of Augustus left to the Roman people some remnants of their ancient privileges. The consuls and one-half of the other magistrates were nominated by the emperor, but the remaining magistrates were elected from among candidates whom the emperor approved. "Legislation followed its old course, and the entire series of the *Leges Julix*' enacted under Augustus, received the sanction of both the senate and the centuries. The judicial rights alone of the people were at this time absolutely extinguished, the prerogative of pardon which

the emperor assumed taking the place of the '*provocatio ad populum*.' But the tendency of the empire was, naturally, to infringe more and more on the remaining popular rights; and, though a certain show of election, and a certain title to a share in legislation, were maintained by the great assemblies up to the time when the empire fell, yet practically from the reign of Tiberius the people ceased to possess any real political power or privilege."

The vast extent of the empire and the multiplicity of its affairs made it necessary that the emperor should have the assistance of others in its government. He therefore called to his aid a regularly constituted council of state, in which all important affairs of state and all legislative measures were discussed and prepared. The council was composed of the chief annual magistrates and fifteen senators chosen by the senate for a term of six months.

The old offices were continued, and new ones instituted. The principal of the latter were those of prefect of the city, and commander of the prætorian guard. The prætorian guard was a force of 10,000 picked men who were quartered in the city for the protection of the emperor's person. In the later years of the empire, as we shall see, it played an important and unlooked-for part in Roman history.

The boundaries of the empire founded by Augustus may be generally stated as follows: The northern boundary consisted of the British Channel, the German Ocean, the Rhine, the Danube, and the Euxine; the eastern of the Euphrates and the desert of Syria; the southern of the great desert of Africa; and the western of the Atlantic Ocean. Its area was about a million and a half square miles, and included the countries now called Portugal, Spain, France, Belgium, Western Holland, Rhenish Prussia, portions of Baden, Wurtemberg, nearly all of Bavaria, Switzerland, Italy, the Tyrol, Austria proper, Western Hungary, Croatia, Slavonia, Serbia, Turkey in Europe, Greece, Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine, Idumæa, Egypt, the Cyrenaica, Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria, and nearly all of Morocco. The empire, exclusive of Italy, was divided into twenty-seven provinces. These were of two kinds. Those which were at peace, and did not require the exercise of the military power, were called senatorial provinces, and were governed by proconsuls appointed by the senate, the emperor's nominee of

course being confirmed. Those in which the presence of an army was required were imperial provinces, and were governed either by the emperor in person or by his lieutenants. The frontier provinces nearly all required the constant exertions of the army either to maintain them against the outside barbarians or to hold them in submission.

The army, upon whose good will the emperor depended largely for his support, consisted of 175,000 Italian soldiers, divided into twenty-five legions of 7,000 men each, infantry, cavalry, and artillery. The provinces supplied an equal number of auxiliary troops, making the total force of the standing army 350,000 or 360,000 men—hardy veterans all, armed, equipped, and disciplined after the best known method.

CHAPTER VII.

THE EMPIRE—FROM AUGUSTUS TO ELAGABALUS.

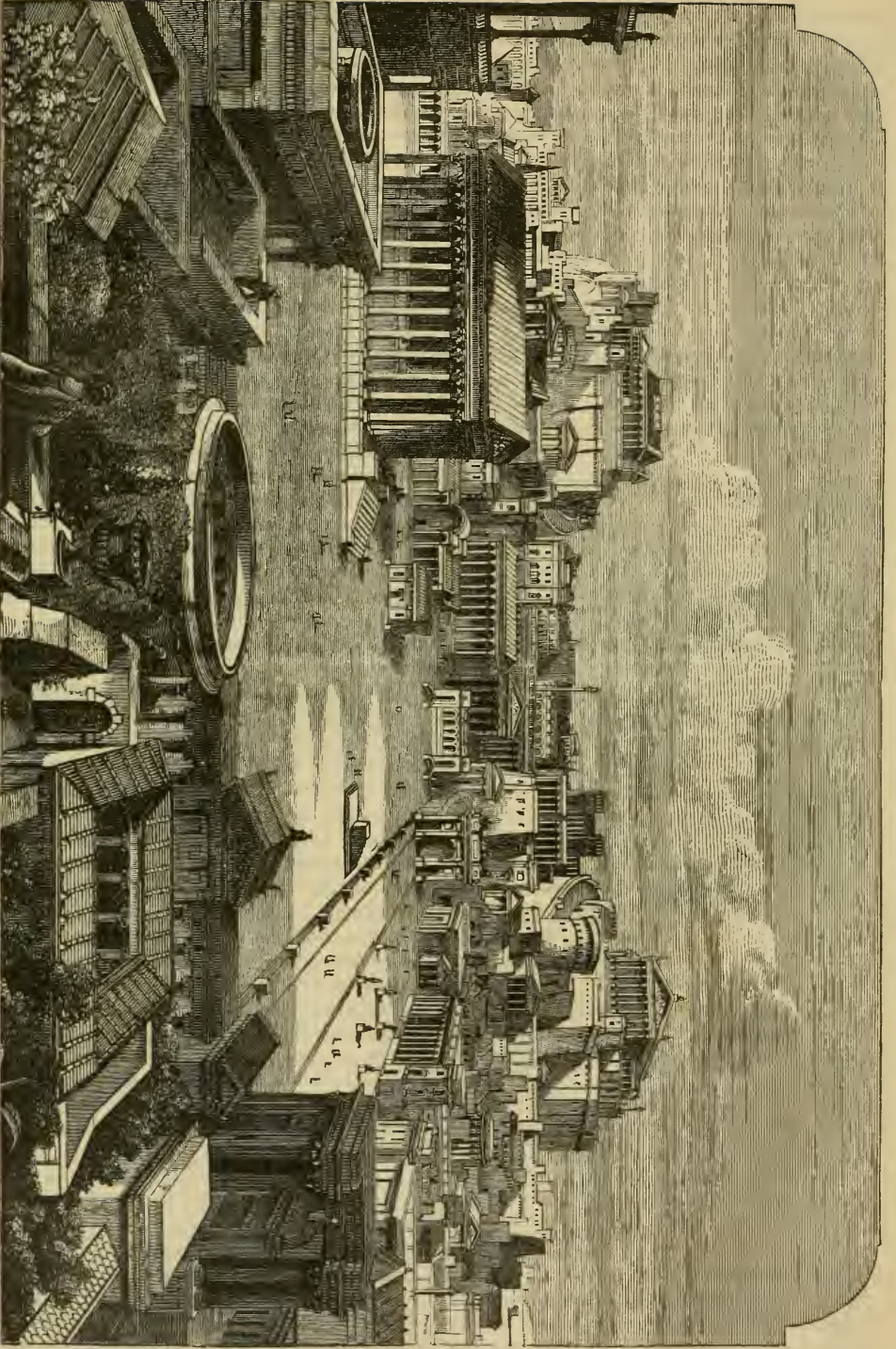
Rome the Mistress of the World—Reign of Augustus—Wars with the Germans—Successes of Drusus and Tiberius—Defeat of Varus—Grief of Augustus—Improvement of Rome—Glories of the Reign of Augustus—Tiberius Emperor—First Years of his Reign—Jealous of Germanicus—Cruelties of Tiberius—Sejanus—His Crimes—Tiberius Retires to Capræ—Fall of Sejanus—Tyranny of the Emperor—Growth of Christianity—Caligula Emperor—His Cruel and Shameful Reign—Reign of Claudius—Conquest of Britain by the Romans—Nero Emperor—His Profligacy and Cruelty—The Burning of Rome—Persecution of the Christians—Revolt of the Provinces—Death of Nero—Rome Rebuilt—Reigns of Galba, Otho, and Vitellius—The Jewish War—Vespasian Emperor—Revolt of the Germans—Jerusalem Taken—Titus Emperor—His Reign—Destruction of Herulanæum and Pompeii—Cruel Reign of Domitian—Nerva's Good Reign—Trajan Emperor—Spread of the Christian Religion—Vigorous Measures of Trajan—His Reforms—Subdues Dacia—The Parthian War—His Death—Hadrian Emperor—His Peaceful Reign—His Journeys—His Cruelties—His Wish for Death—Reign of Antoninus Pius—Marcus Aurelius—His Wars—Persecutes the Christians—Commodus Emperor—His Disgraceful Reign—Decline of the Empire—Pertinax Emperor—The Prætorians Sell the Imperial Dignity to Didius Julianus—Severus made Emperor—He Destroys the Power of the Prætorians—His Wars in Parthia and Britain—Caracalla Emperor—His Cruelties—Is Murdered—Macrinus Succeeds to the Throne—Is Defeated by the Parthians—His Murder—Elagabalus made Emperor—His Shameful and Dissolute Reign—His Murder.

empire, is embraced within the Roman dominions.

The reign of Augustus continued through the first fourteen years of the first century after Christ. The whole period of forty-five years from the battle of Actium to the death of the emperor was mainly one of peace. A few wars mark this reign, however, and must be noticed. Northern and northwestern Spain were completely subjugated between B. C. 27 and B. C. 19, partly by Augustus in person and partly by Agrippa and Carisius. In B. C. 24 Ælius Gallus attempted to conquer the spice regions of Arabia, but failed. Drusus and Tiberius, the step-sons of the emperor, in B. C. 16 and 15 reduced the region between the Lombardo-Venetian plain and the upper Danube. The tribes of the middle and lower Danube were also conquered, but with greater difficulty, and only after frequent revolts—between B. C. 12 and A. D. 9.

The most important of these wars was that waged by Augustus against the Germans. The comparative ease with which the Gauls and the tribes dwelling south of the Danube had been conquered, encouraged Augustus to believe that the great region of central Europe, between the Danube and the Baltic, could be subdued as easily. The conquest of this region would have advanced the Roman frontier to the Vistula and the Dneister, and would have been an important gain in a military point of view. In B. C. 12 Augustus began a series of systematic attacks upon the German tribes east of the Rhine and north of the Danube, his object being the entire subjugation of these races. Until B. C. 9 the Roman armies were commanded by Drusus, but upon the death of that prince the command passed to Tiberius. Germany was overrun by the vast armies of the Romans, aided by their fleets, which reduced the coasts and the banks of the navigable rivers. Forts were erected to hold the country in subjection, and the Roman language and laws were introduced. Augustus congratulated himself upon the complete subjugation of the region between the Rhine and the Elbe. The submission of the Germans, however, was only nominal; their spirit was unsubdued, and they were patiently watching a favorable opportunity to regain their independence. From A. D. 4 to A. D. 8 the Germans remained quiet and apparently submissive. Towards the close of this period Tiberius was succeeded by Quintilius Varus, who

THE history of the ancient world is now that of the Roman empire. Whichever way the student may turn his gaze he will see nothing but Rome. The whole of the then known world, except the Parthian



ROME DURING THE EMPIRE—SHOWING THE FORUM AND THE CAPITOL.

had been Governor of Syria. He discontinued hostile operations, and applied himself to the organization of his province, forgetting however the difference between the free-spirited Germans and the slavish Syrians, whom he had ruled with a hand of iron. His measures were harsh and oppressive, and drove the Germans into rebellion. The revolt was led by Arminius (Herman), a prince of the Cherusci, who had been educated at Rome, and who was well acquainted with the Roman tactics. Although he had been made a Roman citizen and a knight, his German patriotism was undiminished, and he had long contemplated the re-establishment of his country's freedom. When all his plans were in readiness, he caused Varus to be informed that a tribe in the north had revolted. Varus was then in the country of the Cherusci, near the Weser, and he at once set out at the head of a large army to punish the rebels. Arminius allowed him to penetrate with his legions into the depths of the Teutoburg wood, the difficulties of which were increased by the marshy nature of the ground, the result of heavy rains; and then suddenly attacked him with the dense masses of German warriors with which he had skilfully surrounded his force. Whichever way the Romans turned, the wooded heights were alive with the Germans, and escape was impossible. The battle was changed into a massacre; three entire legions were destroyed, and the few survivors were sacrificed upon the altars of the gods of the conquerors. Varus was wounded, and fell upon his sword to avoid being captured. It was the most terrible defeat the Roman arms had ever met with; and utterly destroyed the power of Rome in Germany. The Roman garrisons were speedily overcome and were put to the sword, and in a few weeks not a Roman remained alive in all Germany. The independence of that country was firmly established, never to be lost again. Though the Romans the next year renewed the war under the command of Tiberius, they did not venture upon anything more than mere retaliatory incursions across the Rhine. Germanicus, between A. D. 12 and 14, pursued a similar policy, but no attempt at conquest or permanent occupation was made. The news of the disaster to the army of Varus struck Rome with terror. Augustus, now an old man, gave way to the wildest grief, and for months would burst out into bitter lamen-

tations, crying in useless grief, "Quintilius Varus, give me back my legions!" By his will, which was adopted as the policy of his successors, the Rhine was regarded as the Roman frontier in this quarter, and so continued until the Germans themselves swept over it, and upon the ruins of the empire of Augustus laid the foundations of the states of modern Europe.

Apart from these wars the reign of Augustus was one of peace and prosperity. The internal tranquillity of Rome was never disturbed. The revolutionary elements had exhausted themselves in the civil war, and the prudent and far-seeing management of the emperor prevented new causes of trouble from arising. The Romans were consoled for their lost liberties by the rapid increase of prosperity which the wise administration of the emperor brought to them, and by the distribution of supplies in times of necessity. The city of Rome was so much improved by the erection of new and stately edifices that Augustus could boast with truth that he "had



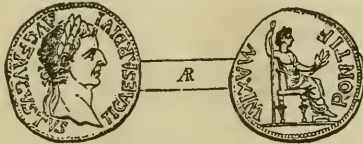
PENNY (DENARIUS) OF AUGUSTUS.

found Rome of brick and left it of marble." Commerce expanded with wonderful activity under him; all the arts of peace flourished; great improvements were made in agriculture, and the productiveness of the soil was increased in Italy and the provinces; and Rome reached her highest point of material prosperity in this reign. Augustus was also a wise and munificent patron of literature and art. Virgil, Horace, Ovid, Tibullus, Propertius, Varius, and Livy graced his court, and so brilliant were the intellectual achievements of this period that men have since termed the brightest epoch of the literature of a nation its Augustan age.

But the happiness of Augustus was confined entirely to his public life, and did not extend to his domestic relations. Personally he was a sufferer from ill-health, an affliction which marked the greater portion of his life. He ardently desired to be succeeded by an heir of his own blood, but though thrice married he had but one child, a daughter, Julia, who disgraced him by her excesses. The connections from whom

he would have chosen his successor were removed by death, and he was compelled from necessity to select as his heir his step-son Tiberius, whom he disliked. He required Tiberius to adopt as his heir the young Germanicus, the son of Drusus, the brother of Tiberius, and bestowed upon Germanicus the hand of his grand-daughter Agrippina. A son was born to this union during the life of Augustus, and subsequently ascended the throne as Caligula.

Augustus died in A. D. 14, and was succeeded by his step-son Tiberius, with the entire consent of the senate and Roman people. The only opposition to the new sovereign proceeded from the army, which desired to elevate its idolized leader, Germanicus, to the purple, but that prince, either from generosity or lack of ambition, refused to countenance the treason, and thus secured the undisputed accession of his uncle. In spite of this, however, Tiberius chose to regard him as a rival, and rewarded his fidelity with a hostility which was so open that it soon became apparent to the



DENARIUS OF TIBERIUS CAESAR.

courtiers that the shortest way to the favor of the emperor was to injure Germanicus either by word or deed.

For the first twelve years after his accession, A. D. 14-26, Tiberius reigned at Rome, and pursued a policy which was mild by comparison with his subsequent acts. During the first years of this period, Germanicus was engaged in conducting the war against Arminius in Germany. After several defeats he won some successes over the German leader, and in A. D. 17 was recalled to Rome, ostensibly to receive the honor of a triumph, but really to put an end to his success. He was met at a distance of twenty miles from the city by a crowd of Roman citizens, who thronged out to meet him. This evidence of the great popularity of the young prince so alarmed Tiberius that he removed him from his command, and sent him to conduct the war in Asia. With him to his new field of operations went Piso, an unscrupulous favorite of the emperor, who was charged with the task of thwarting the efforts of his leader and bringing him into disgrace. In spite of this

drawback, Germanicus succeeded in settling the affairs of Armenia and organizing Cappadocia and Commagéné as Roman provinces. He died in A. D. 19, near the Syrian Antioch, believing himself to have been poisoned by Piso.

Tiberius was fully conscious of his utter unfitness for the lofty position he occupied, but his jealousy of all the members of the Julian house and of his own relatives was so great that he was afraid to call any of them to his assistance in the difficult task of governing his empire. He was equally distrustful of all the great patricians, in each of whom he saw a rival. He therefore abolished the council of state of Augustus, and undertook the management of the empire unaided. Finding this task too great for him, he selected an assistant whose abilities he believed would make him useful, while his position was too insignificant to render him dangerous. His choice fell upon Ælius Sejanus, a Volsinian knight. He made him "Prætorian Prefect," and trusted him so entirely that Sejanus soon acquired the most unbounded influence over him. This man, whom Tiberius believed too obscure to be dangerous, appears from the moment of his accession to have conceived the ambitious design of becoming master of the empire. His first step was to seduce Livilla, the wife of Drusus, the son of Tiberius, and with her aid he removed Drusus by poison, A. D. 23. His crime being undiscovered, he had the audacity to ask the emperor's permission to marry Livilla. This bold request opened the eyes of Tiberius to the ambition of his favorite, but, though he refused to allow the marriage, he continued to submit himself to the influence of Sejanus. He was persuaded by Sejanus to retire to the island of Capræe, in the most delightful part of the Mediterranean, and leave the control of the empire in the hands of the favorite. Left master of Rome, Sejanus exerted himself to remove all the obstacles to the realization of his ambition. First of all it was necessary to destroy the remaining members of the family of Augustus. By intrigue and falsehood he procured the consent of the emperor to the arrest and imprisonment of Agrippina, the widow of Germanicus, and her sons, Nero and Drusus. By continually urging the subject, he induced Tiberius to sanction his marriage with Livilla, and was formally betrothed to her, and at the same time was made joint consul with the

emperor. Tiberius now suddenly changed his course. The ambition of his favorite alarmed him, and his favors ceased. Sejanus quickly detected the evidences of the changed feelings of his master, and to secure his own safety organized a plot for the murder of the emperor. It was detected, and the favorite was arrested, degraded from his command, and put to death, A. D. 31.

The treachery of the only man whom he had trusted embittered Tiberius against the whole human race, and he became more suspicious than ever. He did not return to Rome, but remained in the magnificent retreat he had constructed in the Mediterranean, dwelling "in the dreadful privacy of some fabled deity, and was only felt at the farthest ends of his empire by the unhappiness he occasioned." Learning for the first time that his son Drusus had been murdered, he became alarmed for his own safety, and influenced by a desire for revenge as well as the wish to remove all whom he considered dangerous to himself, he inaugurated a reign of terror such as Rome had never seen before. Livilla, the betrothed wife of Sejanus, Agrippina, Nero, Drusus, and all the relatives of Germanicus, were put to death; hundreds of patricians of both sexes were massacred, and even little children were numbered among the victims of the cruel tyrant. In the seclusion of his island retreat, Tiberius gave himself up "to strange and unnatural forms of profligacy." He died there in A. D. 37, at the age of seventy-eight.

In this reign the last vestige of the liberties of Rome disappeared. The emperor withdrew from the tribes the appointment of magistrates, and henceforth all these were appointed by the crown. He also extended the penalties of treason to words and even thoughts. Augustus had scrupulously conformed to the requirements of the criminal laws in the removal of those who were obnoxious to him, but Tiberius at a blow struck down the right of trial, and his victims were executed upon his own order alone. He quartered the praetorian guard in a camp immediately without the walls of Rome, for the purpose of overawing the citizens into submission to his tyranny.

While the Roman world was plunged in terror by the cruelties of Tiberius, there was growing up in a distant part of the empire the influence which was to change the destiny of the whole world. Jesus

Christ grew up to manhood in the latter part of the reign of Augustus and in the first years of that of Tiberius. In A. D. 27, at the age of thirty, he began his public ministry. In A. D. 29 he was crucified at Jerusalem, by order of the Roman governor, Pontius Pilate, and three days later gave the conclusive proof of his divinity by his triumphant resurrection from the dead. Forty days later he ascended to heaven, leaving his apostles to complete the great work of Christianizing the world in his name. His earthly career thus extended over a period of thirty-three years, and closed about the time when the power of Sejanus had reached its culminating point. In the latter years of the reign of Tiberius the first missionaries of the cross began their labors, going out from Jerusalem to the surrounding country, preaching the story of the crucified Christ, and laying the foundations of that great revolution which was to conquer even Rome itself. The year of the death of Tiberius witnessed a still more momentous event in the miraculous conversion of Saul of Tarsus to Christianity.

Tiberius died without naming a successor, but the senate, soldiers, and people unanimously chose one in Caius Cæsar, the only surviving son of Germanicus and Agrippina. He is better known as Caligula, a nickname bestowed upon him in his childhood by the legions in Germany, whose pet he was, in consequence of the little military boots (*caligæ*) which he wore to please them. He was twenty-six years old when he came to the throne, and was regarded by all as a young man of amiable and generous disposition. He soon undeceived his people, and degenerated rapidly into a cruel and whimsical tyrant. At his accession the imperial treasury contained a surplus of over one hundred million dollars; but he squandered this immense sum in a few months, and to supply his wants he resorted to oppressive taxation and to an arbitrary use of the laws concerning treason. The estates of the attainted persons being forfeited to the crown, it soon became apparent that to be a traitor in the eyes of the emperor it was only necessary to be rich. Executions and suicides were numerous, and the cruelty and wantonness of the emperor increased with each fresh victim. He had a peculiar way of nodding with his head or pointing with his finger at those whose death he wished. His executioners

at once seized and despatched the victims. He kept a box of a poisonous compound, which he offered to the more distinguished. These were expected to use the poison as snuff is taken. Whoever took a pinch died of the effects of the drug. Those who refused it were executed for treason. A monster of profligacy, Caligula lived in open incest with his sister Drusilla until her death in A. D. 38. About this time he was seized with a severe illness which unsettled his reason, and the Roman world had a madman for its master. He proclaimed himself a god, and built a temple to his honor as Jupiter Latiaris, and so low had the once proud patricians of Rome sunk that they contended for the privilege of ministering at this shrine. At the public games, when the supply of criminals was insufficient, spectators taken at random from the crowd were seized by order of the emperor and thrown to the beasts, and that they might not shock him with their dying curses, their tongues were cut out. At last this brief but terrible period of suffering was brought to a close by the murder of Caligula by two of his guards whom he had insulted beyond endurance, A. D. 41.

The sudden end of Caligula not only left the empire without a ruler, but also without any known means of choosing one. The senate claimed the right to nominate the successor to the throne, but instead of acting promptly, engaged in a long debate as to the proper course to be pursued. The prætorians, aware of the hesitation of the senate, settled the matter by proclaiming Claudius, the uncle of Caligula, emperor, and the senate did not dare to refuse to ratify the choice of the troops. This bold action settled the mode of procedure, and for more than half a century afterwards the emperor was chosen by the prætorians, and the senate was obliged to confirm the nomination.

Claudius had been found by the soldiers hidden in the palace, alarmed by the death of his nephew, and had been literally forced into the purple. From his childhood he had been regarded as half-witted, and had been kept out of public life. Shy, weak, and awkward, he was in every way unfitted to rule such an empire, especially at the period of its greatest corruption. Still, as he was honest and well-meaning, his reign might have been creditable had he been left to rule alone; but from the first he was under the control of his wives and his favor-

ites, who took advantage of his weakness to carry out their own infamous designs. Messalina, the infamous wife of Claudius, was a monster of wickedness, whose name has become a synonym for vice in woman. She gratified her jealousy and hatred of the patricians at the expense of some of the noblest lives in Rome. She had the audacity to go through the forms of a public marriage with one of her paramours, although the emperor was living. At last she was executed for her crimes by order of Claudius, and a law was passed by the senate enabling the emperor to marry his niece Agrippina. It was the good fortune of this princess to be the successor of Messalina, and her reputation is improved by contrast with that of her predecessor. That she was not wholly bad is shown by her recall of Seneca from exile. She made him the tutor of her son Nero, and advanced to power the honest Burrhus, and also protected many of the accused nobles. At last, however, fearful of being punished for her crimes, Agrippina, with the assistance of the emperor's physician, put an end to the life of Claudius by poison, A. D. 54.

The reign of Claudius is not memorable for its crimes alone. In A. D. 44 the island of Britain was conquered, partly by Aulus Plautius and partly by Claudius in person. The whole country as far north as the line of the Dee and the Wash was subdued and brought under the influence of civilization. The Romans "improved as well as conquered. They made roads and built bridges and cut down woods. They established military stations which soon became centres of education and law. They deepened the Thames, and commenced those enormous embankments of the river, to which, in fact, London owes its existence, without being aware of the labor they bestowed upon the work."

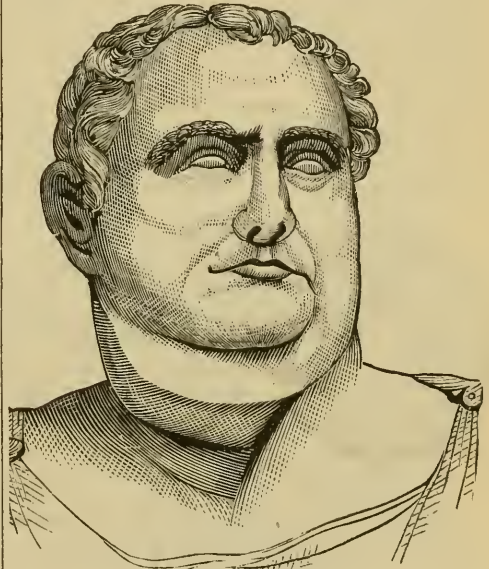
Claudius was succeeded by his stepson Nero, who had married his daughter Octavia. Nero was the son of Agrippina, who had persuaded the emperor to nominate him his heir in place of his own son Britannicus. Immediately upon the death of Claudius Agrippina presented Nero to the prætorians, who hailed him as emperor. Their choice was promptly confirmed by the senate.

The opening of the reign of Nero was full of promise, and for five years the Romans had cause to congratulate themselves upon their change of rulers. The oppressive

taxes of the former reign were remitted, and the poor and meritorious were assisted by grants of lands. The *delators*, an infamous class of people, who earned their living by accusing others of crime, were suppressed. Armenia was conquered, and the country along the lower Rhine was improved by the erection of dykes to prevent inundations. These wise measures were due to Burrhus and Seneca, the able and incorruptible ministers of the emperor. Nero himself was from the first a cruel tyrant and a sensual profligate. He poisoned his foster-brother, Britannicus, in the second year of his reign (A. D. 55). A little later he banished his mother and gave himself up to amusement and debauchery, and about A. D. 58 passed under the baleful influence of an infamous woman named Poppæa Sabina, the wife of Otho, who became his mistress. At her instigation Nero murdered his mother (A. D. 59), and then his wife, Octavia (A. D. 62), whom he had previously repudiated. He murdered the faithful Burrhus, drove Seneca from his court, and gave free rein to his baser proclivities. He encouraged delation, and refilled his depleted treasury with the wealth of his victims. Forced contributions were also levied upon the people. He openly encouraged the most abominable of vices, and shocked his subjects by publicly engaging in the performances of the circus and the theatre. He took part in the vocal performances of the Isthmian Games, and caused one of the singers to be put to death because his voice drowned his own. In A. D. 64 a terrible conflagration destroyed ten of the fourteen "regions," or wards, of the city of Rome. Nero watched the progress of the flames from a tower on the Esquiline, and chanted the "Sack of Troy" in the dress of an actor. He manifested the most heartless indifference to the sufferings of his subjects. Though he was believed to have ordered the firing of the city in consequence of his disgust with its narrow and winding streets, he charged the crime upon the Christians, who had now become quite numerous in Rome, and inaugurated the cruel persecution of the followers of Jesus Christ, which disgraced the empire until the reign of Constantine. He also persecuted the Jews with equal severity.

The next year a conspiracy against the life of the emperor was detected and cruelly punished. Fear now drove Nero on to

greater barbarity. By a series of executions and assassinations, which followed each other in quick succession, he removed the richest and most powerful and the most virtuous of the Romans, and all the descendants of Augustus. At last his vengeance extended to the commanders of his armies in distant countries. Corbulo, the conqueror of Armenia, was arrested and executed, and Rufus and Scribonius, the commanders of the army in Germany, avoided a public execution only by taking their own lives. It now became clear to the other commanders that they could escape a similar fate only by rebellion.



THE EMPEROR VITELLIUS.

They therefore rose in insurrection simultaneously in Germany, Gaul, Africa, and Spain, and chose Galba, the governor of Hither Spain, as emperor. Nero was at once deserted by the prætorians and his courtiers. He fled to the cottage of a former slave near the city, where, after spending a night of terror, he caused a slave to despatch him in time to avoid being seized by a troop of horse sent in pursuit of him. He died on the 9th of June, A. D. 68, at the age of thirty, and in the fourteenth year of his reign.

During this reign the Britons rebelled under the leadership of their heroic Queen Boadicea, A. D. 61, but were subdued by Suetonius Paulinus. The province of Judæa was also driven into rebellion in consequence of the oppressive government

of Gessius Florus. The Jewish war began in A. D. 66, and Nero despatched Vespasian, his ablest commander, to direct it. Vespasian conducted the struggle with firmness and ability, as well as with great severity, and at the death of Nero had made himself master of nearly the whole of Palestine.

The only creditable act of the latter part of Nero's reign was the rebuilding of Rome upon a more regular and substantial plan. The streets were made broader and straighter, the houses were constructed of stone, made fire-proof, and separated from each other by alleys or lanes of considerable width, and an abundant supply of pure water was introduced into each dwelling. The imperial palace having been destroyed by the fire, Nero built his famous "Golden House," on a scale of magnificence and magnitude never before witnessed in Rome.

S. Sulpicius Galba, the successor of Nero, was upwards of seventy years old at

the Po. Otho was defeated, and at once ended his life by suicide, after a reign of three months, April 16th, A. D. 69.

Vitellius was as much of a profligate as Otho, and lacked the personal courage of his rival. He owed his success entirely to the efforts of his generals, and upon coming to the throne he promptly gave evidence of the incapacity and utter worthlessness which in the end cost him his crown. A few months after his accession, Vespasian, who had conquered nearly all of Palestine, and had brought the Jewish war to its last stage, raised the standard of revolt. He was supported by the legions in the East and by the better classes of the empire in general. Proceeding to Alexandria, he seized Egypt, "the granary of Rome," and sent his generals, Antonius Primus and Mucianus, to reduce Italy. Antonius defeated the forces of Vitellius in the battle (the second) of Bedriacum. This victory really decided the contest, though the war was prolonged several months by the soldiers of Vitellius, who would not allow their leader to abdicate. The army of Vespasian a little later stormed and took Rome, and having captured Vitellius, put him to death, December 21st, A. D. 69.

T. Flavius Vespasian dated his reign from July, A. D. 69. He proved the ablest and best ruler Rome had had since Augustus—"a ruler who knew how to combine firmness with leniency, economy with liberality, and a generally pacific policy with military vigor upon proper occasion." Under his vigorous administration the empire regained a great degree of its lost power and prestige. At the beginning of his reign a dangerous revolt broke out in Germany, under Civilis, who aimed at establishing an independent state beyond the Rhine. The movement spread to eastern Gaul, and Sabinus and Classicus were induced by Civilis to proclaim a Gallic empire. The Gauls refused to participate in the revolt, and that province was easily quieted by Cerialis, the general of Vespasian, who then passed into Germany and drove Civilis across the Rhine, A. D. 69-70.

Upon leaving Judæa, Vespasian had committed the prosecution of the war to his elder son Titus. In A. D. 70 Titus advanced to Jerusalem and laid siege to the city, which he captured and destroyed after one of the most memorable and terrible sieges in history. The inhabitants were massacred or sold into slavery, and the na-



COIN OF VESPASIAN.

the time of his elevation to the purple. He was a man of sterling integrity, a Roman of the old school, and his simple habits and the rigid economy which he introduced into the management of the public funds disgusted the prætorians and the people. Having adopted Piso Licinianus as his successor, he alienated Otho, the favorite of Nero, who had hoped to secure this honor, and the latter headed an insurrection. Galba and Piso were slain, and the servile senate at once acknowledged Otho as emperor, January 15th, A. D. 69.

M. Salvius Otho was the husband of Poppæa, the infamous mistress of Nero. He was a worn-out debauché, who had run through almost every form of vice, and was in no way fitted for the position he had seized. His elevation was disputed by the legions in Germany, who proclaimed their commander, Vitellius, emperor. A battle was fought between the rivals at Bedriacum, near the confluence of the Adda and

tional existence of the Jews was brought to an end.

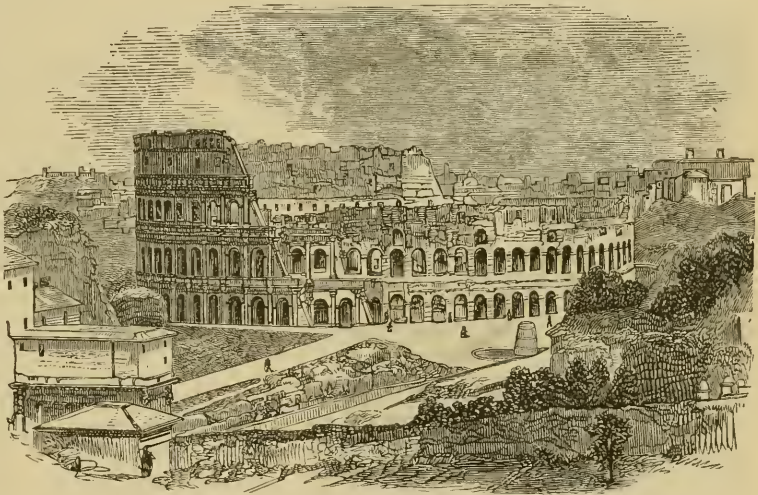
In Britain the boundary of the Roman dominions was advanced by Agricola, who was made governor in A. D. 78, from the line of the Wash and Dee to that of the Solway Frith and the Tyne, and was maintained by the establishment of a chain of forts across the isthmus which unites England with Scotland.

At home the wisdom and success of Vespasian were manifest. The finances were rescued from the confusion into which they had fallen, and were placed upon a stable basis; the discipline of the army was restored to its old standard; and education and literature were encouraged by the patronage of the state. The great public works of the emperor gave employment to the laboring class. He converted the space enclosed by Nero for his own use, into public grounds, and in a portion of it erected the Flavian Amphitheatre or Coliseum. He died in A. D. 79.

Previous to his death Vespasian had associated his son Titus with him in the empire, and at his father's decease Titus succeeded to the sole sovereignty without opposition. He was sincerely and unceasingly devoted to the happiness of his people, and though careless in his expenditures and possessed of grave personal faults, he must be classed among the good emperors. He is said to have exclaimed one evening upon remembering that he had performed no useful act that day, that he had "lost a day." During his reign occurred the great eruption of Vesuvius, which destroyed the beautiful and wealthy cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum. A terrible fire raged three days and nights at Rome, and was followed by a destructive pestilence. Titus generously made the pecuniary loss his own, and sold even the ornaments of his palace to

defray the cost of rebuilding the burned district. In September, A. D. 81, his life was brought to a close by a fever. Just before his death he named his younger brother Domitian his successor.

The accession of Domitian met with no opposition, all classes being favorably disposed towards him because of the virtues of his father and brother. He soon gave evidence that he was a very different man from either. He was of a morose and jealous disposition, and by long indulgence of these faults had inclined his nature to cruelty. In the first year of his reign a war with the Dacians broke out in their invasion of Mœsia. They defeated a Roman legion and ravaged the province. In A. D. 86 Domitian sent an army into Dacia to avenge



RUINS OF THE COLISEUM, AT ROME.

this insult, but it was defeated. The next year the Romans were victorious. In A. D. 90 a treaty of peace was made with the Dacians, by which Rome agreed to pay an annual tribute as the price of the exemption of Mœsia from invasion. Domitian was not much more successful in Germany. He crossed the Rhine in A. D. 84, and won some trifling successes over the Chatti; but in A. D. 87 his attack upon the Marcomanni, the Quadi and the Sarmatæ was repulsed. These failures increased his natural savageness, and rendered him a monster of cruelty. He revived the system of false accusations, forfeitures, and death penalties that had brought about the fall of Nero. He was even more cruel and unsparing than that tyrant, and at length, in the sixteenth year

of his reign, was murdered by the freedmen of the palace, who were driven to this step by their own danger, September 18th, A. D. 96.

The cruelties of Domitian had so discredited the hereditary principle, that the senate now asserted a right which it had not exercised since the days of Augustus, and named the successor of the murdered emperor. The prætorians made no objection to this act, but contented themselves with demanding the punishment of the assassins of Domitian.

M. Cocceius Nerva, the emperor chosen by the senate, was about sixty-six years old, and a man of mild character, and of average abilities. He replaced the bloody rule of Domitian with a government of great gentleness. The extravagance which had



PORTION OF BAS-RELIEF ON ARCH OF TITUS, COMMEMORATING THE CAPTURE OF JERUSALEM.

marked the previous reign gave way to economy in every branch of the government, and the practice of delation and confiscation was abolished. Being childless himself, he selected with the sanction of the senate his successor in the person of M. Ulpian Trajanus, and adopted him with the usual ceremonies. This act decided the future policy of the sovereign, and it became a recognized principle of the government that the emperor should select from out the whole population of the empire the Roman most fit for the place, and adopt him as his son and successor. Nerva died in A. D. 98, and his adopted son was at once recognized as emperor.

During this century the spread of the doctrines of the Christian religion was most

marked. From Jerusalem as a centre the missionary apostles went out to the eastern nations preaching their wonderful faith and establishing the Church of Christ. Barnabas and Saul taught the faith at Antioch in Syria, and there the disciples were first called "Christians." Then followed the journeys of St. Paul by which he carried Christianity into Asia Minor and into Greece, and finally to Rome itself, whither he went as a prisoner and a martyr in the reign of Nero. The rapid growth of the new faith excited the alarm of the Romans. Nero attempted to check the spread of Christianity by a severe persecution of its followers. This policy of persecution was continued by his successors, but in spite of it the new faith continued to spread.

Trajan, the new emperor, was a native of the colony of Italica in Spain. His father had been consul and proconsul, and he himself had been bred in the camp, and had served with distinction under his father. In A. D. 91 he was made consul under Domitian, and commanded the province of Lower Germany under that emperor and under Nerva. He was regarded as the ablest man in Rome at the time of his accession to the throne, and was accepted with joy by both the senate and the army. The Romans always regarded him as the best of their emperors. His faults were chiefly a too great fondness for wine and for sensual pleasures; but his good qualities were numerous and brilliant. "He was brave, laborious, magnanimous, simple and unassuming in his habits, affable in his manners, genial; he knew how to combine strictness with leniency, liberality with economy, and devotion to business with sociability and cheerfulness. And if we may thus consider him, in a qualified sense, 'good,' we may certainly without any reserve pronounce him 'great.' Both as a general and as an administrator he stands in the front rank of Roman rulers, equalling Augustus in the one respect, and nearly equalling Julius in the other." His industry was untiring. He conducted the government almost alone, carrying on a voluminous correspondence with the governors of the provinces, and furnishing each with instructions for the management of his province. He suppressed delation with a stern hand, and scrupulously respected the rights of the senate, allowing the members freedom of speech, and treating them as his equals in social intercourse. His financial

administration was eminently successful, and was conducted with so much wisdom and prudence that it was never found necessary to resort to increased taxation or confiscations. Yet the public treasury was always kept so full that the emperor never lacked the funds for his military expeditions, his great public works, or his measures for the relief of his distressed subjects. He improved the poor law of Nerva by extending and systematizing its provisions; he relieved the embarrassments of proprietors of

he spent scarcely anything upon himself, and amidst all his numerous engagements found time for the patient hearing of the many appeals made to him from the lower courts. In literature the reign of Trajan ranks next to that of Augustus. Tacitus, the great historian, the younger Pliny, Plutarch, Suetonius, and the slave philosopher Epictetus, lived under his beneficent rule.

The only error of his reign was the desire of Trajan to be known to future ages as a



ARCH OF TRAJAN—ROME.

encumbered estates by loaning them money at a low rate of interest; he caused the ravages made by earthquakes and tempests to be repaired without delay; founded colonies; constructed military roads in various parts of the empire; erected bridges over the Rhine and the Danube; and adorned Rome and the provincial towns with useful and ornamental works. In Rome the principal of these structures were the great Forum, and the Ulpian Library. While so liberal in his treatment of his subjects,

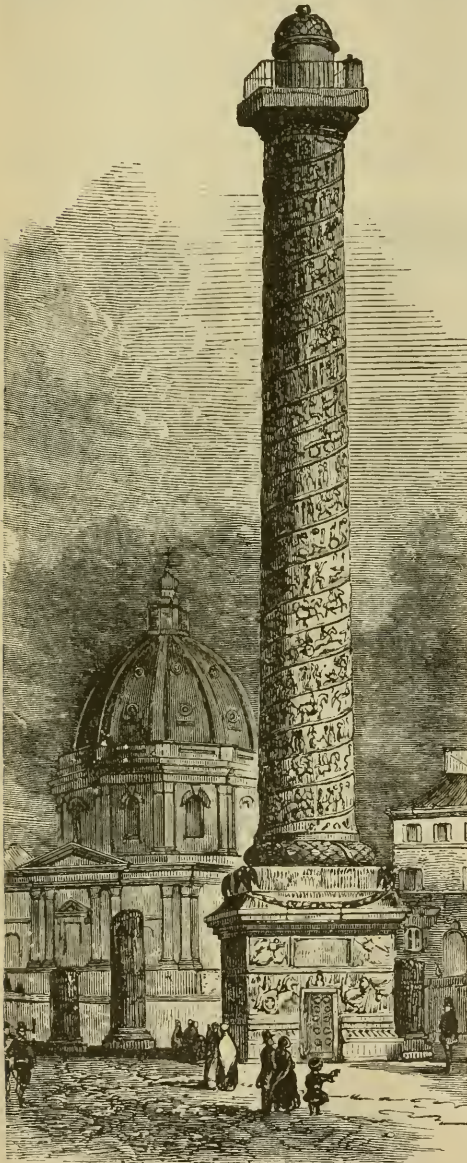
conqueror. The period of conquest had passed, and the emperor would have done well to have regarded the Rhine, the Danube, and the Euphrates as the boundaries of the empire, as Augustus had sagely advised his successors. Trajan, however, chafed under the disgraceful tribute which Domitian had pledged to the Dacians, and in A. D. 101, made war upon Dacia, which was conquered by A. D. 103. Hard terms were imposed by Rome, and the next year the Dacians revolted. Trajan at once took

the field, and by A. D. 105 completely subdued the country, which was made a Roman province, and was held down by a line of forts. Returning to Rome the emperor celebrated his triumph with games which

Trajan to go to war with Parthia. The pretext for the quarrel was the claim of Rome to direct the affairs of Armenia, which was disputed by Parthia. The war began in A. D. 115 with the invasion of Armenia by the emperor in person. That province was quickly subdued, and Trajan carried his victorious arms as far as Susa. The result of the war was the addition to the Roman territory of the provinces of Armenia, Mesopotamia, and Assyria. Trajan died in Cilicia, in A. D. 117, on his return from the East, and his ashes were conveyed to Rome in a golden urn, and buried under the column which is called by his name.

He was succeeded by his adopted son Hadrian, who was distantly related to him, and had served under him with distinction. Hadrian was forty-two years old at this time, and was childless. In many respects he resembled Trajan. He was genial in his disposition, affable in manner, and liberal in character. He expended the public funds lavishly in the service of the state and the improvement of the empire, but managed the finances with such skill that his treasury was never exhausted. Though he ruled with a firm hand, he was moderate in all things, and scrupulously maintained the forms of a free government. He resembled Trajan also in his capacity for and devotion to business, and never allowed his love of pleasure to interfere with his official duties. He was a liberal patron of the arts, and a wise friend to literature. Like the majority of men of his day he was lax in his morals, but he never suffered himself to be drawn into a scandal. He was more irritable than Trajan, and more jealous, but he atoned for these faults by preferring the triumphs of peace to those of war, and by wisely devoting himself to the improvement of his dominions without caring to extend them. He sought faithfully to promote the good of all his subjects.

Hadrian began his reign by voluntarily evacuating the provinces of Armenia, Mesopotamia, and Assyria, which had been won by Trajan, but which he knew could not be maintained except at a greater cost of life and treasure than they were worth. In order to acquaint himself with the needs of his subjects, he visited the various portions of his dominions, and resided for prolonged periods at the various provincial capitals. Eboracum (York), in Britain, Athens, Antioch, and Alexandria, were in turn the



TRAJAN'S COLUMN—ROME.

lasted for 123 days, during which 11,000 wild beasts, and 10,000 gladiators, chiefly Dacian prisoners, are said to have been slain.

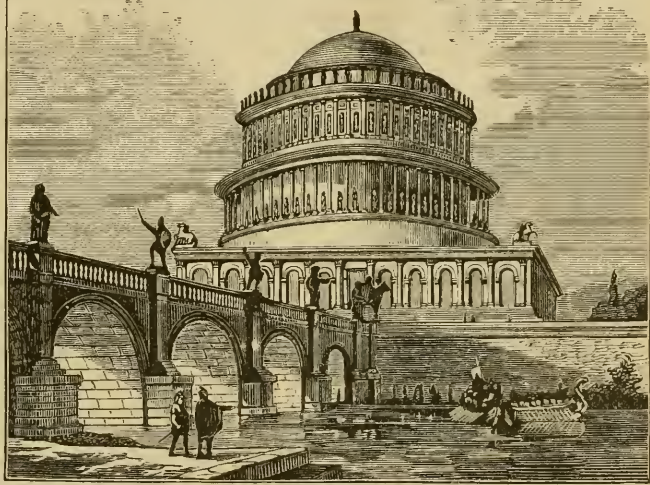
Towards the close of this reign the generally unsettled affairs of the East induced

residence of the emperor, who spent fifteen out of his twenty-one years in these provincial progresses. He made no difference between the various races over which he ruled, and wherever he went he left some memento of his presence in the great works which he loved to construct. All parts of his dominions were thus benefited. His reign was an almost unbroken period of peace and prosperity.

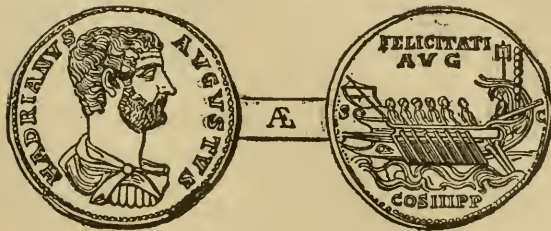
The only wars which occurred during this reign were one with the Roxolani in A. D. 118, and a revolt of the Jews under Barcochebas in A. D. 131. This struggle lasted until A. D. 135, and ended in the defeat of the Jews, and their absolute banishment from Palestine. The site of Jerusalem was made a Roman colony under the name of *Ælia Capitolina*, and the Christians, who had been banished by Titus, were freely admitted to it by Hadrian.

We have spoken of the excellence of Hadrian's character. It is necessary to dwell upon the darker shades. With the advance of age his natural irritability of temper and jealousy were increased by indulgence of these vices. He became regardless of human life, and put men to death for small offences. He caused an architect to be executed for venturing to criticise some statues designed by himself. As he grew older, Hadrian became "more reckless of the pain he gave. He had a brother-in-law ninety years of age, and there was a grandson of the old man aged eigh-

The old man, just before he died, protested his innocence, and uttered a revengeful prayer that Hadrian might wish to die and find death impossible!" The imprecation was fulfilled! The emperor, tormented with disease, lingered long after he wished for death, and begged his slaves to kill him. He even stabbed himself with a dagger, but still death did not come to his relief. He did not die until B. C. 138. In spite of his faults, however, Hadrian justly takes rank as one of the greatest and best of the em-



MOLE OF HADRIAN—ROME.



COIN OF THE EMPEROR HADRIAN.

teen. He had them both executed on proof or suspicion of a conspiracy. The popular feeling was revolted by the sight of the mingled blood of the two sufferers so nearly related, at the opposite extremities of life.

perors. "To have combined for twenty years unbroken peace with the maintenance of a contented and efficient army; liberal expenditure with a full exchequer, replenished by no oppressive or unworthy means; a free-speaking senate with a firm and strong monarchy, is no mean glory."

The wisdom of Hadrian was never more strikingly exhibited than in the choice of his successor, T. Aurelius Antoninus, or, as he is better known, Antoninus Pius. His reign of twenty-three years was uneventful, but it was peaceful and prosperous. He continued the liberal policy of Trajan and Hadrian, and watched over the happiness and welfare of his subjects with a father's care. He was the first of the emperors who protected the Christians.

In Britain the Roman boundary was advanced to the Clyde and the Forth, and secured by the erection of a barrier known as the "Wall of Antoninus," extending across the district between those waters. Antoninus died in A. D. 161, and was suc-

ceeded by his adopted son, Marcus Aurelius.

Marcus Aurelius was forty years old at the death of his adoptive father, to whom he was sincerely attached, and whose name, Antoninus, he assumed. Personally, he was one of the best of the emperors, loving religion, justice and peace, and honestly seeking to advance the welfare of his subjects. He was a man of pure life and simple habits, and combined in his character all the virtues of the heroic age of Rome. He was kind and affectionate in disposition, and in mental capacity he was one of the foremost of the Cæsars. Yet his



COIN OF ANTONINUS PIUS.

reign was one of misfortune. His wife, Faustina, the daughter of Antoninus, was noted for her dissoluteness, and his eldest son and daughter died during their childhood. He associated Lucius Verus with him in the empire, and the conduct of that unworthy prince caused him great grief and anxiety. Though he desired a peaceful reign, he was involved in war during the whole of his rule. The Parthians renewed the war for the possession of Armenia in A. D. 161, the year of his accession. It continued for five years, the Parthians being at first successful; but they were at length driven from Armenia, and the Parthian territory was invaded by the Roman commanders. Peace was made at the prayer of the Parthians in A. D. 166, and Mesopotamia was ceded to Rome, and Armenia restored to its former position of semi-independence. Thus the Roman boundary was advanced to the Tigris. In A. D. 167, the barbarians north of the Danube, pressed upon by the advancing wave of a great Scythic migration, were forced across that river into the Roman territory. Both emperors took the field against them, and drove them back at first. The next year Verus died, and freed Aurelius from one of his troubles. From this time until the period of his death, in A. D. 180, Aurelius was constantly engaged in efforts to beat back the barbarians and secure the frontier

against their incursions. He was successful in many battles, but he did not succeed in effectually repelling the northern nations, and crippling them to an extent which would compel them to cease their attacks. That was a task beyond his power. The pressure of these nations upon the Danubian tribes was so great that they could not remain within their own limits, and Rome had entered too surely upon her decline to accomplish an undertaking which would have been a serious one in the days of her early vigor.

Though so admirable in other respects, Aurelius was one of the severest persecutors of the Christians. From his youth he had been a devoted follower of the doctrines of the Stoic philosophy, and it is possible that he was influenced in his treatment of the Christians by the advice of the harsh and arrogant members of that sect who surrounded him. During his reign Justyn Martyr suffered martyrdom at Rome, Polycarp at Smyrna, and at Lyons and Vienna large numbers of Christians sealed their faith with their blood. "But," as an eminent divine well says, "the persecution of a sect so small and so obscure as the Christian was at that time, is scarcely perceptible as a diminution of the sum of human happiness secured to the world by the gentleness and equity which regulated all his actions." Aurelius died in Pannonia in A. D. 180.

Commodus, the second son of Aurelius, had been associated with his father in the government at the age of fifteen. Aurelius was tenderly attached to him, and allowed his affection to outweigh his judgment in this selection of a suc-
cessor. At the death of Aurelius, Commodus became sole emperor. He was but eighteen years of age, and was but a weak and self-indulgent boy, easily influenced by his favorites. His first act was to buy a disgraceful peace of the Marcomanni and Quadi, after which he went back to Rome. For three years he reigned well, following the system marked out by his father, but at the end of this



THE EMPEROR COMMODUS.

time the natural ferocity of his nature was aroused by the discovery of a plot to murder him, A. D. 183. Many of the senators were implicated in the conspiracy. Commodus, fearful of another similar attempt, plunged into the most reckless cruelties. All persons who were unfortunate enough to gain his hostility were put to death. Delation was revived in its worst form, and the property of the victims went to enrich the imperial treasury. Justice was bought and sold. The emperor, caring nothing for the administration of the public affairs, gave himself up to the lowest pleasures. Vain of his physical strength, he called himself "the Roman Hercules," and exhibited himself in the amphitheatre in contests with weak opponents, whom he slew without mercy. At length, after a reign of twelve years and nine months, he was strangled in his bed-room by one of his mistresses and two of his officers, whom he had marked for death, A. D. 192.

Under Commodus the decline of the empire, which had begun as early as the reign of Galba, and had only been arrested by the five good emperors, proceeded with frightful rapidity. The discipline of the army was almost entirely destroyed. The troops deserted their standards by hundreds, and either united with the provincials and settled down into an agricultural life, or organized themselves into banditti and plundered the country without restraint. "Meanwhile, population was declining, and production consequently diminishing, while luxury and extravagance continued to prevail among the upper classes, and to exhaust the resources of the state. Above all, the general morality was continually becoming worse and worse. Despite a few bright examples in high places, the tone of society grew everywhere more and more corrupt. Purity of life, except among the despised Christians, was almost unknown. Patriotism had ceased to exist, and was not yet replaced by loyalty. Decline and decrepitude showed themselves in almost every portion of the body politic, and a general despondency, the result of a consciousness of debility, pervaded all classes. Nevertheless, under all this apparent weakness was an extraordinary reserve of strength. The empire, which under Commodus seemed to be tottering to its fall, still stood, and resisted the most terrible attacks from without for the further space of two full centuries."

The assassins of Commodus hastened to the house of Pertinax, the præfect of the city, and informing him of their bloody deed, offered him the crown. He was an old man, of unblemished character, and was one of the few remaining friends of Marcus Aurelius. Very naturally he shrank from accepting the dangerous honor offered him, but his scruples were at length overcome. The prætorians, yielding to the entreaties of their commander, who was one of the murderers of Commodus, sullenly accepted him; but the senate, overjoyed at the elevation of one of their own order, hailed him with outspoken pleasure. The treasury was empty, and the economy which Pertinax endeavored to introduce into the administration of the government aroused the hostility of the avaricious prætorians, and of the citizens who clamored



THE EMPEROR SEVERUS.

for shows, and the prætorians rose in open mutiny against the emperor and murdered him on the 28th of March, A. D. 193, after a reign of less than three months.

The prætorians now put the imperial dignity up at auction, and sold it to Didius Julianus, a wealthy senator, for more than fifteen millions of dollars. The senate, afraid to oppose the will of these troops, acknowledged Julianus, and he reigned for about two months at Rome, but his authority was never acknowledged in the provinces. In Britain, Pannonia, and Syria, the armies, disgusted at the conduct of the prætorians, set up their respective leaders—Albinus, Severus, and Niger—as emperors. Of these Severus was not only the most energetic, but he was the nearest to Rome. He at once passed the Alps and marched upon Rome. His emissaries won over the

prætorians, after which the senate did not dare to resist him. Didius Julianus was seized and put to death, and Severus entered Rome.

The first act of Severus, after obtaining possession of the capital, was to break the power of the prætorians. He caused them to be disarmed and banished them to a distance of 100 miles from Rome. He then turned upon his rivals. He pacified Albinus, who was still in Britain, by promising to declare him his successor, and then marched against Niger, whom he defeated in two decisive battles at Cyzicus and Issus, in Asia, and captured him and put him to death. He then broke openly with Albinus, who invaded Gaul, but was defeated and slain near Lyons. Severus was now sole emperor, and he soon taught his subjects that in him they had found a master. He was stern and cruel in character, and signaled his success by putting to death forty-one senators and a number of rich provincials, whose only crime was that they had supported his rivals. Under Severus the empire became a military despotism, and the senate was not only shorn of its powers, but openly insulted. The prætorian guard was replaced by a body of 40,000 picked troops, which formed the garrison of Rome and acted as the body-guard of the emperor. The chief of this force—the prætorian prefect—became the second person in the empire. He not only commanded the garrison of the city, but was intrusted with the control of the finances, and with certain legislative and judicial powers. He thus became a not insignificant rival of the sovereign himself.

Severus was an able general and he undertook to improve the discipline of the army, but without much success. In A. D. 197 he became engaged in a war with Parthia, which was brought to a successful close the next year by the capture of Ctesiphon, the Parthian capital. Adiabêné was conquered and made a dependency of the empire.

In A. D. 208 the troubles in the island of Great Britain became so great as to require the presence of the emperor. He drove back and punished the Caledonians who were pressing southward, and advanced the Roman border in this quarter. He was accompanied in this expedition by his son Caracalla, who here gave a striking instance of the ferocity of his disposition. He attempted to murder his father in open day,

and was stealing upon the old man when a cry from the troops caused Severus to turn suddenly. As his stern gaze fell upon Caracalla the weapon dropped from the hand of the would-be parricide. To the amazement of the spectators the emperor forgave his son, but put all whom he named as his accomplices to death with cruel sufferings. The last years of Severus were troubled by the hatred which his two sons, Caracalla and Geta, bore each other, and which was scarcely restrained by their common dependence upon him. In order that neither might be left at the mercy of the other, he named both as his successors, and is said to have given them this parting advice: "Be generous to the soldiers and trample on all beside." He died at York in A. D. 211, at the age of sixty-five, after a reign of eighteen years.

Severus was succeeded by his sons Caracalla and Geta. They reigned together for a year, hating and suspecting each other most bitterly. At the end of that time an attempt was made to settle their quarrel by a division of the empire. This failing, Caracalla murdered his brother in the arms of their mother, A. D. 212, and became sole emperor. He was a cruel monster, and his conduct can be explained only upon the supposition that he was mad. To drown the reproaches of his conscience, Caracalla undertook to remove from the world all that could remind him of his murdered brother. Under the title of "friends of Geta," 20,000 persons, including a daughter of Marcus Aurelius, a son of Pertinax, a nephew of Commodus, and the great jurist Papinian, were put to death. Still the conscience of the emperor gave him no rest, and he left Rome and began a series of aimless wanderings through the provinces, in which the rest of his life was passed. He proved himself the common enemy of mankind. Wherever he went he grievously oppressed the people and marked his progress by his cruelties. In Alexandria, being angered at some trifling matter, he caused a general massacre of the citizens to be begun, in which many thousands lost their lives. There was scarcely a province of the empire into which he did not carry his atrocities. Knowing himself to be hated by his subjects, he sought to retain the favor of his troops by distributing among them large rewards and relaxing their discipline. Towards the close of his reign he undertook the conquest of Parthia.

Establishing his head-quarters at Edessa, in Mesopotamia, in A. D. 214, he crossed the Tigris, captured Arbela, and by A. D. 216 had driven the Parthians into their mountain fastnesses. He intended to continue the war the next year, but before the campaign could be opened he was murdered by Macrinus, the prætorian prefect, who was driven to this step to save his own life, A. D. 217.

The army, after some hesitation, proclaimed Macrinus emperor, and he was acknowledged by the senate. He began his reign by endeavoring to undo the evil acts of Caracalla, and being defeated by the Parthian monarch, he withdrew from the war and purchased a peace. His reforms in the administration of the government proved unacceptable to the army, which had grown accustomed to the reckless expenditures of Caracalla, and a plot was formed against him, which was fomented by Julia Mœsa, the sister of the mother of Caracalla, who persuaded one division of the army to accept as emperor her grandson Avitus, or Bassianus, whom she declared to be a son of Caracalla. A struggle ensued, which was decided by the cowardice of Macrinus, who abandoned the field while the battle was still doubtful. He was pursued by the forces of his rival, captured, and carried to Antioch, where he was put to death. His son Diadumenus, whom he had designated as his successor, shared the same fate, A. D. 218.

Bassianus, the newly proclaimed emperor, was a Syrian youth of fourteen years, and at the time of his elevation to the throne was high priest of the Syrian sun-god, Elagabalus, in the great temple at Emesa (Hems). He assumed his descent from Severus and Caracalla as an undoubted fact, and took the name of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus. He is more generally known as Elagabalus. His claims were submitted to by the Romans and were recognized by the senate. His brief reign of four years was the most disgraceful in Roman history, for the emperor himself was the most contemptible of mortals. He was addicted to the lowest forms of the most sensual vices, and, possessed of no talent of any description, cared for nothing but gluttony and debauchery. He painted his face, wore the dress of a woman, and paraded his vices openly before the gaze of the public. The grave ceremonies of the Roman religion were replaced with the in-

famous orgies of Syria. Becoming enamored of a vestal virgin, he tore her from her sacred seclusion and compelled her to become one of his wives. The extravagance of the emperor rapidly exhausted the resources of the empire. "His floors were spread with gold dust. His dresses, jewels, and golden ornaments were never worn twice, but went to his slaves and parasites. He created his grandmother a member of the senate, with rank next after the consuls, and established a rival senate, composed of ladies, presided over by his mother. Their jurisdiction was not very hurtful to the state, for it only extended to dresses and precedence of ranks, and the etiquette to be observed in visiting each other."

For four years the Romans submitted patiently to this contemptible creature. His grandmother, seeing that his own vices must soon destroy Elagabalus, persuaded him to adopt his cousin, Alexander Severus, as his successor. The virtues of this prince, which were in such marked contrast with the contemptible vices of the emperor, won him the favor of the prætorians, and also drew upon him the jealousy of the sovereign. Afraid to strike at Alexander openly, the emperor endeavored to remove him by assassination. The prætorians, seeing that the life of Alexander could be saved only by the death of the emperor, mutinied against Elagabalus, and slew him, A. D. 222.

CHAPTER VIII.

FROM THE REIGN OF ALEXANDER SEVERUS TO THE FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE.

Alexander Severus Made Emperor—His Good Reign—Fall of Parthia and Rise of the Modern Kingdom of Persia—Wars between Rome and Persia—The Germans in Gaul—Maximin Emperor—His Cruelties—Gordian Emperor—Reigns of Philip and Decius—Gallus and Æmilian—Valerian Emperor—Wars with the Barbarians—The Persian War—Valerian Defeated and Made Prisoner—Gallienus—The Kingdom of Palmyra—Claudius—Aurelian Emperor—His Vigorous Reign—Captures Palmyra—Zenobia—Murder of Aurelian—Tacitus Emperor—Reigns of Florian and Carus—Diocletian Emperor—His Vigorous Measures—Destroys the Power of the Legions—Divides the Imperial Authority—A Great Change—Carausius and Constantius—Maximian Africa—Diocletian Subdues the Egyptian Revolt—War with Persia—Persecution of the Christians—Diocletian Retires from the Throne—Constantine the Great—He Establishes his Authority Over the Whole Empire—Makes Christianity the Religion of the Empire—The Council of Nicæa—Founds

Constantinople—Reorganization of the Empire—His Wars with the Barbarians—Constans—Constantius—His War with Persia—Julian the Apostate—Failure of his Effort to Destroy Christianity—His Death—Jovian Emperor—Valentinian—Events of his Reign—Valens—Movements of the Barbarian Tribes—Gratian and Valentinian II.—Theodosius the Great—He Suppresses Paganism—The Emperor and St. Ambrose—The Empire Divided—Revolt of the Goths—The Goths in Italy—Defeated by Stilicho—Gladiatorial Combats Forbidden—The Vandals Invade Italy—They Settle in Western Europe—New Invasion of the Goths—Alaric Captures Rome—Plunders it—Death of Alaric—The Goths in Spain—Reign of Valentinian III.—The Huns in Italy—Attila—Battle of Chalons—Defeat of the Huns—The Vandals Plunder Rome—Ricimer—The Mock Emperors—Rapid Decline of the Western Empire—Augustulus Emperor—Fall of the Western Empire—Establishment of the Kingdom of Italy—Establishment of the Teutonic Nations at the Fall of the Empire.

ALXANDER SEVERUS was a different man from his cousin. He was the son of Mammæa, the younger daughter of Mæsa, and had been carefully educated by his mother. He was a prince of pure and blameless morals, but he did not possess sufficient energy of character to stem the tide of corruption that was sweeping the empire to its doom. During his whole reign he shrank from the task of ruling his dominions, and submitted himself to the direction of his mother. The tendency of this reign was for good. The example of the young emperor was excellent, and the influence of his mother was elevating, but neither were sufficiently strong to carry out the reforms which they attempted. Still this period forms a pleasing contrast with that which immediately preceded it. The wisest and most virtuous men were advanced to the posts of honor and trust; the senate was treated with a respect and consideration which it did not deserve; and an honest effort was made to administer the government upon principles of purity and economy.

In the meantime a great change had taken place in the eastern world. The Parthian empire had been destroyed, and the modern kingdom of Persia had been founded by Artaxerxes. This monarch aimed at regaining all the dominions of Darius I., and demanded of Alexander the instant evacuation of all the Roman possessions in Asia. The emperor replied by leading his army across the Euphrates in A. D. 231. In the brief war which followed Alexander claimed to be entirely successful, but it would seem that he was barely

able to hold his eastern dominions. The Persian king on his part was so crippled by the contest that he was unable to attempt the expulsion of the Romans from Asia, and peace was made in A. D. 232.

A new danger now arose on the Rhine. The German tribes, about A. D. 234, passed that stream and invaded Gaul. Alexander hastened to meet them, but before he could begin operations against them, he was slain, together with his mother, by his mutinous troops, A. D. 235.

Maximin, the leader of the mutiny, was proclaimed emperor by the troops. He had risen from the station of a Thracian peasant to the command of a legion, and though possessed of courage and military ability, was in other respects an illiterate, coarse, and brutal ruffian. He was guided during the first three years of his reign by no policy but that of hatred of the nobles and covetousness toward the rich. His extortions at last drove the people of Africa into rebellion, and in A. D. 238 they rose against him, and crowned their proconsul Gordian and his son emperors. The senate, with an almost incredible boldness, ratified the choice. Maximin was at this time in winter quarters on the Danube, and he at once marched upon Rome, hoping to crush his rivals by his promptness. The two Gordians were defeated and slain in Africa within a month after their rebellion, but the senate, with unusual vigor, supplied their places with two of their own body, Pupienus and Balbinus. The new emperors, unable to meet Maximin in the field, laid waste the open country and garrisoned the towns, hoping by this plan to weary out their rival. Detained by the resistance of Aquileia, Maximin began to vent his anger upon his own troops, who rose against him and killed him, together with his son, in May, A. D. 238.

The murder of Maximin, so far from settling the quarrel, simply changed its character. It now became a struggle between the senate and the legions for the right to name the emperor. The latter settled the matter by murdering Pupienus and Balbinus within six weeks of the death of Maximin, and elevating to the purple the younger Gordian, the grandson and nephew of the princes of that name who had headed the African revolt.

Gordian was a mere tool of his ministers, being only twelve years of age. He fell at length under the influence of Timesitheus,

the prætorian prefect, an able officer, who married him to his daughter. During the life of Timesitheus the authority of the empire was vigorously maintained, the eastern frontier was held successfully against the attacks of the Persians, and an insurrection in Africa was quelled. On his return from the Persian war, Timesitheus was assassinated by Philip "the Arabian," who succeeded to the command of the guard. He procured the death of Gordian at the hands of his troops, and was made emperor in his place, A. D. 244.

Philip was a native of Bostra in Arabia. He began his reign by concluding a peace with Persia. The next year he defeated the Carpi on the middle Danube, and in A. D. 248 celebrated the "Secular Games" with great magnificence, in honor of the one thousandth anniversary of the founding of Rome. The Syrians, discontented with the rule of Philip, set up a mock emperor named Jotapianus, while the legions in Mœsia and Pannonia proclaimed Marinus. Both of these leaders lost their lives speedily, but the mutiny of the army continuing, Philip sent a senator named Decius to bring the troops to obedience. The soldiers, believing that in spite of his promises Philip would never forgive their conduct, compelled Decius to assume the purple by the threat of death in case of his refusal. The rebels then marched into Italy, defeated and slew Philip at Verona, in A. D. 249, and Decius ascended the throne without opposition.

Decius, made emperor against his will, reigned but two years. During this brief period, he endeavored to restore the purity of religion and morals among the Romans, but without success. With the hope of accomplishing the latter object he instituted a severe persecution of the Christians. A general massacre of the followers of this religion took place in Alexandria, and the bishops of Antioch, Jerusalem, and Rome suffered martyrdom. In A. D. 250 the chief event of the reign occurred. The Goths, attracted by the riches of the empire, swept over the border in large force, ravaged Dacia and Mœsia, and invaded Thrace. Decius attempted to check their advance, but was defeated, and the next year attempted to retrieve his ill-fortune, but was beaten in a great battle in Mœsia, and slain, together with his son, whom he had associated in the empire.

The army now consented to allow the

senate to regulate the succession. That body nominated Gallus, one of the generals of Decius, and Hostilianus, the young son of Decius. Volusianus, the son of Decius, was also associated in the imperial dignity. Gallus was really the emperor, his age and experience placing him far above his colleagues. His first act was to purchase a peace from the Goths by the payment of an annual tribute on condition of their abstaining from invading the Roman dominions. This act cost him his popularity at Rome, and the discontent thus aroused was increased by the calamities which now came crowding thick and fast upon the empire. A destructive pestilence raged in Rome, and spread over nearly the whole of the Roman dominions. Hostilianus was among the victims. A fresh invasion of the barbarians scourged the provinces south of the



THE EMPEROR GALLIENUS.

Danube. Æmilianus, the governor of Pannonia and Mœsia, having repelled this invasion, was proclaimed emperor by his troops. He at once advanced upon Rome. Gallus and his son took the field against him, but were murdered by their own troops, and Æmilian was at once acknowledged by the senate, A. D. 253.

Æmilian's elevation to the purple was contested by Valerian, who was acknowledged to be the best and most competent man of the time. He had been sent by Gallus to bring the legions of Gaul and Germany to his assistance. Arriving too late to save Gallus, he turned his arms against Æmilian, and defeated him after a reign of three months. The emperor perished in the conflict.

Valerian was promptly acknowledged by the senate and people. He was sixty years of age, and was too old to grapple with the

dangers which now burst upon his country, consequently his reign was one of disaster. The barbarians had lost their fear of the Roman name, and now made the rapidly-declining empire painfully conscious of their power. The Franks from the lower Rhine, and the Alemanni from southern Germany, ravaged Gaul, Italy, and Spain, and even crossed the straits of Gibraltar and extended their depredations to Africa. The fleets of the Goths, constructed in the forests of the Black Sea, spread terror along the coasts of Asia Minor and Greece. Numerous cities, among which were Cyzicus, Chalcedon, and Ephesus, were captured by them and given to the flames. Corinth and Athens were also taken by them. In the East, Persia, under its new monarchs, the Sassanidæ, advanced its territory steadily to the northwest at the expense of the Roman empire. Sapor, the second king of the dynasty, conquered Armenia, and invaded Mesopotamia. Valerian took the field against him, but was defeated near Edessa and made a prisoner, A. D. 260. Sapor refused all offers of ransom for his illustrious captive, and kept him loaded with chains, but clad in the purple, a constant prisoner at his court—a spectacle never before witnessed in the world's history.

In A. D. 254 Valerian had associated his son Gallienus in the empire, and upon his father's capture, Gallienus became sole emperor. During his sole reign of eight years the disasters which have been enumerated continued without cessation. The emperor, says Gibbon, "was a master of several curious but useless sciences, a ready orator, an elegant poet, a skilful gardener, an excellent cook, and a most contemptible prince." He could do little more than attempt the defence of Italy against the pretenders who sprang up in various parts of the empire, and who are usually called "The Thirty Tyrants." They had for the most part brief and inglorious reigns, and their kingdoms usually perished with them. There were two important exceptions to this rule. A monarchy was established in Gaul by Posthumus, which lasted for seventeen years under four successive princes. In the East, Odenathus established an independent kingdom at Palmyra, in A. D. 264, and extended his rule over Syria and the adjacent countries. He was murdered in A. D. 267, and was succeeded by his widow Zenobia. Gallienus found it impossible to contend

against the dangers which menaced him, and fortunately for the empire was slain near Milan by his own troops, in A. D. 268.

The troops conferred the imperial dignity upon Claudius, one of their generals, whose wisdom and firmness arrested for a while the work of destruction which was going on in the empire. He conquered the Alemanni and drove them out of Italy, in A. D. 268, and vanquished the Goths in Mæsia in the next year. He died in A. D. 270, at Sirmium, after a short but glorious reign of two years, in which he succeeded in ridding the empire of the worst of its dangers, and giving it a new lease of life. On his death-bed he recommended as his successor, Aurelian, one of his generals, whom he considered most competent to the task of completing the work he himself had begun.

Aurelian, like his predecessor, was a soldier of fortune. He was of humble origin but was in every way worthy of the high station to which he had risen. His reign lasted only about four years and nine months, but was one of the most brilliant in the history of Rome. He put an end to the Gothic war by routing their army in Pannonia in A. D. 270, and chased the Germans out of Italy. He revived the rigid discipline of the army, and thus rendered it capable of the successes which it won. It was his policy to reunite the scattered fragments of the empire, and he made war for this purpose on the kingdom of Palmyra, which was ruled by Zenobia as regent for her son, A. D. 272. The next year he brought the war to a close by the capture of Palmyra, and the overthrow of the kingdom. Zenobia was made a prisoner, and Palmyra was treated with leniency. It revolted as soon as Aurelian had returned to Europe, but was subdued and destroyed. Zenobia was transferred to Italy, where she passed a more useful, if a less brilliant, life as a Roman matron. In the west Tetricus had enlarged the kingdom of Posthumus by the addition of Spain and Britain. Aurelian now turned against this kingdom, and in A. D. 274 succeeded in reducing it to his authority. Previous to these wars Aurelian, in order to secure the capital against a sudden attack of the barbarians, who had shown that they could enter Italy at pleasure, fortified Rome with a new wall which enclosed the suburbs that had sprung up beyond the wall of Servius Tullius. He

relinquished to the Goths and Vandals the outlying province of Dacia, which, since Trajan added it to the empire, had been more of a burden than a profit. The Roman inhabitants were removed south of the Danube. Having destroyed the kingdom of Tetricus, Aurelian was about to proceed to the East to make war upon the Persians, when he was assassinated by several of his officers, who had been instigated to the crime by his private secretary, A. D. 275.

The army was indignant at the murder of Aurelian, and the troops, refusing to allow any of their officers to assume the purple, applied to the senate to appoint a new emperor, and waited patiently for six months for the response of that body to their appeal. At length the senate named M. Claudius Tacitus, a senator of great wealth and pure character, but a man too far advanced in life for the dignity. Tacitus endeavored to decline the honor, pleading his age and infirmities, but the senate would not listen, and he assumed the purple. He reigned for six or seven months, during which his acts were directed to the revival of the reign of morality and law which had marked the earlier republic. Being called away to the East by the disaffection of the army in that quarter, he sank under the fatigues of the journey, and died in A. D. 276.

Florian, the brother of Tacitus, assumed the imperial dignity upon the receipt at Rome of the news of the death of the emperor, and the eastern army invested their general, M. Aurelius Probus, with the purple. A civil war now seemed imminent, but it was averted by the refusal of Florian's troops to fight their comrades. Three months later he was assassinated by them, and Probus was left sole emperor. He was an able general and a prudent and vigorous monarch, sincerely devoted to the welfare of his subjects, which he believed he could accomplish as well by the arts of peace as by conquest. He drove the Germans from the region of the Neckar and the Elbe; subdued the Sarmatians; and compelled the Goths to sue for peace. He made his power so dreaded in the East that Egypt

submitted, and the Persians sought his alliance. He endeavored to secure the frontier of the empire by settling it with colonies of barbarians, who, becoming civilized, served as a defence against their less civilized brethren. He also attempted to drain the marshy lands, and to improve the agricultural system. In the pursuit of this latter object, he employed his troops in agricultural labors, which so disgusted them that they rose against him and murdered him, A. D. 282.

Carus, the prætorian prefect, was made emperor by the troops. He proclaimed his two sons, Carinus and Numerianus, "Cæsars," and associated the former in the empire. Leaving Carinus to govern the



THE WALLS OF ROME—THE OSTIAN GATE.

West, Carus departed for the East, taking with him his younger son. He passed into Illyricum, where he defeated the Sarmatians, and then invaded the Persian dominions. He quickly subdued Mesopotamia, and captured the cities of Selencia and Ctesiphon, the old Parthian capital. He crossed the Tigris, and seemed on the point of destroying the Persian kingdom, when he died, from disease according to some writers, from a stroke of lightning according to others, A. D. 283. The superstitious fears of the Roman troops were aroused by the sudden death of the emperor, and they obliged Numerianus to retreat within the limits of the Roman dominions. On the march he was assassinated by his father-in-law, who hoped to seize the throne, but the legions upon the

discovery of the crime invested Diocletian, the commander of the body-guard, with the purple. He slew the murderer of Numerian with his own hand, and marched westward. Carinus, in the meanwhile, was disgusting the western world by his profligacy. Hearing of the advance of Diocletian, he put himself at the head of a large army and marched to meet him. A battle was fought in Mœsia. The army of Diocletian was defeated, but Carinus was slain in the moment of victory by a tribune whom he had grievously wronged, and his troops acknowledged Diocletian as emperor, A. D. 285.

The accession of Diocletian marks a new period in the history of the empire. Until now, since the death of Commodus, the authority of the emperor had been ham-



GREEK AND ROMAN CUIRASSES.

pered by the insolence of the legions, who claimed the right to set up and pull down the sovereign at will, and by the powers legally appertaining to the senate. Thus the army had inaugurated a tyranny which was unendurable, and which would have destroyed the Roman state long before had not the danger with which the barbarians constantly threatened it, made the troops willing to submit to some form of discipline. Under Diocletian's vigorous rule a change was made. The authority of the government was strengthened, and the army was taught its true position as the servant of the state. The reforms begun by Diocletian were not completed until the reign of Constantine. Though they resulted in the strengthening of the authority of the sovereign, and gave a new vigor for the time to

the state, they tended very greatly to the division of the empire, which was already a question of time.

Having secured his authority, Diocletian, in A. D. 286, began the first of the measures by which he hoped to counteract the existing evils. He associated with him in the empire one of his generals named Maximian, who had risen from the ranks, and who was little more than a good general. The two emperors took each the title of Augustus. In A. D. 292 Diocletian appointed two "Cæsars," who were to stand in the relation of sons and successors to the Augusti. Galerius was chosen by Diocletian, and Constantius by Maximian. They were younger than their patrons, and were able generals. Accepting the dignity conferred upon them, they repudiated their own wives and married respectively the daughter and the stepdaughter of their patrons. Diocletian now went a step further, and divided the empire between the four sovereigns. He reserved to Maximian and himself the more settled provinces, and bestowed upon the Cæsars those which required the presence of younger and more active men. He assigned to Constantius the provinces of Gaul, Spain, and Britain, with the task of defending the lower Rhine against the Germans; to Galerius the Danubian provinces, Noricum, Pannonia, and Mœsia; and to Maximian Italy and Africa. For himself he retained Thrace, Macedon, Egypt, and the East. It was understood, as the basis of this settlement, that the unity of the empire was to be preserved. The Cæsars were to regard the Augusti as their superiors, and Maximian was to be guided by the influence of Augustus. This very complex arrangement worked well during the lifetime of Diocletian, whose influence was sufficient to maintain harmony in the government.

The results of the new system were marked. "Power passed away from the hands of the soldiers, and tended to become dynastic; the principle of association, adopted on a wide scale, gave stability to the government; the helm of the state was grasped by firm hands, and various new arrangements were made, all favorable to absolutism. Such restraint as the senate had up to this time exercised on the despotic authority of the emperors—a restraint slightest, no doubt, in cases where it was most needed, yet still in the worst case not wholly nugatory—was completely removed

by the departure of the court from Rome, and the erection of other cities—Nicomedia, Milan, Constantinople—into seats of government. When Rome was no longer the capital, the Roman senate became a mere municipal body, directing the affairs of a single provincial town; and as its lost privileges were not transferred to another assembly, the emperor remained the sole source of law, the sole fountain of honor, the one and only principle of authority." To guard against the interference of the praetorians, who from their fortified camp at Rome had for so long been able to dictate terms to the sovereign, Diocletian reduced their numbers, intending to suppress them at length—a task finally performed by Constantine. "Above all, the multiplication of emperors and the care taken to secure the throne against such an occurrence as a vacancy, . . . placed the imperial authority almost beyond the risk of danger from military violence."

In A. D. 286 a revolt broke out in Britain. Carausius, a naval chief, being intrusted with a large fleet for the defence of the coasts of Britain and Gaul, rebelled against the emperor, and having won over the troops in Britain, seized that island and set up an independent kingdom. He increased his navy by building new ships, and made himself master of the western seas. Diocletian and Maximian made energetic but fruitless attempts to reduce him to submission, but were at length compelled to accept him as their colleague in the empire, with the title of Augustus, A. D. 287. Constantius being made Caesar, and assigned the western provinces, made war upon Carausius in A. D. 292. He took Boulogne after a long siege, and prepared to invade Britain, when Carausius was slain by his chief officer Allectus, A. D. 293. In A. D. 296 Constantius landed in Britain, defeated Allectus, and restored the Roman authority over the island. The next year he drove the Germans out of Gaul. He settled his prisoners in colonies on the lands which they had laid waste. A revolt having broken out in Africa, Maximian proceeded to that province and restored order. About the same time Alexandria was taken by storm by Diocletian, and a rival emperor who had held it against him was put to death. The inhabitants were punished by a massacre in which several thousand were killed. Galerius for many years was occupied in defending the Danubian frontier,

which he did with credit. In A. D. 297 he passed over to the East and invaded Persia. He was at first defeated with heavy loss, but at length collecting a new army, he defeated the Persian King Narses so signally that he was forced to make peace on terms advantageous to the Romans, A. D. 298.

The evils of the system of Diocletian began to manifest themselves towards the close of his reign. The establishment of four imperial courts instead of one, and the consequent multiplication of officials and of armies, necessarily increased the rate of taxation, already very heavy. The provinces were almost crushed beneath the weight of the imposts laid upon them, and the taxes were wrung from the people with the greatest difficulty. It was generally necessary to employ violence, and sometimes torture, for this purpose. Consequently industry sank beneath this system which deprived it of all its earnings; production diminished steadily, and the prices of all commodities rose. Diocletian endeavored in A. D. 301 to check this evil by fixing by a decree the maximum price for all the necessities and many of the luxuries of life. As a matter of course, this violent interference with the natural laws of trade defeated its object. It simply made worse the evils it sought to remedy.

Towards the close of his reign, Diocletian, alarmed by the rapid spread of Christianity, which had been embraced by fully one-half of his subjects, determined to strike a blow at it which he believed would destroy it. In A. D. 303 he issued an edict requiring uniformity of worship throughout the empire. The Christians were noted as the most orderly, industrious, and faithful subjects of the emperor. Their refusal to comply with the order to deny their faith placed them beyond the pale of the law, and a war of extermination was waged against them. Thousands were slain in every province, their property was confiscated, and their churches destroyed. Only in the extreme West, under the authority of the more enlightened Constantius, were the Christians safe from the malice of their enemies. Yet so far from destroying them, the persecutions to which they were subjected proved a powerful agency for the spread of their faith, and their ranks were filled up with new converts as fast as thinned by the deaths of the martyrs.

In A. D. 305 Diocletian, weary of the

cares and trials of his high state, abdicated his throne, and compelled Maximian to do likewise. By this act, Galerius and Constantius became Augusti. Galerius immediately appointed Maximin and Severus Cæsars. The appointment gave great offence to the legions in Britain, who resented it as depriving their own leader, Constantius, of the choice of his successor. Upon his death, in A. D. 306, they proclaimed his son, Constantine, his successor. This infringement of the new order of affairs was condoned by Galerius from the lack of the power to resist it. He recognized Constantine as Cæsar, and advanced Severus to the rank of Augustus, thus preserving the organization of the imperial college. Constantine retained his father's dominions in the West; Severus had Italy and Africa; Maximin, Syria and Egypt; and Galerius retained for himself the whole region between Gaul and Syria, or about three-fourths of the empire.

The loss of the prestige and privileges of Rome by the division of the empire and the erection of new capitals, had given serious offence to the Italians. These discontents broke out in open rebellion in A. D. 307. The senate appointed Maxentius, the son of Maximian, emperor, and Maximian, joining his son, resumed the rank of Augustus, which he had laid aside at the command of Diocletian. Severus hastened to Rome, and attempted to quell the revolt, but was abandoned by his troops and forced to end his life by suicide. Maxentius and Maximian, having allied themselves with Constantine, were also able to defeat the large forces with which Galerius sought to reduce Italy, and to compel him to withdraw to the East. In A. D. 309 a compromise was arranged by which the empire was ruled by six emperors, Constantine, Maximian, and Maxentius in the West, and Galerius, Maximin, and Licinius, in the East. Licinius had been made Cæsar by Galerius upon the death of Severus.

This arrangement lasted only a few years. It was first disturbed by a quarrel between Maxentius and his father. Maximian was obliged to fly to the court of Constantine, who had married his daughter. He was well received at first, but at length, being detected in a plot to overthrow his son-in-law, was put to death in A. D. 310. The next year Galerius, who had proved as cruel a persecutor of the Christians as Diocletian himself, died at Nicomedia. The

Roman world was thus left in the hands of four emperors, Constantine in the West, Maxentius in Italy and Africa, Licinius in Illyricum and Thrace, and Maximin in Egypt and Asia. Maxentius alienated his subjects by his cruelties and extortions, and they appealed to Constantine to drive him from the throne and unite Italy and Africa to his own dominions. Constantine had proved himself an able general by his successful resistance of the Franks and Alemanni, whom he kept out of Gaul, and his generous protection of the Christians had won him the gratitude and affection of their brethren in all parts of the empire. He endeavored to avoid the war, but finding that Maxentius was preparing to invade Gaul, he anticipated him, and entered Italy at the head of 40,000 men, passing the Alps by way of Mont Cenis without resistance. The struggle was decided by the vigor and rapidity of Constantine's movements. He defeated his adversary in two battles—one near Verona and the other at the Colline Gate—and made himself master of Rome and Italy, Maxentius having been drowned in the Tiber during the last battle. Constantine promptly applied himself to the consolidation of his dominions. His first act was to disband the pratorian guard, which Maxentius had increased to 80,000 men. By thus scattering this force, he deprived the senate of the last shred of its dignity, and Rome of the power of resisting his will, A. D. 312.

The next year a war broke out in the East between Licinius and Maximin. The latter was defeated in a great battle near *Heracleia*, and shortly afterwards committed suicide, leaving Licinius sole master of the East. Not satisfied with this success, Licinius sought to drive Constantine from the West, and by his intrigues for this purpose provoked a war with his rival, in A. D. 314. Licinius was defeated, and obliged to cede Pannonia, Illyricum, Mœsia, Macedonia, and Greece to Constantine, A. D. 315. A peace of nearly seven years followed, which was broken by the ambition of Constantine, who was resolved to become master of the whole empire. Licinius was once more defeated, and, falling into the hands of the conqueror, was put to death, A. D. 322.

Constantine, who had well earned his title of "the Great," was now sole master of the reunited empire. He signalized his success by the most important event of his

reign—the establishment of Christianity as the religion of the state. In A. D. 313 he had issued a decree, known as the Edict of Milan, guaranteeing to the Christians equality with his other subjects and protection in all their rights. He declared subsequently to Eusebius, Bishop of Cæsarea, according to that writer, that in one of his marches in the campaign against Maxentius, he had seen with his own eyes the luminous trophy of the cross, placed above the meridian sun, inscribed with these words, “By this, Conquer.” This amazing object in the sky astonished the whole army as well as Constantine, who was yet undetermined in the choice of a religion. His astonishment was converted into faith by a vision which was vouchsafed to him the following night. “Christ appeared before his eyes; and displaying the same celestial sign of the cross, he directed Constantine to frame a similar standard, and to march, with an assurance of victory, against Maxentius, and all his enemies.” This story rests simply upon the authority of Eusebius, who claims to have received it from the lips of the emperor. The father of Constantine had always shown favor to the Christians, whose virtues he valued and honored, and the son had grown up to regard their doctrines with such favor that it is not surprising that he came at length to embrace them. He did not at once seek baptism, but openly proclaimed his adoption of the Christian doctrines, and in A. D. 324 took the decisive step of making Christianity in a certain sense the religion of the state, by advising all his subjects to imitate without delay the example of their sovereign, and to embrace the divine truth of Christianity. At the same time he allowed his pagan subjects to exercise their religion unmolested, but the example of the emperor, and the hope of gaining his favor, induced thousands to abandon paganism and accept the new faith. “As the lower ranks of society are governed by imitation, the conversion of those who possessed any eminence of birth, of power, or of riches, was soon followed by dependent multitudes. The powerful influence of Constantine was not circumscribed by the narrow limits of his life or of his dominions. The education which he bestowed on his sons and nephews secured to the empire a race of princes whose faith was still more lively and sincere, as they imbibed, in their earliest infancy, the spirit, or at least the doctrine of Christianity.

War and commerce had spread the knowledge of the gospel beyond the confines of the Roman provinces; and the barbarians, who had disdained an humble and proscribed sect, soon learned to esteem a religion which had been so lately embraced by the greatest monarch and the most civilized nation of the globe.” Constantine did not seek baptism until near the close of his life, but he presided over the first general council of the church, which was held at Nicæa in Bithynia, by his authority, in A. D. 325. He did not relinquish the claim, which the Roman sovereigns had always maintained, of the right to direct religious as well as secular matters. He treated the members of the council with every mark of reverence, but refused to allow the persecution of Arius and his followers, who were condemned by the council. He put a stop, however, to all the immoral rites of pagan-



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ism, and enacted severe laws against immoral practices, which paganism had suffered, if it had not sanctioned.

Under Constantine the final stroke was given to the ancient capital of the empire. Rome ceased to be the seat of government, which was removed to the new city built by the emperor on the ruins of the Greek Byzantium, and called in his honor, Constantinople. Constantine divided the empire into four *Prefectures*, namely, Gaul, which included Spain and Britain; Italy, which embraced also Africa, Rhetia, Pannonia, Noricum, and Dalmatia; Illyricum, in which were Dacia and Macedonia; and the East, which included Egypt, Thrace, and all the Roman dominions in Asia. Each of these prefectures was divided into *dioceses*, and each diocese into proconsular governments. This subdivision of the empire ne-

cessitated the creation of three grades of officials, who constituted the nobility of the realm. The old republican forms of government had long since disappeared, and Constantine made no effort to revive them. The court was organized upon a plan more akin to the forms of the Orient than of the West. Between the monarch and the people a vast number of officials intervened. The army was reorganized by increasing the number and reducing the strength of the legions. The standing army on duty on the frontiers numbered about 645,000 men, and as the Roman citizens had lost their taste for war, this force was composed mainly of barbarian mercenaries.

Crispus, the eldest son of Constantine, had been named Cæsar at the age of seven-teen. He was exceedingly popular with the people, and this popularity drew upon him the jealousy of his father, who suspected him of treasonable designs. His suspicion also embraced his nephew Licinius, and the two young men were brought to trial and put to death in A. D. 326. Whether they were guilty of actual treason, or were simply the victims of a causeless jealousy, it is now impossible to determine.

The last years of Constantine were harassed by the aggressions of the barbarians north of the Danube. The Goths attacked the Sarmatians, who begged aid of the Romans. Constantine took the field in person against the Goths, and gained a great victory over them. The Sarmatians were dissatisfied with the division of the spoils, and revenged themselves by making predatory incursions into the Roman territory. Constantine punished them by allowing the Goths to defeat them. This disaster was followed by a servile insurrection, which compelled the Sarmatians to quit their own territories and take refuge within the empire. The emperor assigned lands in Italy, Macedonia, Thrace, and Pannonia to some 300,000 of them, A. D. 334. In the hope of securing peace for the empire, Constantine now created his third son Constans and his nephew Dalmatius Cæsars, and another nephew Hannibalianus *Rex*. He divided the administration of the different portions of the empire between his three sons and these nephews, and died at Nicomedia on the 22d of May, A. D. 337, after a reign of nearly thirty-one years.

Immediately upon the death of Constantine, Constantius, his second son, seized the capital, and put to death all those whose

rank or abilities made them at all dangerous as rivals. Only two of his cousins, Gallus and Julian, escaped. The empire was then divided between the three sons of Constantine. Constantine II., the eldest, received the capital and Gaul, Spain and Britain; Constantius, Thrace and the East; and Constans, Italy, Africa, and Western Illyricum. Constantine, discontented with his share, endeavored to wrest the dominions of his brother Constans from him, but was defeated and slain near Aquileia. Constans added the provinces of Constantine to his own, and for ten years reigned over two-thirds of the dominions of his father (A. D. 340-350). At the end of this time he was overthrown by one of his generals named Magnentius, and slain. Constantius in the meantime had been engaged in a disastrous war with Persia. Upon the death of Tiridates, King of Armenia, a "friend of the Romans," who had established Christianity in his dominions, the Armenians revolted, and admitted the Persians into their country as friends and allies. The Romans were defeated in nine pitched battles by the Persians, who aimed at nothing less than the recovery of the five provinces beyond the Tigris ceded to Rome by Persia in the reign of Galerius. They were less successful in their siege operations, and the strong city of Nicibus withstood three memorable sieges and remained in the hands of the Romans. The Persian cavalry spread their ravages as far westward as the Mediterranean, and in one of their raids captured and plundered Antioch. About this time the eastern provinces of Persia were invaded by the Massagetæ, a Scythic tribe, and Sapor, the Persian king, concluded a truce with the Roman emperor, in order to give his attention to this new danger. This relief was equally grateful to Constantius, whose presence was needed in the West, where, in addition to Magnentius, Vetricio, the commander of the legions in Illyricum, had set himself up as emperor. Proceeding to the region of the Danube, Constantius, by his vigorous movements during the next three years, put down all opposition to his rule. He compelled Vetricio to abdicate his throne and retire into private life, A. D. 350. Then turning upon Magnentius he defeated him twice, at Mursa in Pannonia in A. D. 351, and at Mount Seleucus in Gaul, A. D. 353. After this last defeat Magnentius killed himself. Thus, sixteen years after the death of Constantine

the Great, his scattered dominions were united under the sole rule of his most capable son.

The eight years of the sole rule of Constantius were passed in a constant struggle. The war with Magnentius had greatly exhausted the military force of the empire, and the barbarians, having been encouraged in some instances by Constantius himself to violate the territory of his rivals, had ceased to respect the frontiers. At the same time Sapor, the Persian king, poured his troops into the province of Mesopotamia. The emperor met these troubles as well as might be, and though the provinces suffered repeatedly from hostile invasions, yet no part of the Roman territory was permanently occupied by the enemy. He defeated the Quadi and followed them into their own territory in A. D. 357; in A. D. 359 compelled the Sarmatians to receive a king devoted to his interests; and in A. D. 360 prevented the Persians from occupying the country they overran with their armies.

Having no relatives but his two cousins Gallus and Julian, Constantius in A. D. 350 drew the former from the retirement in which he had compelled him to live, conferred upon him the rank of "Cæsar," and assigned him the government of the East. Utterly unfit for such a position, Gallus shamefully abused his trust, and in A. D. 354 was recalled and put to death by order of the emperor. The next year Julian, the half-brother of Gallus, was recalled from Athens, where he had been engaged in the study of philosophy, made "Cæsar," and intrusted with the government of Gaul. This was done at the instance of the Empress Eusebia, but the emperor was from the first distrustful of Julian, and treated him with harshness. Julian proved himself in every way suited to the important trust assigned him. He was a ruler of genuine ability and almost irreproachable morals. He defeated the Alemanui and Franks in a number of battles within three years after his entrance upon his government, and drove them from their conquests in Gaul to the right bank of the Rhine. He then made three invasions of their country, ravaged Germany far and wide, released 20,000 captive Romans, and returned to Gaul laden with booty. He rebuilt the Gallic cities which the barbarians had destroyed, made Paris his winter residence, and adorned it with a palace, a theatre, and baths; and promoted agriculture,

manufactures and commerce. His success but increased the jealousy of the emperor, who recalled the troops, hoping to ruin Julian by leaving him without the force necessary to maintain his position. The legions refused to obey the imperial mandate, and proclaimed Julian their emperor, A. D. 360. Finding an arrangement with Constantius impossible, Julian marched eastward to decide the struggle with arms. The sudden death of Constantius in A. D. 361 prevented a civil war, and Julian was at once acknowledged with joy by the whole empire.

The first care of the new emperor was to retrench the luxury and extravagance of the court, and punish the officials of the previous reign who had been guilty of oppressing the people. He also dismissed the 10,000 spies, who had formed a portion of the government since the reign of Constantine the Great. He had not sought the purple, and his philosophic training made him care little for the outward ceremonies of his position. He styled himself simply the "Servant of the Republic," and maintained an admirable simplicity and frugality in his daily life. Yet, though so admirable in character, he stained his reign, and belied his philosophic principles by a petty and useless persecution of the Christians. A pagan from conviction, he was also incensed against his Christian cousins, who had murdered all his family, and he extended his hatred to their religion as well as to their persons. He openly renounced Christianity, and placing himself and his empire under the protection of the "Immortal Gods," made paganism once more the religion of the state. It was too late, however, to attempt to destroy Christianity. It had taken too deep a root in the soil of the empire, and the emperor could have won a partial success only by a civil war of the most revolting description; and had he been successful he would simply have imposed upon his people a morality less pure than that which he sought to destroy. With the hope of overturning the prophecies of Christ, and discrediting the Christians, Julian gave the Jews permission to return to Jerusalem and to rebuild their Temple. The Jews flocked from all parts of the world to their holy city, and engaged in the work with enthusiasm, but their efforts were thwarted by the sudden bursting forth of flames from the ruins of the Temple destroyed by Titus, which compelled them to abandon the

effort in despair. Though he endeavored to weaken and degrade the Christians by numerous disabilities which he imposed upon them, the emperor refused to go to the length advised by the pagan zealots who surrounded him, and finally proclaimed toleration to all forms of belief.

In the East the Persians were becoming more troublesome than ever, and in the spring of A. D. 363 Julian invaded Persia at the head of a large army. His intention was to destroy the Persian empire, but the forces at his command were inadequate to this task. He defeated the Persians near Ctesiphon, but was unable to advance farther. A series of disasters which now befell him compelled the emperor to retreat. This movement was accomplished in the face of the greatest dangers, the army having literally to fight its way back to Nisibis. In one of the numerous encounters of this march Julian was mortally wounded. He died the next day, A. D. 363, after a reign of about twenty months.

The army, thus left without a leader, elevated Jovian, the commander of the imperial body-guard, and a Christian, to the throne. He conducted the retreat with skill, and purchased the safety of the army by making peace with the Persians, by ceding to them the five provinces east of the Tigris. Upon his return to the capital of the empire he issued an edict re-establishing Christianity as the religion of the state, and proclaimed universal toleration. He died in February, A. D. 364, after a reign of eight months.

An interregnum of ten days followed the death of Jovian. At the end of this time the civil and military officers of the empire met at Nicæa, and proclaimed Valentinian emperor. He was a Christian, and a brave and skilful general, who had distinguished himself in the campaigns against Persia and the western barbarians. The army ratified the choice, but required the new emperor to associate a colleague in the government in order to secure the succession in case of his death. He conferred the purple on his younger brother Valens, and bestowed upon him the government of the East, from the lower Danube to the Persian border. The rest of the empire he reserved for himself, making Milan his capital, but removing his head-quarters, as occasion required, to Treves and Rheims. From these centres he ruled his dominions firmly, and in the main well. He inflicted sharp defeats upon

the Alemanni upon the Rhine, and the Quadi upon the Danube, and secured the lines of those rivers by the erection of a new system of forts. The Picts and Scots having passed the wall of Antoninus and committed great ravages in southern Britain, an expedition was sent against them under Theodosius, the father of the future emperor of that name, and they were driven back. A little later the same commander won a great naval victory among the Orkneys over the piratical Saxons, who were ravaging the western coasts of Europe. A revolt having broken out in Africa under Firmus, an able Moorish chief, Theodosius was sent to quell it, and accomplished this task with entire success, re-establishing the Roman authority over Numidia and Mauritania. As early as A. D. 367 Valentinian associated his son Gratian in the empire as his successor, but gave him no share in the government. Dying on the 17th of November, A. D. 375, he left him his crown.

During all this while Valens reigned in the East. Weaker in character than his brother, his reign was one of misfortune. In the year after his accession Procopius, a kinsman of the Emperor Julian, seized Constantinople, and held it for several months as emperor, A. D. 365. A war followed, which was terminated by the capture of Procopius and his execution in the camp of Valens. An unimportant campaign was conducted against Persia in A. D. 371. The great event of this reign, however, was the irruption of the Huns into Europe, by which the Goths were driven across the frontier into the Roman dominions. The Huns appear to have been a Turanian people from the steppes of northern or central Asia, and were a fiercer and more relentless foe than the Romans had yet encountered among the barbarian nations. They were probably either Mongols, Turks, or Oigurs. They had already given China so much trouble that the Great Wall had been erected on the Mongolian frontier to check their ravages. About A. D. 370, they moved to the westward, and entered Europe along the northern shore of the Black Sea, appearing first in the region between the Volga and the Don. Thence they passed on to attack the powerful Gothic kingdom of Hermanric, which stretched from the Danube and Euxine to the Baltic, comprising southwestern Russia, Poland, eastern Prussia, and extending over various cognate tribes, of which the two most important were

the Ostrogoths (or eastern Goths), and the Visigoths (or western Goths). The Goths were overcome and driven from their country by the Huns. The Visigoths, and somewhat later the Ostrogoths, sought and obtained leave to cross the Danube, and settle in Mæsia as subjects of the Roman emperor. A million of Visigoths alone are said to have crossed the river. As a matter of course the feeding of this immense multitude was a task of great difficulty, and the Roman commissioners charged with it seized the occasion to enrich themselves at the expense of their duty. The ill-treatment which they received changed the Goths from suppliants to enemies of Rome, and they marched in force upon Marcianople, defeated the Roman army, and ravaged Thrace with fire and sword. Valens took the field against them, and was defeated and slain with two-thirds of his army in a great battle near Adrianople, A. D. 378.

In the meantime Valentinian I. had been succeeded by his son Gratian, who associated in the government his infant brother, Valentinian II., then five years of age. Upon the death of Valens, Gratian selected for a colleague one of his ablest generals, named Theodosius, to whom he assigned the East, adding to it the province of Illyricum, A. D. 379. As for Gratian himself, his first years, which were passed under the influence of the instructors of his youth (he was but seventeen at the time of his accession to the throne), were full of promise, but when he came to manhood his naturally weak and indolent character asserted itself. He was devoted to hunting, and gave to this pastime the hours which should have been spent in the business of the state. The power of the government passed into the hands of unworthy favorites, who cruelly abused the confidence of the emperor. The army, neglected by the sovereign, came to despise him, and it was not long before rebellion raised its head. The British legions invested Maximus with the purple. He crossed over to Gaul, intending to contest the crown with Gratian, but the Gallic legions deserted to him, and Gratian, left alone, fled from Paris to Lyons, where he was captured and put to death, A. D. 383.

Maximus now entered into an agreement with Theodosius. The eastern emperor consented to acknowledge the imperial dignity of the usurper, who, on his part, consented to recognize the title of Valentinian

II., and to leave him in peaceful possession of his Italian provinces. In A. D. 387, however, Maximus broke his agreement, invaded Italy and drove Valentinian to take refuge with his uncle, Theodosius. That great sovereign, after some hesitation, embraced his nephew's cause, married his sister Galla, defeated Maximus in Pannonia, and restored Valentinian to his throne, A. D. 388.

Valentinian II. was now eighteen years old, and, like his brother Gratian, was weak and indolent. He allowed himself to fall under the influence of one of his officers, a Frank named Argobastes, who made him a mere puppet. Becoming painfully conscious of his true position, Valentinian attempted to remove his too powerful subject, but without success. Argobastes refused to submit to the orders of the emperor, and a few days later murdered his master, and set up a tool of his own, one Eugenius, as emperor, A. D. 392. Theodosius collected an army to avenge his nephew, and invaded the western provinces. He defeated Eugenius near Aquileia, and beheaded him, A. D. 394. Argobastes was forced to fly for his life, which he terminated soon afterwards by suicide.

During the reigns of Gratian, Maximus, Valentinian II. and Eugenius in the West, the East was ruled by the firm hand of Theodosius I., who justly deserves the title of "the Great." He began his reign in A. D. 379, and at once applied himself to the task of resisting the Visigoths, who had brought his portion of the empire to the brink of ruin. In the five years succeeding his accession to the throne his great military genius and remarkable qualities as a ruler enabled him not only to compel the submission of this dangerous race, but to convert them into useful subjects, and to employ their arms against the other enemies of his throne. Large colonies of Visigoths were settled in Thrace, and of Ostrogoths in Asia Minor, and 40,000 of their best warriors took service in the Roman army. It has been thought by some that Theodosius committed a great error in permitting these settlements, as the Goths were not yet sufficiently civilized to amalgamate with the other subjects of the state. The emperor, however, had simply a choice of evils. To have refused the Goths settlements would have driven them to despair, and "more was to be feared from their despair than even from their fickleness and turbulence." As

long as he lived, Theodosius proved himself perfectly competent to manage the barbarians, and had his successors possessed but a tithe of his genius, the Goths might have been made the chief strength of the empire instead of being permitted to become its chief danger.

Until this reign the practice of pagan rites had been tolerated by the emperors. Theodosius issued an edict positively prohibiting any and all of these ceremonies on pain of death, and shut up the heathen temples and confiscated their endowments. In Egypt the natives fondly believed that Serapis would signally avenge any profanation of his shrine, but when a Roman soldier entered the temple of that god at Alexandria, and struck the idol a blow in the face with his battle-axe, the eyes of the people were opened, and they came to the conclusion that a god who could not defend himself was not worthy of worship. Theodosius also enacted severe laws against the Arians and other heretical Christian sects, who had been condemned by the Councils of Nice (A. D. 325) and Constantinople (A. D. 381). They were compelled to surrender their churches and vacate their sees, and were forbidden to preach, to ordain ministers, or even to assemble for public worship, and all their property was transferred to the orthodox. The penalties attached to these laws were fines and exile. The code of Theodosius is hardly a fair test of his administration, as it is a notorious fact that the acts of the emperor were far more merciful than his laws.

The power of the church at this period is exhibited by the famous encounter between the emperor and St. Ambrose, the bishop of Milan. A tumult having arisen in the Circus of Thessalonica, during which a Gothic general and several officers lost their lives, the emperor punished it by an indiscriminate massacre of the Thessalonians, in which the innocent were slain with the guilty. The court was at this time residing at Milan. When the emperor repaired to church, he was met at the door by St. Ambrose, who refused to allow him to take part in any of the sacred services until he made a public confession of his guilt. After remaining under this interdiction for eight months, Theodosius acknowledged his crime in the presence of the congregation, in the garb of a penitent, and was received again into the communion of the church at Christmas, A. D. 390.

Theodosius did not long survive his victory over Eugenius and the reunion of the East and West under his sole rule. He died at Milan, January 17th, A. D. 395, after a reign of nearly sixteen years. He divided his dominions between his two sons. To Arcadius, the elder, he gave the East; and to Honorius, the younger, the West. The latter prince, who was only eleven years old, he committed to the guardianship of the Vandal general, Stilicho, who had married his niece.

The division of the empire between the sons of Theodosius marks the real separation of the East from the West. Hitherto the two portions of the empire had been held together by an idea, if nothing else, that they still formed one single state, and there had been some show of an interest common to both. From the death of Theodosius, however, this feeling was replaced with one of mutual jealousy and distrust. The breach thus opened between the two branches of the empire widened daily.

The real rulers of the empire were Rufinus, the Prefect of the East, and Stilicho, the guardian of Honorius. These leaders bore a mortal hatred to each other, which soon came to an open conflict, which was terminated by the assassination of Rufinus at the instigation of Stilicho, A. D. 395. Stilicho was now the most important person in the empire, and the object of the jealousy and dislike of Arcadius and his favorites.

Soon after the death of Theodosius the Great the Goths revolted from their allegiance to the empire. They were led by their famous chieftain Alaric, and in the summer of A. D. 395 invaded Macedonia, and in the course of this and the next year ravaged nearly the whole of Greece. Stilicho marched against Alaric and compelled him to retreat. The jealousy of Arcadius now prompted him to baffle Stilicho by making a treaty with Alaric, and creating him master-general of eastern Illyricum. Stilicho was commanded to withdraw from the dominions of Arcadius, and he obeyed. He passed the remainder of the century in crushing a revolt in Africa. In A. D. 398 he married his daughter Maria to his nephew, the young Emperor Honorius.

The appointment of Alaric to the master-generalship of Illyricum showed Stilicho that the western provinces of the empire were in danger from the ambition of that able and unscrupulous chieftain, and he was

convinced that the eastern emperor, in order to save his own dominions from the ravages of the barbarians, was secretly encouraging them to attack those of his brother. About the beginning of this century Alaric was elected King of the Vis-

igoths by his countrymen. Tempted by the beauty and wealth of Italy, he crossed the Alps in A. D. 402, and appeared under the walls of Milan before Stilicho could assemble an army of sufficient strength to meet him. Honorius took refuge in the impregnable fortress of Ravenna, and Stilicho hastily crossed the Alps in midwinter to collect an army in the western provinces. Such was his energy that he was back in Italy early in the spring of A. D. 403, at the head of a powerful army, with which he inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Goths in the neighborhood of Pollentia, about twenty-five miles from Turin, on the 29th of March. The Gothic infantry was almost totally destroyed, but Alaric, with a daring and resolution worthy of admiration, drew off his cavalry comparatively uninjured, and marched rapidly upon Rome, hoping to capture it by a *coup de main*. Stilicho followed him hard, and prevented the execution of this design, but wisely thinking moderation the better policy, offered the Gothic sovereign peace, a safe retreat, and a pension, upon condition of his withdrawal.

Alaric was obliged by the Gothic chieftains to accept these terms, and a treaty having been concluded, led back the remnant of his forces to Illyricum. The retreat of the barbarians was celebrated in Rome with great rejoicings. In



THE EMPEROR HONORIUS PUTS A STOP TO GLADIATORIAL COMBATS.

the midst of the games, Telemachus, a Christian monk, sprang into the arena, and raising the cross above his head, commanded the gladiators in the name of their crucified Lord to cease their inhuman sport. The enraged multitude stoned him to death, but a little later, overwhelmed with remorse for

the midst of the games, Telemachus, a Christian monk, sprang into the arena, and raising the cross above his head, commanded the gladiators in the name of their crucified Lord to cease their inhuman sport. The enraged multitude stoned him to death, but a little later, overwhelmed with remorse for

their crime, acknowledged him a martyr. Honorius took advantage of the occasion to prohibit human combats in the amphitheatre. The emperor now transferred the seat of government from Milan to Ravenna, which, situated in the midst of an impassable morass, crossed only by a causeway which could be destroyed at will, was impregnable. Ravenna continued to be the capital of Italy until the middle of the eighth century.

In A. D. 405 a new host of barbarians burst into Italy. The Vandals, a Slavonian race, from the plains of the Vistula, under the leadership of their chieftain Radagaisus, or Radegaste, moving southwestward, were joined on the march by the Suevi and Burgundians, who were Germans, and by the Alani, who were Scythians. They passed the Alps, the Po, and the Apennines without opposition, and ravaged with fire and sword the region between the Alps and the Arno, while Stilicho was exerting himself to collect an army to oppose them. Radegaste was simply a savage leader of barbarians, and his only object was to destroy. He had sworn a solemn oath to lay Rome in ashes, and to sacrifice the senators to his gods. Detained before Florence by the stubborn resistance of that city, he refrained from moving southward until he had reduced it. This delay gave Stilicho time to come up with the army he had collected. By his superior generalship he defeated the formidable host of the barbarians, slew Radegaste, and compelled the remnant of his army, about 100,000 strong, to withdraw from Italy. The barbarians passed into Gaul, in A. D. 406, and settled themselves in the region which was afterwards called Burgundy. They drove out the possessors of the soil, and ravaged the country with fire and sword before settling permanently upon it. This great movement marks the downfall of the Roman authority in this quarter, never to be re-established. In A. D. 407 Britain was lost to the empire by the revolt of the legions in that island, who set up and murdered two emperors of their own, and finally elevated to the throne one of their leaders named Constantine. In A. D. 408 and 409, Constantine extended his dominion over that portion of Gaul which had escaped the barbarians, and over Spain.

In A. D. 408 the empire suffered an irreparable loss in the death of its greatest general, Stilicho. Despising the weakness

of Honorius, Stilicho had conceived the design of removing him and bestowing the throne upon his own son Eucherius. Honorius was easily induced by the enemies of Stilicho to consent to his death, and he was seized and executed. His death deprived the empire of the only man who was capable of managing or contending with the barbarians. The folly of those who succeeded him in the confidence of the emperor soon precipitated the struggle he had sought to avert, and gave Alaric the pretext he had so long sought for war. Not content with this, they alienated the only army that was capable of contending with the Goths by a general massacre of the families of the foreign auxiliaries, who had been left in the Italian cities as hostages for the faithful service of these troops. The foreign troops swore vengeance upon the murderers of their wives and children, and invited Alaric to invade Italy, promising to join him in the attempt. The Gothic king was not slow to accept the invitation, and at once crossed the Alps, marched upon Rome, and closely invested the city. Reduced to extremities, and left to themselves by the emperor, the senate purchased the safety of the city, and induced Alaric to retire by the payment of an enormous ransom. The Gothic king then withdrew into Tuscany, where he intended to pass the winter. He also attempted to come to an arrangement with Honorius, but being grossly insulted in the course of the negotiation, he broke off the matter, marched upon Rome, and seizing the port of Ostia, where the grain for the use of the capital was stored, starved Rome into an unconditional surrender. Alaric made Attalus, the prefect of the city, Emperor of the West, in the place of Honorius, and was himself created by Attalus master-general of the Roman armies. Heraclian, the Count of Africa, by preventing the exportation of grain and oil to Rome, served the cause of Honorius well, and introduced famine and discontent into Rome. Attalus seeking to make himself independent of Alaric, was dethroned by him, A. D. 410. Alaric now sought again to come to terms with Honorius, but was a second time met with insult, and at once turned about and marched upon Rome, the gates of which were opened to him by night by the slaves, August 10th, A. D. 410. The city was given up for five days to murder and pillage, and during this period the 40,000 slaves which it con-

tained repaid in full the wrongs they had suffered at the hands of their masters. Rome was full of wealth and of rare and costly articles, such as gold, silver, jewels, silks, Grecian sculptures, and the choicest spoils of conquered countries. These were remorselessly seized and carried off by the Goths, and much that could not be removed was destroyed. Only the churches and their property were spared, for Alaric, who was himself a Christian, declared that he made war upon the Romans, not upon the apostles.

At length the Goths withdrew from Rome, and marching along the Appian way, overran southern Italy, contemplating the conquest of Sicily and Africa. A fleet was constructed for the passage of the Mediterranean, but was destroyed by a storm, and the expedition was suddenly terminated by the death of Alaric. The waters of the Busentius were diverted from their channel by the labor of the captive Romans, and in the vacant bed a sepulchre was constructed and adorned with the spoils and trophies of Rome. In this tomb the body of Alaric was laid, and the waters were turned back into their course. The prisoners engaged in the work were then inhumanly massacred lest they should reveal the secret of the tomb, A. D. 410.

Alaric was succeeded by his brother-in-law Adolphus, who, after ravaging southern Italy for two years, made peace with Honorius, married Placidia, the sister of the emperor, and retired into Gaul, from which he passed into Spain, which had been overrun by the Vandals in A. D. 409. He drove out this race and took possession of the country, founding the Visigothic monarchy as a dependency of the Western empire, A. D. 414. This state of dependency was continued for about four years, until the time of Theodoric I., A. D. 418, when the kingdom became entirely independent. The Vandals were driven by Adolphus into the southern part of Spain, which came to be known as *Vandalusia* or *Andalusia*.

Previous to this conquest, Constantine, the British pretender to the imperial throne, had been driven out of Spain and captured and put to death in Gaul by Constantius, one of the generals of Honorius. A little later Britain passed forever from under the Roman dominion.

Upon the death of Adolphus, Honorius bestowed his sister Placidia, the widow of the Gothic king, upon Constantius, and as-

sociated him in the empire. Constantius died after a reign of seven months, and Placidia, becoming involved in a quarrel with Honorius, fled to Constantinople and took refuge with her nephew Theodosius II., Emperor of the East. A few months later Honorius died, after a reign of twenty-eight years, during which he did nothing that was not contemptible, A. D. 423. The throne was usurped by John, the principal secretary of Honorius. Theodosius II. sent a fleet and army to dethrone the usurper and enforce the claims of his cousin Valentinian, the son of Placidia. This was easily accomplished, as John had no hold upon the people or troops of his empire. He was made prisoner, and was beheaded at Aquileia, A. D. 425.

Valentinian III. was but six years of age. During the next twenty-five years the empire was governed by his mother Placidia as regent. Committed at this critical period to the weak hands of a woman and a child the empire fared badly, as will be seen, and made rapid strides in its progress of disintegration. The military command was intrusted to Aëtius and Boniface, the latter of whom governed the province of Africa. Had they united their abilities they might have accomplished much for the state, but they were divided by the jealousy with which Aëtius regarded Boniface. Driven into rebellion by the intrigues of Aëtius, Boniface invited the Vandal King Genseric to cross from Spain into Africa to his assistance. Genseric promptly accepted the invitation, entered Africa with 50,000 men, and was at once joined by the Moors and the Donatists, who hailed him as a deliverer. He at once turned his arms against both Boniface and the Romans, defeated them, and made himself master of Africa, and by A. D. 439 succeeded in establishing a Vandal kingdom on the northern shore of the African continent, with Carthage for his capital.

The state of the Western empire was now sad indeed. Africa had been won by Genseric; Britain was irrevocably lost, and for forty years was without any government but that of the clergy, the nobles, and the magistrates of the towns; the provinces of Pannonia, Noricum, and Dalmatia had been ceded to the Eastern empire in return for the assistance rendered by Theodosius in overthrowing the usurper John; southwestern Gaul had passed into the hands of the Goths; the Burgundians had occupied

eastern Gaul; and the Franks were masters of northern Gaul. Of all Gaul, only a small tract in the south remained in possession of the empire, which, with this exception, was now limited to Italy, Vindelicia, and Rætia.

Between A. D. 435 and 450 Aëtius defended Roman Gaul with vigor against the Visigoths on the one side and the Franks on the other. In the latter year the Franks sought the assistance of Attila, King of the Huns. This powerful chieftain traced his descent from the ancient Huns who had formerly contended with the monarchs of China. "His features bore the stamp of his national origin; and the portrait of Attila exhibits the genuine deformity of a modern Calmuck; a large head, a swarthy complexion, small deep-seated eyes, a flat nose, a few hairs in the place of a beard, broad shoulders, and a short, square body of nervous strength, though of a disproportioned height. The haughty step and demeanor of the King of the Huns expressed the consciousness of his superiority above the rest of mankind; and he had a custom of fiercely rolling his eyes, as if he wished to enjoy the terror which he inspired. He had gradually concentrated upon himself the awe and fear of the whole ancient world, which ultimately expressed itself by affixing to his name the well-known epithet of the SCOURGE OF GOD. Yet this savage hero was not inaccessible to pity; his suppliant enemies might confide in the assurance of peace or pardon; and Attila was considered by his subjects as a just and indulgent master." He had extended his kingdom over the immense region lying between the Baltic and the Black Seas, and the Rhine and Volga. He could bring into the field an army of 700,000 men, officered by the numerous barbarian kings who had become his vassals, and had made himself literally the possessor of the entire barbaric power of Europe. During the nine years previous to his appearance in the West, he had been ravaging the Eastern empire, extending his depredations up to the very walls of Constantinople, and only withdrew upon the promise of an exorbitant annual tribute and the immediate payment of 6,000 pounds of gold. In A. D. 451 he set out from his capital in Hungary for the invasion of the Western empire, upon the pretext of assisting a Frankish king who had solicited his aid. Upon reaching the Rhine he was

joined by the Franks. The combined host then entered Gaul and advanced to Orleans, and formed the siege of that place.

In the meantime the Gothic king, Theodoric, who had established the independence of his kingdom, had entered into an alliance with the Romans as the only means of checking the ambitious Hun, who aspired to the dominion of the whole world. Though an old man, Theodoric took the field in person, and the Goths rallied with enthusiasm to the standard of their sovereign. Their example determined several tribes or nations that seemed to fluctuate between the Huns and the Romans. These nations, uniting their forces with the Roman army under Aëtius, marched into Gaul to join the issue which was to decide whether Europe should be Teuton or Tartar. They arrived before Orleans just as Attila had reduced that city to the last extremity, and had effected an entrance into one portion of the town. On the approach of the allied army, Attila raised the siege and withdrew his troops across the Seine to the vicinity of Châlons, where the great plains gave him an opportunity of using his Scythian cavalry to advantage. The allies followed him, and a great battle ensued near Châlons, which is memorable not only for the vast interests staked upon it, but also for the number of troops engaged in it, who numbered over one million. The slain on both sides are variously estimated at from 162,000 to 300,000 men. The battle was opened by the attack of the Visigoths, and continued all day. Theodoric was slain, but the contest was decided by the valor and skill of the Gothic troops led by his son Torsimond, and the Huns were saved from a total defeat only by the approach of night. They retired within the circle of wagons that fortified their camp. The next day the Goths were eager to storm the enemy's camp, but Aëtius, who feared that the empire would find the Goths as troublesome as the Huns in case the latter were exterminated, persuaded Torsimond, who had been proclaimed king by his people, to draw off his army and return to Toulouse to secure his succession to the throne. After the departure of the victors and the separation of the allied army, Attila was surprised at the silence that reigned over the plains of Châlons, but, suspicious of some stratagem, waited several days, at the expiration of which time he retreated across the Rhine, and thus confessed the victory of the allies,

"the last which was achieved in the name of the Western empire."

Although the battle of Châlons decided the fate of Europe, it did not prevent Attila from again assuming the offensive, and the short-sighted policy of Aëtius was heavily paid for in the sufferings which the barbarian leader inflicted upon the empire. In A. D. 453 he invaded northeastern Italy, captured and destroyed the cities of Aquileia, Altinum, Concordia, and Padua, and sacked Milan and Pavia. A result which the Hun did not foresee, and would not have desired, sprang from this destruction. The inhabitants of Aquileia, Padua, and the adjacent towns, fled from the cruelties of the barbarians to the safe but humble shelter of the islands at the head of the Adriatic, and there laid the foundations of the famous republic of Venice. Attila then moved southward, intending to take and destroy Rome. An embassy, headed by Pope Leo the Great, met him, and the solemn appeal of the pope aroused the superstitious fears of the barbarian, and he retired to his own dominions, where, a little later, he burst a blood-vessel and died. Thus the world was freed from the danger with which he threatened it, for his kingdom went to pieces faster than it had sprung up.

Valentinian, freed from his fear of the Huns, gratified his dislike of Aëtius by murdering him with his own hand, A. D. 454. The next year Valentinian himself was slain by Maximus, a wealthy senator, whom he had wronged, and two of the servants of Aëtius, A. D. 455. Maximus assumed the purple, but reigned less than three months. Eudoxia, the widow of Valentinian, being compelled to marry the assassin of her husband, besought aid from Genseric, the Vandal King of Africa, whose fleet commanded the Mediterranean, and the Vandal monarch at once responded to her appeal, eager to enrich himself with the spoils of Italy. He landed at Ostia, and the Romans immediately rose against Maximus, and put him to death. Genseric, however, advanced upon Rome, unmoved by the action of the citizens, as his only object was plunder. He seized the city, and gave it up to his troops to pillage for fourteen days. Whatever Alaric had left was seized by the Vandals and carried away to Africa. Not even the churches, which Alaric had protected, were spared. The city was literally stripped of its wealth of every descrip-

tion. At length the barbarians, laden with plunder, retired to their fleet and sailed for Carthage, carrying with them Eudoxia and her two daughters.

This terrible disaster so paralyzed the Romans that they were unable to take any steps for the appointment of a new sovereign. Through the influence of the Gothic king, Theodoric II., Avitus, the commander of the legions in Gaul, was made emperor, A. D. 455. After a reign of a little more than a year, Avitus was deposed by Count Ricimer, a Goth, A. D. 456. He was made bishop of Placentia, and died a few months later. Ricimer placed a protégé of his own named Majorian on the throne, after an interval of six months, A. D. 457. Majorian was a man of ability and energy, and at once addressed himself to the task of chastising the Vandals, who were harassing the Italian coast. He put a stop to their depredations, and prepared to follow up this success by an invasion of the African kingdom. The fleet which he collected was secretly destroyed by emissaries of Genseric in the port of Carthage, and Majorian was obliged to return to Italy, where he was forced to abdicate his crown by Ricimer, who had become jealous of his protégé, who was exhibiting too much vigor of character to suit his patron, A. D. 461.

Ricimer now set up as emperor a mere puppet named Libius Severus, retaining in his own hands the real power. Severus was acknowledged merely in Italy. In Dalmatia, Marcellinus, and in Gaul, Ægidius, though they did not assume the sovereignty, were the real rulers of those provinces. Severus died in A. D. 465, and Ricimer, believing himself strong enough to assume the direction of affairs in Italy, allowed the throne to remain vacant. His position was a difficult one, however. Being a foreigner, he had no hold upon the Romans, and he was exposed to the attacks of Genseric, the Vandal king, and Marcellinus. Two years later he was obliged to ask assistance of the eastern emperor, Leo, who granted the desired aid—upon his own terms, however. Ricimer was obliged to accept, as Emperor of the West, Anthemius, a distinguished Byzantine noble, nominated to the post by Leo, A. D. 467.

A formidable attack was now made upon the Vandals by the combined power of the East and the West. Genseric proved more than a match for his enemies, however, and succeeded in destroying the allied fleet by

means of fire-ships, and so far from losing his own kingdom he secured the island of Sicily, from which he could assail Italy to greater advantage, A. D. 468.

Anthemius, upon ascending the throne, had given his daughter in marriage to Ricimer, and supposed he had thus won the friendship and support of that noble. He was soon undeceived, however. The emperor having fixed his court at Rome, Ricimer retired to Milan, where he organized a conspiracy for the overthrow of the monarch. At the head of an army of Goths and Burgundians, he advanced upon Rome, forced his way into the city, slew Anthemius, and set up a new emperor named Olybrius, A. D. 472. Forty days later, Ricimer died, leaving his nephew Gundobald, a Burgundian, his heir. Three months later Olybrius died, and Gundobald conferred the purple upon Glycerius, an obscure soldier. The Emperor Leo again interposed, and gave the throne to Julius Nepos, the nephew of Marcellinus of Dalmatia. Glycerius was rewarded for his submission to this arrangement, with the gift of the bishopric of Salona, A. D. 474.

Julius had hardly ascended the throne when a revolt broke out among the barbarian mercenaries, who were now the real masters of Italy. Under the leadership of the patrician Orestes (A. D. 475) they deposed Julius, and placed upon the throne Romulus Augustus, called in mockery "Augustulus," the son of Orestes.

Soon after the accession of Augustulus, the mercenaries demanded one-third of the lands of Italy as the reward of their services. Being refused, they raised the standard of revolt, slew Orestes, deposed Augustulus, and, abolishing the empire at one stroke, proclaimed their German leader, Odoacer, *King of Italy*. Thus fell the Western empire, after an existence of 507 years.

With the fall of the Western empire, the volume of ancient history is brought to a close, and the student finds himself face to face with the new races and the new civilization which appear on the scene to take the places of the old and worn-out actors in the great drama of the world's history. Until now our attention has been confined to the continents of Asia and Africa and those portions of Europe bordering upon the Mediterranean. With the disappearance of the Western empire our

field of survey is enlarged. New nations come into view, and the chief interest of the narrative is transferred to the continent of Europe, at this time divided among four great branches of the Aryan race—the Græco-Latins, the Celts, the Teutons, and the Slaves, or Slavonians. Of these the first alone belongs to ancient history, the other three appear only in modern history.

It is the habit of modern writers to divide the era of modern history into two parts, namely, *Medieval* history, covering the period between the fall of the Western empire and the close of the fifteenth century; and *Modern* history proper, extending from the close of the fifteenth century to our own day. The first of these periods is usually termed the *Dark Ages*, since, with the disappearance of the civilization of Rome, the world seemed to have relapsed into barbarism. But the thoughtful student will not fail to perceive that this period, apparently so full of darkness and hopelessness, was in reality a season of growth, in which the civilization of Europe was being shaped, and during which it was acquiring strength for the part it was to play in the great drama of modern history. In tracing this development through the period of the Dark Ages, we shall be chiefly concerned with the growth and expansion of the great Teutonic or German race, which, from its seat in central and eastern Europe, began immediately upon the downfall of the Western empire to absorb and shape the destiny and character of almost the entire continent. As an accomplished writer of our own land well says, "The history of the Middle Ages is the history of the incorporation of Teutonic or Germanic barbarians with the Latin and Celtic elements; modern society is the result of the blending of the two; and it derives its ingredients from both—from the barbarians the love of personal liberty and the sense of independence; from the Romans the forms of a long-established civilization."

It will be interesting and useful to glance at the settlement of the nations of Europe at the time when Odoacer erected his throne upon the ruins of the Roman empire. The Germanic race was already predominant in Europe, and the Germanic tribes were beginning to press the Celtic nations into narrower quarters. The people of Gaul were of the Celtic stock, but they had been so greatly influenced by

their long connection with the Romans that they had become thoroughly Latinized and Christianized before the disruption of the empire. The same may be said for the Celt-Iberians of Spain. The Celts of the British islands had also been given the rights of Roman citizens, and had been greatly affected by their contact with the Romans. The German influence began to affect these nations about the fall of the Western empire, and with entire success, as we shall see in other portions of this work.

The principal Germanic tribes were the Goths, the Franks, the Vandals, the Burgundians, the Lombards, the Saxons, the Angles, and the Scandinavians.

At the fall of the Western empire the *Visigothic* kingdom of Euric embraced the whole of Spain, and all of Gaul south of the Loire and west of the Rhone. The capital of this kingdom was Arles, which was regarded as the centre of western civilization. It was the chosen seat of learning and refinement in Europe, and its monarch was the most powerful and enlightened of European sovereigns. The northwestern part of Spain was held by the *Suevi*, who were tributary to Euric. Under the descendants of Euric the Visigoths were driven south of the Pyrenees and confined to the Spanish peninsula, where they maintained themselves until their kingdom was destroyed by the Saracens, two centuries later. The *Ostrogoths* held Italy and the region between the Danube and the Adriatic. The *Gepidæ*, another division of the Gothic family, were established north of the lower Danube, and between the upper Danube and the Carpathian mountains, the region now known as Moldavia, Wallachia and eastern Hungary. The Goths were the first of the Teutonic nations to come under the influence of Christianity. At the time of the fall of the Western empire they had generally adopted the form of Christianity known as Arianism.

The *Franks*, who were subsequently to become masters of ancient Gaul and to give their name to the greater part of it, were still chiefly beyond its limits, but were beginning to press over the border. We first find them inhabiting the country now known as Belgium and the region of the lower Rhine. About the time of the fall of the empire they overran Gaul and drove out the Visigoths from the southwest, and conquered the Burgundians. To their new

home the name of *France* came at length to be attached, from *Francia*, the land of the Franks.

The *Vandals* had spread themselves from the extreme south of the Spanish peninsula to the northern shore of Africa, where they had established their kingdom, with Carthage as their capital. They possessed also Corsica, Sardinia, and the Balearic Isles.

The *Burgundians* occupied the valley of the Rhone and the Swiss lakes, the region which for a thousand years bore their name, and whose ruler, until subdued, was a powerful rival to the crown of France.

The *Lombards*, or *Langobards*, were at this period settled immediately to the north of the Gepidæ, between the Danube and the head-waters of the Vistula. Their original home was Jutland, from which they moved to the banks of the Elbe. Later on they passed to the southeast and settled in the region just named, from which they were afterwards to descend upon Italy.

The *Saxons* (or knifemen, a name derived from the word *Sacho*) came originally from the province now known as Holstein. By the period we are considering they had spread over the basin of the Weser, from the Rhine on the south to the Baltic. Two of the principal Saxon tribes occupied the peninsula of Denmark. They were the Jutes and the Angles. The Saxons had never met the Romans, and were consequently unaffected by Roman influences. They were still pagans. Great numbers of them had settled along the coasts of northern Gaul, and their piratical craft carried terror along the entire European coast. Previous to the fall of the Western empire the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes had crossed the North Sea and established themselves in the southern part of Britain, to which they gave the name of England, or "land of the Angles."

The Scandinavians do not appear on the scene until the ninth or tenth century, when we shall encounter them under the name of Norsemen.

These were the principal divisions of the great Teutonic family. Beyond the Elbe, dwelling in the vast plains of eastern Europe, were the Slaves or Slavonians, one of the grand divisions of the Aryan stock in Europe. They were a pastoral people, superior in numbers, but inferior in power, to the Teutonic race. They were the ancestors of the modern Poles, Bohemians, Bulgarians, Illyrians, and, to a great de-

gree, of the Russians. The frozen and marshy regions of the extreme north were occupied by the Finnish tribes. The south-east of Europe was included within the dominions of the Eastern or Greek empire.

The extreme northwest of Gaul was still in the hands of its Celtic owners, who were

largely reinforced by colonies of Bretons, who were expelled by the Saxons from Britain. This region still bears the name of Brittany. The Celtic race also held the western and northern parts of Britain, now known as Wales, Scotland, and the island of Ireland.

BOOK XVI.

THE HISTORY OF THE EASTERN ROMAN EMPIRE.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE TO THE TURKISH CONQUEST OF CON- STANTINOPLE.

Establishment of the Eastern Empire—Its Extent and Character—Reign of Arcadius—Theodosius II.—Invasion of the Huns—Reigns of Marceian and Leo the Thracian—Anastasius I.—Justin—Reign of Justinian—The Empress Theodora—Riots at Constantinople—Conquest of the Vandal Kingdom of Africa—Belisarius Conquers Italy—His Unjust Treatment by the Emperor—Public Works of Justinian—His Code of Laws—Troubles with the Barbarian Tribes—Reigns of Justin II., Tiberius, and Maurice—Wars with Persia—Heraclius Emperor—Successes of the Persians—Heraclius Wins Back His Lost Territories—The Clergy as Creditors of the State—Conquests of the Saracens—Constantinople Besieged—Justinian II.—Leo III.—Restores the Vigor of the Empire—The Question of Image Worship—The Iconoclastic War Begun—Constantine V.—Image Worship Forbidden—The Council of Constantinople—Leo IV.—Reign of the Empress Irene—Necrophorus Emperor—His Treaty with Charlemagne—Leo V.—Wars with the Bulgarians—They are Converted to Christianity—Michael II. Emperor—Commercial Prosperity of Constantinople—The Close of the Iconoclastic War—Reigns of Michael III. and Basil I.—The Basilica—The Saracens Wrest Southern Italy from the Greek Emperors—Leo VI.—Constantine VII.—Reigns of Romanus II. and Constantine IX.—John Zimisceus—Wars with the Russians—Reign of Basil II.—Romanus IV.—Rise of the Turkish Power—Manuel I. Emperor—His Vigorous Reign—His Death—Capture of Constantinople by the Latin Crusaders—The Latin States—The Wreck of the Empire—The Nicæan Emperors—"The Great Company"—Andronicus II. Emperor—Reign of John V.—Quarrels of the Genoese Venetians and Pisans—The Turks in Europe—They Overrun the Territories of the Empire—Capture of Adrianople by them—The Sultan Bajazet Besieges Constantinople—The Empire Asks Aid of Western Europe—Constantine X. Emperor—Siege and Capture of Constantinople by the Sultan Amurath II.—Fall of the Eastern Empire.

WHILE the Roman empire had been undergoing the rapid process of destruction in the West, the Eastern empire, with its capital at Constantinople, had been securely and firmly established, as we have seen, as an independent and separate monarchy, under the rule of Arcadius, the son of the great Theodosius, and his successors. The sovereign of that empire assumed and obstinately retained the vain, and at length fictitious, title of Emperor of the Romans, and the hereditary appellations of Cæsar and Augustus. Constantinople became the permanent capital, and grew rapidly in wealth and greatness, and continued for ages to defy the hostile attempts of the barbarians. The dominions of the eastern emperors "were bounded by the Adriatic and the Tigris; and the whole interval of twenty-five days' navigation, which separated the extreme cold of Scythia from the torrid zone of Æthiopia, was comprehended within the limits of the empire of the East. The populous countries of that empire were the seat of art and learning, of luxury and wealth; and the inhabitants, who had assumed the language and manners of Greeks, styled themselves, with some appearance of truth, the most enlightened and civilized portion of the human species. The form of government was a pure and simple monarchy; the name of the *Roman Republic*, which so long preserved a faint tradition of freedom, was confined to the Latin provinces; and the princes of Constantinople measured their greatness by the servile obedience of their people."

Arcadius, whose reign was marked chiefly by the struggles of unworthy favorites to obtain the power, died in A. D. 408. During his reign the famous Chrysostom, "the golden-mouthed" orator of the Eastern Church, flourished, and towards its close was sent to banishment and death for having ventured to rebuke the profligacy of the Empress Eudoxia. Arcadius was succeeded by his son Theodosius II., who was but seven years old, and during the minority of this sovereign the empire was ably ruled by his sister, Pulcheria. After Theodosius came of age, the real ruler until his death was Pulcheria, for the emperor was but a mere cipher in the government. The last years of the reign of Theodosius were vexed with the invasion of his dominions by the Huns under Attila. They appeared in the Eastern empire in A. D. 441, and for the next nine years spread their ravages throughout the region between the Adriatic and the Euxine. Seventy cities of the empire were destroyed, and the open country was so devastated that Attila was justified in his boast that the grass never grew where his horse trod. Theodosius at length purchased the withdrawal of the barbarians by the payment of 6,000 pounds of gold, and the promise of an annual tribute of 2,100 pounds of the precious metal, A. D. 450. Shortly afterwards Theodosius was drowned near Constantinople, after a reign of nearly forty-three years.

Pulcheria was proclaimed Empress of the East upon the death of her brother. As a measure of prudence she contracted a nominal marriage with Marcian, a senator about sixty years of age, who was invested with the purple. Pulcheria died in A. D. 453, but her husband continued on the throne until his own death, in A. D. 457. He was succeeded by Leo of Thrace, a military tribune, whom the patrician Aspar, the most powerful subject of the empire, placed upon the throne. Leo intervened in the affairs of the Western empire in A. D. 467, and appointed Anthemius Emperor of the West, and again in A. D. 474, to secure that throne for Julius Nepos. In the same year he died, and was succeeded by Zeno, his son-in-law, who reigned until A. D. 491. He was succeeded by Anastasius I., an aged domestic of the palace, on whom the widowed empress bestowed her hand, and who continued on the throne until A. D. 518.

In A. D. 518 Justin, a Dacian peasant by birth, whose virtues and abilities had raised

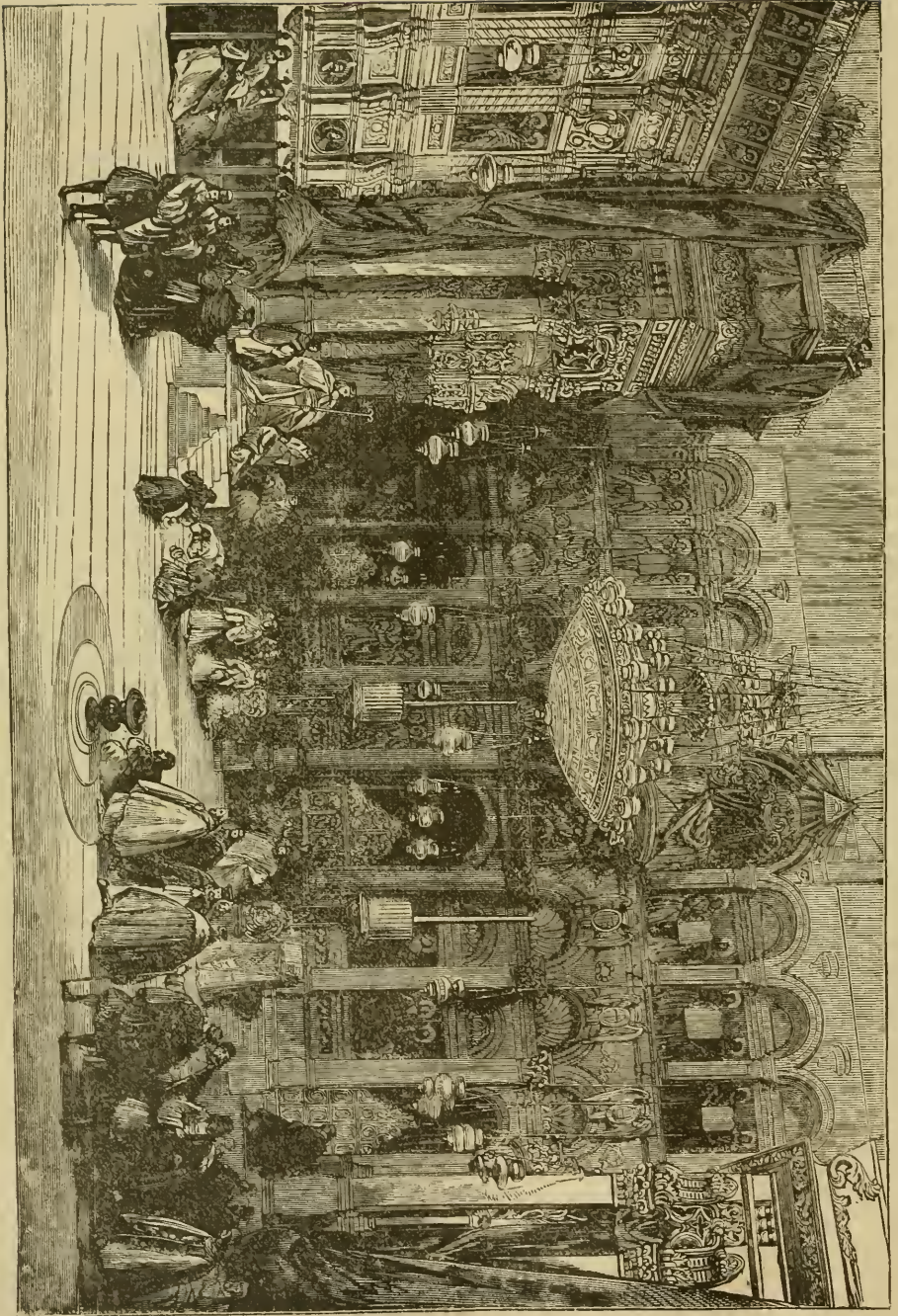
him to eminence, was elevated to the purple by the unanimous consent of the army. Justin was sixty-eight years old at this time, and reigned upwards of nine years. At the end of the ninth year he associated with him in the government his nephew Justinian, whom he had adopted as his heir. A few months later Justin died, leaving Justinian sole emperor.

Justinian was forty-five years of age at the time of his accession to the crown, and he remained on the throne for nearly thirty-nine years, A. D. 527-565. The first five years of his reign were devoted to a fruitless and expensive war with Persia. At the expiration of this time a treaty was concluded with Persia, and was called "the Endless Peace," but, as we shall see farther on, it afforded but a brief respite to the contracting parties.

Justinian had married, previous to his elevation to the throne, an infamous woman named Theodora, who soon acquired an unbounded influence over him, an influence which she maintained unimpaired until her death in the twenty-fourth year of her marriage, and the twenty-second of her reign.

At the close of the Persian war Constantinople was convulsed by a dangerous sedition known as the "Nika riots," which, breaking out between the factions of the circus, known as the *Blue* and the *Green*, spread to the citizens in general. A large part of the city, including the cathedral of St. Sophia, was laid in ashes, 30,000 persons were slain in the tumult, and for five days Constantinople was given up to the lawlessness of the mob. Hypatius, a nephew of Anastasius, was proclaimed emperor by the people, and Justinian prepared to abandon his capital. The firmness of Theodora, who persuaded the emperor to remain and crush the riot, and the skilful dispositions of Belisarius, the commander of the imperial troops, alone suppressed the outbreak and saved the throne. To punish the citizens the emperor closed the hippodrome and suppressed the games for several years, A. D. 532.

Having secured his power at home, Justinian undertook to recover the dominions formerly embraced in the Roman empire. His first expedition was directed against the Vandal kingdom in Africa, then ruled by Gelimer. The imperial forces were commanded by Belisarius, one of the greatest generals of any age, who had risen by the



COURT OF THE EMPEROR JUSTINIAN.

force of his own genius from the humble station of a peasant. The Vandals, weakened by their century of African life, were quickly overcome by Belisarius (A. D. 533), and the conqueror entered Carthage in triumph and without resistance. A long train of captives, headed by Gelimer himself, adorned the triumphal procession of Belisarius, upon his return to Constantinople. Sardinia, Corsica, and the smaller islands of the western Mediterranean were regained and made dependent upon the Exarchate of Africa.

The conquest of Africa was followed by that of Italy, the events of which we shall relate in the history of that country. The efforts of Belisarius were seriously hampered by the jealousy of the emperor, and he was finally withdrawn from his command and sent to resist the Persians, who were pressing heavily upon the eastern border of the empire. The "Endless Peace" had not proved as lasting as its founders had hoped. In A. D. 540 Chosroes, the Persian king, broke the treaty, burned Antioch, and ravaged Asia Minor. Belisarius was sent against him, and in two campaigns (A. D.

541-542) compelled him, without striking a blow, to retire to his own dominions. Belisarius being sent back to Italy, the Persians were again successful, and vanquished a Roman army of 30,000 men led by fifteen generals. The war went on in a desultory manner until A. D. 561, when the increasing age of both Justinian and Chosroes inclined them to consent to a peaceful settlement. Justinian purchased the peace at an annual tribute of 30,000 pieces of gold.

In the meantime the splendid services of Belisarius had not saved him from the hostility and jealousy of the emperor and empress. He was accused of treason, convicted, and his fortune was sequestered, while he was kept a prisoner in his own

palace. His innocence was at length established, and his honors, freedom, and riches were restored. He did not long survive this tardy justice, but died eight months later, A. D. 565, leaving behind him a great name, which the malice of his enemies could not destroy. The ungrateful emperor confiscated his fortune, with the exception of a small sum which his widow was allowed to retain.

A few years previous to his death, Belisarius had rendered an important service to the empire. In A. D. 539 the Bulgarians overran the peninsula of Greece, destroyed thirty-two cities, and carried 120,000 persons into captivity. In A. D. 559 the Danube being frozen, the same barbarians,



CATHEDRAL (NOW THE MOSQUE) OF ST. SOPHIA, CONSTANTINOPLE.

aided by the Slavonians, invaded Thrace, and sweeping all before them, encamped within twenty miles of Constantinople. Belisarius, in response to the appeal of the emperor, left his hard-earned repose, and placing himself at the head of the hastily assembled levies, compelled the enemy to withdraw into their own country. Upon the return of Belisarius to Constantinople, Justinian received him with coldness and ingratitude.

Justinian was a great builder. He adorned Constantinople with noble edifices, chief among which was the cathedral of St. Sophia, erected in the place of that burned in the Nika riots. Other parts of the empire were similarly benefited, and strong fortresses were erected along the line of the

Danube, and for the protection of the border. The friendly Goths of the Crimea were protected from their northern neighbors by long walls built entirely across the peninsula. A strong work, known as the "Rampart of Gog and Magog," was thrown up between the Black and Caspian seas, at the joint expense of the empire and Persia, for the protection of the territories of both powers against the barbarians.

During the reign of Justinian the culture of the silk worm was introduced into Greece from China by two Persian monks, who brought a number of the eggs of that insect concealed in a hollow cane. The experiment proving successful, the manufacture of silk became one of the principal industries of Greece, from which it spread into Italy and France, and has since grown into one of the greatest branches of the world's industry.

The chief title of Justinian to fame lies in his merits as a legislator. "He was not so much a maker of new laws as a restorer and simplifier of the old;" his code extended its influence throughout all portions of the Roman dominions, and has shaped and modified the jurisdiction of all succeeding times. The Roman laws had become so numerous and conflicting as to produce endless confusion. The mere word of an emperor had acquired the force of a decree, and as such was a law binding upon all future ages. To become acquainted with these laws required the devotion of a lifetime, and no private fortune was large enough to possess copies of all. The administration of justice was therefore surrounded with the greatest difficulties even where the judges were pure and desirous of acting impartially. Justinian called to his aid the learned juriconsult Trebonian and others, and proceeded to bring order out of this confusion. The result was that complete system of Roman law, called the *Civil Law*, which has been the basis of the legislation of nearly the whole of Europe. This system was comprised in three great works, *The Institutes*, *The Code*, and *The Pandects*. In the first the elementary principles of law were discussed. The Code was a condensation of all the enactments of the emperors since Hadrian. The Pandects, or Digest, consisted of a digest of all the precedents and decisions of the wisest and most learned judges since the period of the Twelve Tables, a thousand years before. These works were declared to be the legiti-

mate system of civil jurisprudence, and were alone admitted in the tribunals. For their more perfect extension through the empire law schools were established at Constantinople, Rome, and Beyrout in Syria.

Justinian suppressed the schools of Athens and the consulship of Rome, which had given so many sages and heroes to mankind. The last years of his reign were full of trouble. The Turks, a tribe of iron-forgers from the Altai range, left their mountains and established themselves in Tartary. They subdued the Huns or Avars on the Til. The survivors of the conquered people fled to the Caucasus, and offered their services to the Emperor Justinian, who, fearing to offend them, accepted their offer, treated them with liberality, and encouraged them to invade the territories of the Bulgarians and Slavonians. In the next ten years they extended their conquests to the Elbe, subduing many tribes, and compelling the remainder to pay them tribute. Justinian subsequently abandoned their alliance for that of the Turks; but, in spite of this, they were able in the next reign to conquer the regions now known as Hungary and a part of European Turkey, in which they set up the kingdom of their Chagans, which enjoyed an existence of 230 years.

Justinian died in November, A. D. 565, and was succeeded by his nephew Justin II., whose reign was uneventful. Being incapacitated by disease, Justin appointed, at the suggestion of his wife Sophia, the captain of his guards, Tiberius, as his successor, A. D. 574. Tiberius faithfully administered the government until the death of his benefactor in A. D. 578, when he became sole emperor.

The Empress Sophia had expected to become the wife of Tiberius upon the death of her husband, and to continue her reign in this new character; but Tiberius, upon mounting the throne as sole monarch, proclaimed as empress his secret, but lawfully-wedded wife, Anastasia. He endeavored to atone for the disappointment of Sophia by loading her with honors and riches, but while she appeared to accept them with pleasure, she secretly conspired for his overthrow, and, her conspiracy being discovered, the emperor was obliged to reduce her to a private station. After a reign of four years, during which he won the affections of his subjects by his many virtues, Tiberius died in A. D. 582, and was suc-

ceeded by Maurice, whom he had chosen as his heir, and who was worthy of the high honor thus bestowed upon him.

Maurice was appealed to by the pope soon after his accession to the throne, to deliver Italy from the Lombards. Unable to respond to this appeal, the emperor invited the Franks to be his substitutes. They attempted to comply with the imperial invitation, and invaded Italy several times. The last of these expeditions was under Chilbert, the grandson of Clovis. He was unsuccessful in two expeditions, but more fortunate in a third. The Greeks failing to render him substantial aid, his expeditions degenerated into mere forays.

The attention of the emperor was mainly confined to the East. War with Persia broke out again in A. D. 572, in the seventh year of Justin II., and continued with varying success for the next seven years. In A. D. 579 Chosroes died, and was succeeded by his son Hormouz or Hormisdas, whose tyranny drove his people into rebellion. About the same time the Romans made great gains on the borders of Mesopotamia and Assyria, while the Turks, to the number of 300,000 or 400,000, invaded the Persian dominions from the line of the Oxus. In this emergency Persia was saved by a hero named Varanes, or Bahram, who defeated both the Romans and the Turks, and was proclaimed king by his troops. Learning this, the Persian nobles deposed Hormouz, put out his eyes, and placed his son Chosroes II. upon the throne. Bahram refused to acknowledge the new king, and reduced him to such extremities that Chosroes fled to the Roman lines and threw himself upon the generosity of the Emperor Maurice, who embraced his cause. A Roman army entered Persia, drove out the usurper, and replaced Chosroes on his throne. The grateful king preserved the closest and most friendly relations with the empire until the death of Maurice.

Towards the close of his reign the Emperor Maurice won some substantial successes over the Avars. He attempted to improve the discipline of the army, and thus provoked a sedition which resulted in the elevation of Phocas to the throne and the murder of Maurice and his five sons at Chalcedon, A. D. 602. Phocas was an ignorant ruffian, and soon disgusted his subjects with his tyranny. Heraclius, the Exarch of Africa, threw off his allegiance to him, and sent his son, the younger Hera-

clius, to Constantinople with a strong fleet to seize the imperial crown. Phocas was put to death and the younger Heraclius was proclaimed emperor, A. D. 610.

The new emperor was called upon at the outset of his reign to defend his dominions against the Persian King Chosroes II., who, under the plea of avenging the death of his benefactor Maurice, overran all of Syria, Egypt, and Africa, as far as Tripoli, Antioch, Damascus, Jerusalem, and the other cities of the East were taken by storm, A. D. 614. The Holy City was delivered over to violence, the Holy Sepulchre and the stately churches of Constantine were burned, the city was stripped of its wealth, and the patriarch and the "true cross" were transported to Persia. Ninety thousand Christians were put to the sword. The conquest of Egypt was completed in A. D. 616. While these movements were in progress a Persian army advanced through Asia Minor to the Bosphorus, and captured Chalcedon, and for ten years a Persian camp was maintained within sight of Constantinople. The Persian arms seemed irresistible, and Chosroes appeared about to revive the glory and power of his great ancestors Cyrus and Darius.

All this while Heraclius clung to his capital, the slave of sloth and pleasure, making little effort to retain his dominions, and appearing to care little for their fate. At length, when all seemed lost, the emperor suddenly shook off his weakness and assumed the spirit of a hero. Borrowing the consecrated wealth of the churches under a solemn vow to restore it with usury, he collected an army and a fleet and sailed to the coast of Cilicia, where he landed his troops and took post at Issus. He was attacked there by the Persians, and won a signal victory over them on the very spot on which Alexander the Great had defeated Darius nearly a thousand years before, A. D. 622. In A. D. 623-625 he led a second expedition against Chosroes, and penetrating to the heart of Persia, forced the Persian king to withdraw his troops from the Nile and the Bosphorus for the defence of their own country. The Persian king incited the Avars to attack Constantinople, but they were defeated with terrible loss, A. D. 626. The successes of Heraclius drew to his standard many of the eastern tribes, and in A. D. 627 the emperor advanced once more into the interior of the Persian empire. A decisive battle was fought upon the site of

the buried city of Nineveh, in which the Persians were utterly routed, and the cities and palaces of Assyria were open for the first time to the Romans. Chosroes, though reduced to despair, refused to sue for peace. Being now an old man he endeavored to secure the elevation of his favorite son Merdaza to the throne. A conspiracy was formed against him, headed by his son Siroes. Chosroes was seized, his eighteen sons were put to death before his eyes, and he was thrown into a dungeon, where he died on the fifth day of his captivity, A. D. 628. With him expired the glory of the Persian monarchy. Siroes lived but eight months to enjoy the fruits of his unnatural crimes. After his death, in the space of four years the throne was disputed by nine pretenders, who plunged the country into a sea of anarchy and bloodshed, and so exhausted it that it dragged out a miserable existence of eight years longer, and finally fell an easy conquest before the victorious arms of the Arabian khalifs. The remainder of the reign of Heraclius was important only for the loss of the far eastern provinces, which were rapidly overrun by the Saracens, never to be regained. The great efforts of Heraclius against the Persians had exhausted the empire, and it was unprepared to resist these new enemies. Besides this, the clergy, who proved themselves inexorable creditors, received the greater part of the public funds in a usurious return of the loan they had made Heraclius for the preservation of the empire. Heraclius died in A. D. 641, leaving his dominions to his sons Constantine III. and Heraclionas. The former died soon after, poisoned, it was supposed, by his stepmother, who, with her son Heraclionas, was mutilated and exiled. Constans II., the eldest son of Constantine III., was made emperor at the age of eleven, A. D. 641. In order to insure his succession he caused his brother Theodosius to be put to death. Remorse for this crime drove him into exile in A. D. 662. He was murdered in Sicily in A. D. 668. His son Constantine IV. succeeded him, and though the new emperor shared with his two brothers the imperial dignity, he kept the real power in his own hands. His brothers, having conspired against him, were deprived of their titles.

During this reign the Saracens made themselves masters of the greater part of western Asia, and in A. D. 668 advanced to the Bosphorus, and laid siege to Constanti-

nople. The siege was continued for seven years, but was unsuccessful. In the defence of the city Greek fire was used, and the assailants found it impossible to stand before this formidable agent.

Constantine was succeeded by his son Justinian II., in A. D. 685. He outraged his people by his cruelties, and was deprived of his nose and driven into exile among the Tartars, in A. D. 695. For ten years the imperial authority was exercised by Leontius and Absimarus. The Khan of Tartary gave Justinian his sister in marriage. She was baptized, and took the name of Theodora. Her brother being won over by the enemies of Justinian, agreed to deliver the exiled emperor into their hands; but Theodora discovered the plot, and secured the escape of her husband. Justinian fled to the camp of the Bulgarian king, who became his ally, and agreed to aid him in an effort to recover his crown.

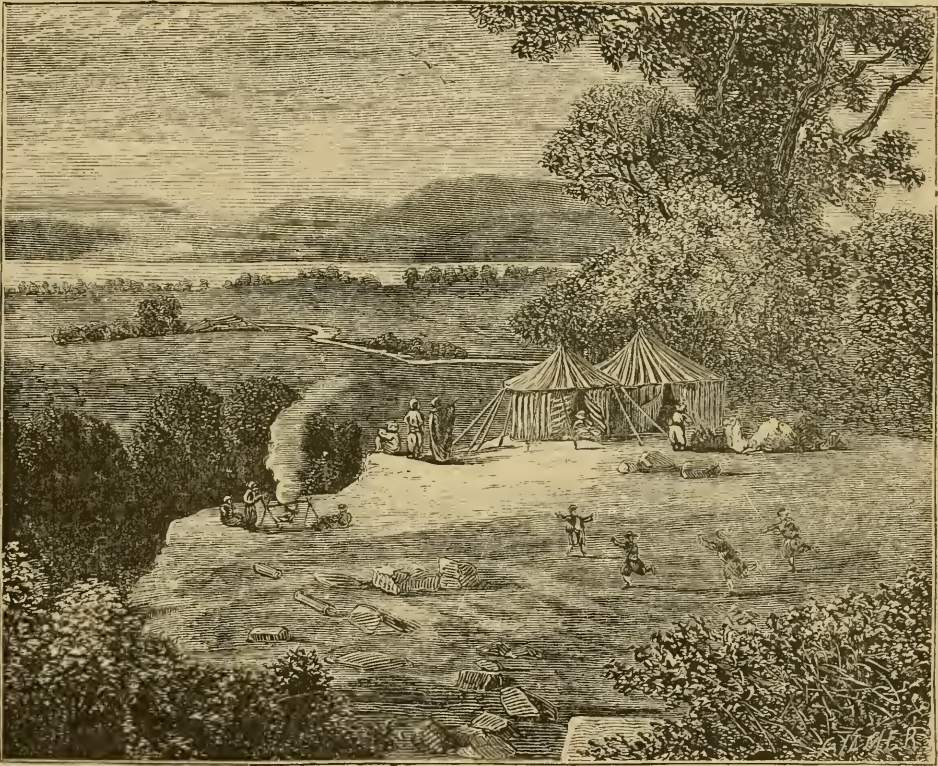
Justinian II., aided by the Bulgarian king, Terbelis, regained his throne in A. D. 704, and devoted the next seven years to revenging himself upon his enemies. His cruelties were so infamous and rendered him so odious to his people that they dethroned him and put him to death in 711, and made Philippius emperor. The new emperor was murdered in 713, and was succeeded by Anastasius II., who, in his turn, was dethroned in 716, to make room for Theodosius III. The next year Theodosius submitted to an abler and more powerful rival.

Leo III., the Isaurian, came to the throne in A. D. 717, and opened his reign by a magnificent defence of Constantinople against the Mohammedans. Himself an Armenian he intrusted the important offices of the state and court to Armenians, on whom he could rely, and though Greek was the language of the court, the church, and the people, the government was usually held by Asiatics. Having saved the empire from destruction at the hands of the Saracens, he applied himself to the task of reviving and invigorating it. The wise and far-seeing reforms which he introduced gave to the state a new career of greatness and prosperity. Peace and security to all classes were maintained by a vigilant execution of the laws, and commerce entered upon a wider and more splendid career.

In the eleventh year of his reign, Leo issued an edict which plunged the Christian world into commotion. The church had

by degrees adopted the worship and use of images and pictures in its sacred edifices. Leo, who had conceived a fierce hatred of the practice, issued, in A. D. 726, a decree forbidding the worship of images, and thus inaugurated the bitter struggle known as the Iconoclastic war. Soon afterwards a second edict appeared commanding the destruction of all the images and the white-washing of the walls of the churches. These measures produced resistance in almost every part of the empire, but except in the West the authority of the emperor prevailed.

and punished the rebellion by a more severe and violent persecution. The third council of Constantinople, in A. D. 754, formally condemned the worship of images as idolatry, and forbade both their use and their worship. Apart from this persecution, Constantine appears to have been a wise and able sovereign. He defended his Asiatic provinces with vigor against the Saracens, redeemed several thousand captives from foreign slavery, and peopled the abandoned coast of Thrace with new colonies. Even the ecclesiastics, who hated him bitterly,



SCENE IN ASIA MINOR.

The western church refused to comply with the imperial edicts, and the pope constituted himself the champion of the images. In the midst of the controversy Leo died at Constantinople, after a reign of twenty-four years, A. D. 741.

Leo was succeeded by his son Constantine V., surnamed Copronymus, from his pollution of the baptismal font. Under him the war against images was continued with great bitterness. The image-worshippers rose against him, and drove him from his throne, but he subsequently recovered it,

were forced to admit his abilities. He died in A. D. 775.

Leo IV., who succeeded his father, was a weak and feeble prince, and willingly resigned his power into the hands of his Athenian wife, Irene. His infant son, Constantine VI., was crowned emperor and associated in the government at the age of five. Five years later, A. D. 780, Leo died, leaving his wife regent for her son. Irene was an ardent partisan of the image-worshippers, and embraced their cause with zeal. A general council was held at Nice

in A. D. 787, which declared the worship of images agreeable to the teachings and use of Scripture and reason, thus reversing the decree of the council of Constantinople. During the childhood of her son, Irene showed herself an able and prudent ruler, and at the same time a careful and judicious mother. As the emperor approached manhood, however, he became impatient of her control, and abandoned himself to the influence of favorites of his own age, who were ambitious of sharing his power as well as his pleasures. The result was a struggle between the mother and son, in which each was alternately in possession of the throne. The empress at length triumphed, and depriving her son of his eyes, reigned alone in external splendor, regardless of the reproaches of conscience and the denunciations of her people, A. D. 797-802.

The reign of the Empress Irene was brought to a close in A. D. 802 by a rebellion. She was banished to Lesbos, and the great treasurer Nicephorus, the leader of the revolt, ascended the throne. He reigned for nine years. His experience as treasurer enabled him to increase the revenue by taxation, and he does not appear to have committed more crimes than were common to the eastern sovereigns of his day. Just previous to his reign the separation between the East and West was made final by the revival of the Western empire under Charlemagne. Nicephorus was powerless to prevent this, or to turn back the course of events, and in the second year of his reign entered into a treaty with Charlemagne defining the boundaries of the two empires. Nicephorus was decisively defeated by the Khalif Haroun al Raschid in A. D. 805. In 811 he was beaten and slain in a war with the Bulgarians. He was succeeded by his son Stauracius, who reigned but two months. A new revolution compelled him to resign the throne to his brother-in-law, Michael Rhangabe, who ascended the throne as Michael I. In A. D. 813 Michael was compelled by his troops, who were disgusted with his peaceful and unwarlike character, to resign his throne or defend it with arms against them. Although supported by the citizens and clergy of Constantinople, he chose the former alternative, and retired to a monastery.

The leader of the rebellion, Leo the Armenian, was placed on the throne as Leo V. He was one of the best of the Byzantine sovereigns. Bred a soldier, he cared

little for theological disputes, and pursued a policy respecting the worship of images which won for him from the churchmen the name of "the chameleon." During his reign the Bulgarians committed great depredations in the European provinces of the empire, sometimes carrying their forays to the very gates of Constantinople. In one expedition alone they took 50,000 prisoners. These Christian slaves became so many missionaries of the truth in the land whither they were carried captive, and succeeded in converting thousands of the Bulgarians to Christianity. Towards the close of the century the Bulgarian King Bogoris was baptized, and a little later the entire nation embraced the faith of Christ. Among the most trusted friends of Leo at the beginning of his reign was Michael, the Armorian, who, however, soon began to plot against him, though loaded with honors and wealth by the emperor. Though frequently detected and pardoned, Michael continued his plotting and was finally sentenced to death. His friends, to save his life, rose against Leo and slew him in A. D. 820.

Michael was brought from his dungeon with the fetters still upon his limbs, and seated upon the throne as Michael II. He reigned nine years, and during this time the empire entered upon a great career of commercial prosperity although far advanced in its political decline. It enjoyed a monopoly of the Mediterranean trade, and a vast and lucrative commerce between Asia and Europe flowed through Constantinople, enriching its people. This, too, in spite of the fact that the Saracens had made themselves masters of Crete and of some of the other islands of the Mediterranean.

Michael II. was succeeded, in A. D. 829, by his son, Theophilus. Though an able sovereign, the reign of Theophilus was full of misfortune. He undertook to regain the provinces which had been wrested from the empire by the Saracens, but was finally defeated. His revenues were enormous, but instead of using them to fortify his frontier, he expended them in adorning Constantinople. He was a bitter foe of image-worship. Dying in A. D. 842, he left his wife, Theodora, regent for their son, Michael III. Theodora restored the images amid the rejoicings of the people, and so closed the long Iconoclastic war, which had lasted more than a century, and had finally separated the West from the East.

Michael III. was five years old when his father died. The Empress Theodora held the regency for thirteen years. Then, perceiving that her influence was declining, and that her son was beginning to grow impatient of her rule, she prudently resigned her power into his hands, and retired to a private station. Michael III., being left sole ruler of the empire, proved himself utterly unfit to rule. He was a brutal, drunken tyrant, with no regard for the sacredness of religion or the dignity of his own station. As contemptible in character as he was odious, he succeeded in disgusting his people, who longed to be rid of him. He was murdered in his sleep in the thirtieth year of his age by one of his officers named Basil, who is believed to have been a Slavonian, A. D. 867.

Basil I. claimed descent from the Macedonian Alexander the Great, and in consequence of this the dynasty which he founded is known as the Macedonian. Though he won great successes over the Saracens, carried his arms in triumph to the Euphrates, and crushed the republic of the Paulicians, Basil had neither the spirit nor the talents of a warrior. He is chiefly noted as a legislator. The change of language and manners had made necessary a revision of the entire system of jurisprudence of Justinian. "The voluminous body of his institutes, pandects, code, and novels, was digested under forty titles in the Greek idiom; and the *Basilica*, which were improved and completed by his son and grandson, must be referred to the original genius of the founder of their race."

By the treaty with Charlemagne, the Eastern emperors retained the cities of southern Italy. In A. D. 878 the Saracens captured Syracuse and extended their power over the whole of Sicily. Later on they obtained a firm lodgment in southern Italy, and so diminished the power of the emperor. Basil died in A. D. 886.

Leo and Alexander, the sons of Basil, were both invested with the purple at their father's death, but the real emperor was the elder brother, Leo VI., called "the Philosopher," because, as Gibbon sarcastically says, "the son of Basil was less ignorant than the greater part of his contemporaries in church and state." His reign was full of disaster, not the least of which was the capture of Thessalonica, the second city of the empire, by the Saracens, and the massacre of all its inhabitants save twenty-two

thousand youth, who were sold into slavery. He won the hostility of the church by contracting a fourth marriage (this time with Zoe, who had borne him a son), a union which the Greek Church does not recognize as lawful. His reign extended into the next century.

Leo VI. was succeeded by his son, Constantine VII., called Porphyrogenitus, "Born in the Purple," A. D. 911. He was only five years old at the time of his father's death. During his minority the government was administered by his uncle Alexander, and after Alexander's death by his mother Zoe, and other regents. In A. D. 919, Romanus, the most prominent general of the army, assumed the government and the titles of Cæsar and Augustus. His three sons were successively associated with him in the empire, and the lawful emperor was for twenty-five years degraded to the lowest rank of this college of princes. Constantine, upon the death of the last of the usurpers, assumed the sole administration, and reigned for nearly fifteen years (A. D. 944-959) alone. His mild and benevolent disposition greatly endeared him to his subjects. He was the author of several works of science and history, and rendered important services to literature by causing the preservation of a number of precious manuscripts.

Romanus II., the son of Constantine, succeeded his father. He died four years later, A. D. 963, from poison administered by his wife. His reign was memorable for the exploits of his general, Nicephorus Phocas, who won back the island of Crete from the Saracens, and gained other important successes over them. The Empress Theophano, the widow of Romanus II., wishing to retain her place on the throne, bestowed her hand upon the successful general, who, without degrading the infant Emperors Basil II. and Constantine IX., assumed the throne and the title of Augustus. He reigned six years with vigor and success, opposing a steady resistance to the Saracens, and maintaining the frontiers unbroken against their attacks. His reign marked the commencement of the most vigorous period of the Eastern empire after its final division, a period which may be said to have continued until about 1025. He was murdered in 969 by his nephew, John Zimisceus, who succeeded him on the throne as guardian of the youthful emperors.

John had been one of the lovers of the Empress Theophano during her husband's life, and she hoped to share the throne with her paramour, but John put her away at the stern demand of the Patriarch of Constantinople, and dismissed her to a private station. John proved himself an able and energetic ruler. In the East he inflicted a number of defeats upon the Saracens, won back Antioch and some other cities that had been taken by them, and made the Euphrates once more the boundary of the empire. He also won signal successes over the Scandinavian rulers of Russia, who were causing considerable trouble upon his frontier. He inflicted a decisive defeat upon the Russian forces at Presthlava in Bulgaria, in A. D. 971, and compelled them to sue for peace. By the terms of the treaty the Russians ceded to the emperor the kingdom of Bulgaria, recently conquered by them, and thus the Danube became once again the Greek frontier. John died in A. D. 976.

The two lawful emperors, Basil II. and Constantine IX., now came to the throne. Constantine was a weak and effeminate prince, but Basil was a man of genius and energy, and soon made himself the real ruler of the empire. Under him it rose to the height of its military greatness. His reign extended into the next century, closing in A. D. 1025. For nearly forty years he waged a vigorous war against the Bulgarians and the other Slavonian tribes of the Hellenic peninsula. The Bulgarians were entirely subdued, but the conqueror stained his laurels by cruelly depriving 15,000 of his prisoners of their eyes, and sending them back to their king, whose grief and rage at the sight caused his death.

Basil II. died in A. D. 1025, "amid the blessings of the clergy and the curses of the people," and the throne was held by his brother Constantine IX. for three years longer. He died in 1028, after having enjoyed for sixty-six years the title of Augustus, during which time he had done nothing to merit it. Basil II. left no children, and Constantine had only three daughters. In the absence of male heirs, the throne was for nearly thirty years in the hands of the infamous favorites of Constantine's daughters, Zoe and Theodora. During this period the only events of importance were the outbreaks of the citizens of Constantinople, who were enraged by the weakness and li-

centiousness of these corrupt rulers. In A. D. 1057 the confusion was ended by the elevation to the throne by the army of Isaac Comnenus, a general of noble birth. His health failing, he resigned the crown in 1059. His brother John refused the purple, and a new emperor of a different family was chosen in the person of Constantine XI. He reigned eight years, and in 1067 died and intrusted his widow, the Empress Eudocia, with the government. She bestowed her hand upon Romanus Diogenes, who became emperor as Romanus IV., and reigned for four years with dignity and honor.

In the meantime the Turks, who had made themselves masters of the Saracenic dominions in Asia, began to press heavily upon the remaining provinces of the Greek empire. It was this danger which chiefly induced the Empress Eudocia to bestow her hand upon Romanus, who was a soldier of tried ability. With slender resources, but with invincible courage, he endeavored to maintain the integrity of his eastern possessions. In three hard-fought campaigns he drove the Turks beyond the Euphrates, and in a fourth, A. D. 1071, attempted to regain Armenia from them, but was defeated and made a prisoner by the Turkish sultan, Alp Arslan. He was released upon his promise to pay a heavy ransom and an annual tribute, but upon returning to Constantinople he found that his people had deposed him upon learning of his captivity, and had forced the Empress Eudocia into a convent. In the effort to regain his crown, Romanus was defeated and slain. Michael VII. (1071-1078) and Nicephorus III. (1078-1081) then held the throne. The accession of the latter emperor was disputed in Asia by a chief of the same name. The emperor called in the aid of the Turks and defeated his rival, but purchased his success by the loss of his Asiatic provinces, which passed into the hands of the Turks. A few years later the emperor was able to extend his eastern boundary to Nicomedia, sixty miles distant from Constantinople, but beyond this the Turks retained the old Greek provinces. Only Trebizond, at the extremity of the Euxine, strong in its natural fortifications, remained to the emperor.

In A. D. 1081 Alexis I., son of John Comnenus, was proclaimed emperor upon the downfall of Nicephorus III. He came to the throne at a moment of great disaster to

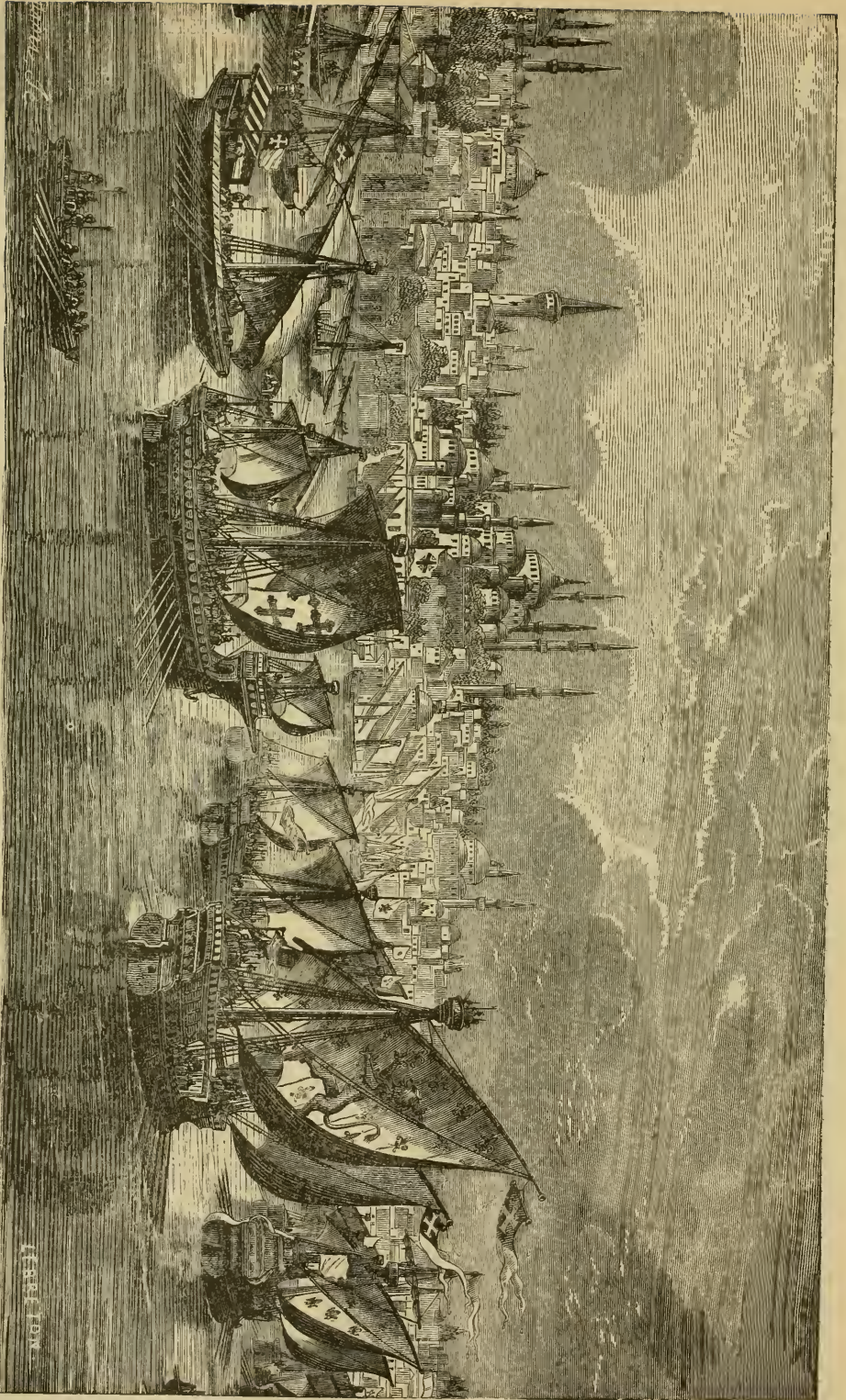
the empire, and "every calamity that can afflict a declining empire was accumulated on his reign by the justice of Heaven and the vices of his predecessors." "In the East," says Gibbon, "the victorious Turks had spread, from Persia to the Hellespont, the reign of the Koran and the Crescent; the West was invaded by the adventurous valor of the Normans; and, in the moments of peace, the Danube poured forth new swarms, who had gained in the science of war what they had lost in the ferociousness of manners. The sea was not less hostile than the land; and while the frontiers were assaulted by an open enemy, the palace was distracted with secret treason and conspiracy. On a sudden the banner of the cross was displayed by the Latins; Europe was precipitated on Asia; and Constantinople had almost been swept away by this impetuous deluge. In the tempest Alexis steered the imperial vessel with dexterity and courage. At the head of his armies he was bold in action, skilful in stratagem, patient of fatigue, ready to improve his advantages, and rising from his defeats with inexhaustible vigor. The discipline of the camp was revived, and a new generation of men and soldiers was created by the example and the precepts of their leader. In his intercourse with the Latins, Alexis was patient and artful; his discerning eye pervaded the new system of an unknown world, and with superior policy he balanced the interests and passions of the champions of the first crusade. In a long reign of thirty-seven years he subdued and pardoned the envy of his equals; the laws of public and private order were restored; the arts of science and wealth were cultivated; the limits of the empire were enlarged in Europe and Asia; and the Comnenian sceptre was transmitted to his children of the third and fourth generation."

The Emperor Alexis I. died in A. D. 1118, and was succeeded by his eldest son, John II. His insignificant stature and harsh, swarthy features won him from his keen-witted and sarcastic subjects the ironical surname of "the Handsome," but ere long the name was applied by his grateful people in admiration of his noble qualities of mind. He was a wise, liberal ruler, and by his military vigor won back some of the territory taken by the Turks, and freed the maritime provinces of Asia from their presence. "Feared by his nobles, beloved by his people, John

was never reduced to the painful necessity of punishing, or even of pardoning, his personal enemies." He died in 1143.

Manuel I., the youngest of the surviving sons of John, succeeded his father, and reigned thirty-seven years. This period was one of almost constant war. The Turks were confined to Mount Taurus, and the Hungarians and the hordes beyond the Danube were forced to respect the borders of the empire. He was rather a brave knight-errant than a good ruler or a great commander, but for a while he made the power of the empire both respected and feared. The fleets of the Norman King of Sicily several times ravaged the coasts of Greece, and Manuel not only was obliged to meet these attacks, but endeavored to return them by assailing Sicily itself. He was at length defeated in a great battle with the Turks in Pisidia, and owed his escape to the generosity of the sultan. After this defeat the power of the empire began to decline. Manuel died in A. D. 1181, leaving his crown to his son Alexis II., who, two years later, was overthrown and put to death by his relative Andronicus, younger son of Isaac and grandson of Alexis Comnenus. Andronicus was an able though a cruel ruler, and two years after his accession was put to death by the people whom his cruelties had driven to desperation. The remainder of the century was passed in the struggles of various claimants of the throne, which weakened and prepared the empire for the first great period in its fall.

The decline of the Eastern empire, which began with the death of the Emperor Manuel and the quarrels of his successors, continued through the twelfth century. Isaac Angelus was dethroned by his brother Alexis in 1195. A son of Isaac, also named Alexis, escaped from Constantinople, and took refuge in western Europe, where he endeavored to induce the great powers to assist him to recover the throne of his father. He spent a number of years in these fruitless efforts, and when he had begun to despair of accomplishing anything, his labors were suddenly and unexpectedly crowned with success. The princes of the Fourth Crusade had assembled at Venice, where they were provided by the republic with shipping for transportation to the Holy Land. Unable to raise the entire sum demanded by the republic, they were allowed by the Venetians to defer its payment on



ARRIVAL OF THE CRUSADERS' FLEET BEFORE CONSTANTINOPLE

condition of conquering for them some towns on the Dalmatian coast, which had revolted from the republic. They complied with this condition, and captured the town of Zara, which offered them so many advantages that they resolved to spend the winter there. The young prince Alexis repaired to their camp and entreated them to aid him in recovering his throne. His appeal was sustained by the Doge of Venice, and the Crusaders at length resolved to assist him, as he promised them ample payment for their services in case of success. In the summer of 1203 they laid siege to Constantinople, which they carried by storm after a hard fight. Alexis received the throne, but he had forfeited the confidence of his people by abandoning the Greek faith for that of Rome, and the next year he was murdered in a revolt of the people of Constantinople. The Crusaders, enraged by this revolt, stormed and took Constantinople a second time, and put an end to the Roman empire of the East.

On the ruins of the Greek state the Crusaders set up a Latin empire, and crowned Count Baldwin of Flanders Emperor of Constantinople. They then divided among themselves as much of the empire as they could secure and hold, for it must be remembered that the Greeks were bitterly hostile to the Latins, and only submitted to their rule because of the superior strength of the latter. Nor was Baldwin master of all the dominions which had owned the Greek Cæsar as their lord. The Eastern empire was now split up into a number of petty states, some of which were Greek and some Latin. Baldwin received about one-fourth of the empire as his share. The remaining European possessions were divided between the Venetians, the Lombards, and the French. The Venetians received a disproportionately large share. They established a chain of factories or trading-posts along the coast from Constantinople to Venice. Boniface, Marquis of Montferrat, became King of Thessalonica or Macedonia. In Asia the dominions of the empire which had not passed into the hands of the Turks were divided between two sovereigns reigning at Nice and Trebizond, each of whom claimed the title of emperor. The Emperors of Nice were able and prudent sovereigns, and under their wise rule their country grew in prosperity and strength. The Latin empire of Constantinople, on the other hand, having no hold upon the people, lasted only fifty-

seven years, when the attempt to Latinize the Greeks by force having failed, it fell before the conquering arms of the Emperor Michael Palæologus of Nice, A. D. 1261. As the Nicæan empire had claimed to be the true and lawful successor of the Eastern Roman empire, the conquest of Constantinople by Michael may be considered as in some degree a revival of that state. It never regained its former power, however, for the Turks pressed hard upon its eastern border, and the Greek Emperor of Trebizond and some of the Greek and Frank princes continued to rule their countries independent of the emperor at Constantinople. The restored empire of Constantinople was really nothing more than the most powerful of the various Greek states, which continued to exist without attracting much attention, until they were all finally conquered by the Ottoman Turks in the fifteenth century. Michael, alarmed by the threat of the pope to stir up a crusade of western Europe against him, endeavored to force his subjects into a union with the Latin Church. He succeeded only in filling his dominions with suffering and sorrow; but great as his violence and cruelty were, they were not sufficient to give satisfaction at Rome, where, says Gibbon, "his slowness was arraigned and his sincerity suspected." His son Andronicus, whose reign closed the century, put an end to these outrages, and, dissolving the union with Rome, restored the Greek faith and worship.

The reign of the Emperor Andronicus II., who succeeded his father, Michael Palæologus, in 1282, occupied the first twenty-eight years of the fourteenth century as well as the closing years of the thirteenth. In the first years of the fourteenth century a band of Catalan adventurers, reinforced by men from all parts of the world, and known as "the Great Company," having rendered good service to the empire in defeating the Turks in two bloody battles, considered that they had a right to the property of the empire which they had saved, and began such a series of arbitrary exactions upon the provinces that the emperor was put to great exertions to resist them. Having lost their first leader by assassination, they seized the strong fortress of Gallipoli, on the Hellespont, and defeated in two battles by sea and land the forces of the Greek empire. These successes drew numerous additions to their ranks, and they continued their outrages

upon the empire until the lack of provisions and the dissensions of their leaders compelled them to disperse.

Andronicus associated his son Michael in the empire at the age of eighteen. The son of Michael, named Andronicus, from his grandfather, shared at an early age the imperial honors, and soon began to await with impatience the removal of the obstacles which lay between him and the sole possession of the throne. The premature death of his father removed one of these obstacles, but then, to the surprise of the younger Andronicus, his grandfather transferred to another grandson his hopes and affections. The younger emperor fled from Constantinople in 1321, and raised the standard of civil war against his grandfather. A struggle of seven years ensued, which resulted (A. D. 1328) in the triumph of the younger emperor. Andronicus II. retired to a monastery, where he died in 1332.

Andronicus III., being sole emperor, undertook soon after to check the progress of the Turks, but was badly beaten and wounded in his only campaign. He fell a victim to the effects of his early intemperance, and died in A. D. 1341, in his forty-fifth year. He left a son, named John, by his second wife, the Empress Anne, sister of the Count of Savoy. He was a child of nine years, and the emperor in his will named his old and tried friend, John Cantacuzene, the guardian of his son. During the minority of the young emperor, John Cantacuzene was the ruler of the empire. He ruled with wisdom and firmness, and by his valor and prudence the isle of Lesbos and the principality of Ætolia were won back to the empire. One of his rivals succeeded in inducing the young emperor and his mother to throw off the rule of Cantacuzene, and the able minister was proclaimed an enemy of the state and the church. He at once took arms to reinstate himself in power, and a civil war of six years ensued. In 1343 Cantacuzene appealed to the Turks to aid him, and admitted them into Europe. They thus obtained a permanent footing in Europe, and from that time the days of the Greek empire were numbered. With the aid of his Turkish allies Cantacuzene compelled the young Emperor John to submit, and returning in triumph to Constantinople mounted the throne as John V., acknowledging the son of Andronicus as his colleague, John VI. John VI. twice attempted

to overthrow his elder colleague by force, and was each time defeated. The last time he fled to the Latins of the isle of Tenedos for shelter. John V., in the hope of putting a stop to these wars, deposed the younger emperor, associated his own son, Matthew, in the government, and established the succession in his own family. This brought on a revolution, and John VI., aided by some Genoese troops, was restored to the throne of his fathers. Cantacuzene retired to a cloister, and devoted the remainder of his life to literary pursuits, A. D. 1355.

The reign of Cantacuzene had been disturbed, like that of his predecessor, by the fierce quarrels of the Genoese, Venetians, and Pisans, who were contending with each other for the monopoly of the trade of the East. The emperor was unable to compel peace, and several fierce battles were fought by the imperial forces and the Venetians against the Genoese, who were each time successful. Cantacuzene was compelled to sign a humiliating treaty, by which he bound himself to expel the Venetians from Constantinople, and grant the Genoese the desired monopoly. Had not the power of that republic been broken by her domestic troubles, Constantinople would most likely have become a mere dependency of Genoa. These troubles continued to some extent in the early part of the reign of John VI., who continued on the throne till 1391. A more serious evil now began to afflict the empire. The Turks, who had been admitted into Europe by Cantacuzene, had possessed themselves of the city of Adrianople, in Thrace, and had made it their capital. They were fully determined to extend their European dominion to the Hellespont, and the capture of Constantinople was only a question of time. They treated the Greek emperors as their vassals, and these sovereigns, unable to offer any resistance to such formidable foes, were obliged to remain helpless spectators of the ruin of their country. The Sultan Bajazet, having detected a conspiracy of his son against him, deprived him of his sight. John, the son of the Greek emperor, was also concerned in the same conspiracy, his object being to dethrone his father also. Bajazet sternly demanded that the Greek emperor should inflict upon his son the punishment he had administered to his own heir, and the emperor was obliged to submit.

At the death of John VI. his second

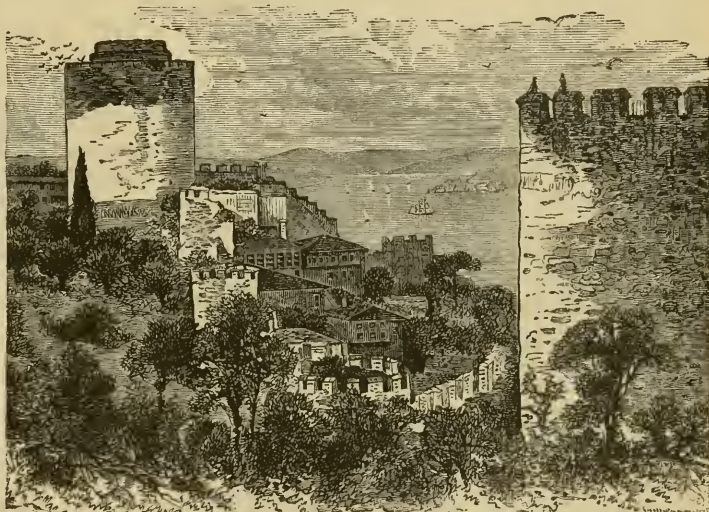
son, Manuel, succeeded him, A. D. 1391. Bajazet at once espoused the cause of the blind prince John. Manuel left Constantinople and hastened to France to seek aid, and left his blind competitor on the throne. Bajazet now unmasked his real design, and claimed Constantinople as his own city. John refused to submit, and Constantinople was invested, and compelled to suffer the horrors of a siege and famine. It would doubtless have fallen then, but Bajazet was suddenly summoned into Asia to defend his territory against the terrible Timour, or Tamerlane, of whom more hereafter.

The withdrawal of Bajazet from the siege of Constantinople gave the Greek empire a short respite, and the Emperor Manuel took advantage of it to visit the courts of western Europe to solicit aid; but none of the European sovereigns were in a condition to assist him. The death of Bajazet was followed by quarrels among his sons, which prevented the Turks from exerting their united strength against Constantinople. John Paleologus II., the son and successor of Manuel, who came to the throne in 1425, entertained the idea of putting an end to the schism which had so long divided Christendom, and accepted the invitation of the pope to visit Italy to arrange matters for this purpose. In 1438 he visited

Ferrara, where a synod of the Latin Church was in session. Pope Eugenius summoned a council at Florence, and in July, 1438, the reunion of the Greek and Latin Churches was formally proclaimed. This reunion was, however, entirely the work of the emperor; the people of the Greek communion had no part in, or sympathy with it, and it was, on the part of the emperor, simply an attempt to excite the sympathy and secure the aid of Christendom in his efforts to maintain his throne against the Turks. In the latter days of the empire, "whenever the Greeks were in any trouble, their emperors always made a show of putting an end to the division between the Eastern and

Western Churches. But schemes of this sort never really took root, as the Greeks were fully determined never to admit the authority of the pope."

The pope, on his part, was not unmindful of the welfare of his Greek brethren, and he endeavored to stir up the western princes to their assistance; but Eugenius found that the task which had been accomplished four centuries earlier by the mere eloquence of a monk, now required all the moral force of the papacy. The English, French, and Germans took no part in the matter, but Hungary and Poland, which were more directly interested by being in constant danger of a Turkish invasion, responded favorably to the pope's appeal. The crowns of both kingdoms were worn by a single sovereign, Ladislaus. Recruits were drawn from



CASTLE OF EUROPE, ON THE BOSPHORUS.

other countries by "an endless treasure of pardons and indulgences, scattered by the legate," and an army of 100,000 men was assembled under the command of John Huniades, one of the most distinguished soldiers of the time. An alliance was made with the Sultan of Caramania, in Asia, and a fleet was collected from Burgundy, Genoa, and Venice. The crusaders at first gained some important advantages, but their army, greatly reduced, was at length defeated and Ladislaus was slain in the battle of Varna, in 1444, by the Sultan Amurath II.

In 1451 Mohammed II. succeeded his father Amurath II. on the Turkish throne. Though he assured the Greek emperor of

his friendship, he began his reign by fortifying the Hellespont, and this led to war between the two sovereigns. In the spring of 1453 a Turkish army of 258,000 men invested Constantinople, and after a siege of fifty-three days, carried the city by assault. The last of the Greek emperors, Constantine XIII., after gallantly defending his capital, died, sword in hand, in the effort to repel the last assault. In this siege the Turks used cannon, which had for some time been regarded as a necessary part of the equipment of an army, but had never been used in so important an operation before. Mo-

ammed made Constantinople the capital of his empire, and converted the great Church of St. Sophia into a mosque.

With the fall of Constantinople the Eastern empire came to an end. The remaining territories of the Greek emperors were soon absorbed by the victorious Turks. Mohammed treated the Greeks with great liberality. He protected them in their lives and liberties, and allowed them the free exercise of their religion. One-half of the churches of Constantinople were left to them. For sixty years they enjoyed the benefits of this toleration.

BOOK XVII.

THE HISTORY OF ITALY.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE FALL OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE TO THE DEATH OF CHARLEMAGNE.

The Gothic Kingdom of Italy Founded by Odoacer—Theodoric Conquers Italy—Becomes King—His Excellent Reign—His Last Years—Athalaric King—Belisarius in Italy—His Conquests—Destruction of Milan by the Burgundians—Belisarius Captures Ravenna—Justinian Jealous of Belisarius—Conquests of Narses—Italy Subject to the Eastern Empire—The Exarchate of Ravenna—Settlement of the Lombards in Italy—The Iron Crown—The Lombard Kingdom—Condition of Rome During this Period—Dependent Position of the Pope—He Becomes a Civil Ruler—Gregory the Great—His Vigorous Measures—Decline of Civilization in Italy—St. Benedict—Founds the Monastic System—Benefits Conferred on the Country by the Monasteries—Improvement of Agriculture—Ignorance of the Clergy—The Pope Takes the Monks Under his Protection—The Iconoclastic War—Last Efforts of the Emperor to Regain his Power—War Between the Pope and the Lombards—The Pope Asks Aid of the Franks—Pepin in Italy—He Conquers the Franks—Bestows the States of the Church on the Holy See—Charlemagne Defends the Pope Against the Lombards—Is Crowned Emperor—His Power in Italy.

UPON the ruins of the Roman empire was erected, as has been related, the Ostrogothic kingdom of Italy, under Odoacer. He was the first barbarian who reigned over Italy, and was worthy of the high honor to which he was called. Within seven years after his accession he restored the consulship of the West. He compelled the barbarians of Gaul and Germany to respect

the frontiers of Italy, and exerted himself to restore the blessings of peace and good government to his people. In spite of his efforts, however, misery and desolation reigned throughout Italy. Losses in war and by famine and pestilence diminished the population of the country, and the means of subsistence underwent a corresponding decrease. Under the empire the tributary harvests of Egypt and Africa furnished an inexhaustible source of food; but these were now withdrawn, and the deficiency could not be supplied. After a reign of fourteen years Odoacer gave way before the superior genius of Theodoric, King of the Ostrogoths, "a hero alike excellent in the arts of war and of government."

Theodoric was born in A. D. 455, and had been carefully educated in the arts of war at Constantinople, where he had resided as a hostage. He disdained the more peaceful part of the Greek training, and to the last was ignorant of the art of writing. In A. D. 476 he succeeded by the death of his father to the throne of the Ostrogoths. At this time the Ostrogoths were settled in the region of the Danube, where they proved themselves dangerous neighbors to the Greek emperor, who in order to be rid of them gladly consented to the proposal of Theodoric to march against Odoacer and restore Italy to the Roman empire. The emperor prudently left it doubtful whether

the conqueror of Italy was to govern it as his vassal or his ally. The reputation of Theodoric drew to his standard an immense host, made up from the neighboring nations as well as from his own people, at the head of which he set out for Italy in A. D. 489. The march was made in midwinter, and the Goths took with them their families and all their movable possessions. Many hardships were endured, but at length the Gothic host swept over the Julian Alps and entered Italy. Odoacer was defeated in three battles and shut up in the impregnable fortress of Ravenna, which endured a siege of three years. Peace being made at the end of this time through the intervention of the Bishop of Ravenna, Odoacer and Theodoric agreed to share the sovereignty of Italy between them. Theodoric either murdered his rival soon after or caused his death, and thus became sole monarch, A. D. 493.

Having made himself master of Italy, Theodoric divided one-third of the lands of that country among his soldiers. Though he reigned as the lieutenant of the Eastern emperor, the imperial authority was merely nominal in his dominions. He aimed at setting up a dynasty, and while he recognized his own people as the conquerors of the peninsula, he protected the conquered Italians in their rights, and faithfully administered their laws among them. Under his rule Italy became the most peaceful and flourishing country in the world. The kingdom of Theodoric extended far beyond the limits of Italy to the north, east, and west. During the minority of his grandson Amalaric, the King of the Visigothic monarchy in Gaul and Spain, he ruled that kingdom wisely and well. As soon as the other barbarians of the West were satisfied that Theodoric did not intend to include them in his conquests, they universally recognized him as the leading monarch of the West, and sought his alliance and mediation. Though an Arian himself, Theodoric protected his Catholic subjects, and tolerated all forms of belief in his dominions. The fanatical mob burned the shops and dwellings of the Jews in several cities, and were obliged by the king to restore them. This even-handed justice drew upon Theodoric the wrath of the Catholic party, and convinced him that his efforts in behalf of his people had not overcome their prejudice against him as an Arian. The Eastern Emperor Anastasius, jealous of so powerful

a servant, attacked the dominions of Theodoric from the direction of the Danube, but was defeated by the warrior king with an inferior force. Anxious to wipe out this disgrace, the emperor despatched an expedition to plunder the coasts of Calabria and Apulia. The imperial forces gained some indecisive successes, but the firmness and energy of Theodoric compelled them to retreat, and soon brought about an honorable peace.

The last years of Theodoric were in striking contrast with the opening of his reign. Soured by the ingratitude of his people, he became suspicious and cruel. Boëthius, the most illustrious and learned of the Romans, was put to death on the charge of plotting to restore the authority of the Eastern emperor, and his execution was soon followed by that of Symmachus, his venerable father-in-law. Remorse for these crimes hastened the end of Theodoric himself, and he died in A. D. 526. Had he been more a statesman Theodoric might have founded an enduring state by a union of the Goths and the Romans, but he does not appear to have desired such a union. He did not even claim the title of King of Italy, but was merely king of his own Goths. His kingdom did not long survive him, as we shall see.

Theodoric was succeeded by his grandson Athalaric. As the new king was but ten years old, the regency passed into the hands of his mother Amalasontha, the daughter of Theodoric, who was assisted by the wise counsels of her minister Cassiodorus. Her son failed to profit by her care and instruction, and gave himself up to riotous living and excesses of all kinds. Being punished by his mother, he appealed to the Goths to sustain him, and the queen regent was obliged to resign the authority to him. He did not enjoy it long, but died at the age of sixteen from the effects of intemperance. Amalasontha, in violation of Gothic law and custom, then endeavored to retain the throne by conferring her hand upon her cousin Theodatus and raising him to the rank of king. Theodatus, however, refused to be ruled by a woman, and caused his wife to be strangled in her bath, A. D. 535.

The Emperor Justinian, who had been eagerly watching for a pretext to regain Italy, now constituted himself the avenger of Amalasontha, and prepared to invade the peninsula with a force under the command of Belisarius. Sicily was conquered

towards the close of A. D. 535. The next spring Belisarius crossed to the mainland. The chief strength of the Ostrogoths lay in the north of Italy, and the Greek influence was strong enough in the south to render its conquest by the imperial forces an easy matter. The southern Italians welcomed Belisarius as a deliverer, but the barbarian garrison of Naples held out against him. The city was taken by surprise, and upon its fall Apulia and Calabria were restored to the empire. Advancing northward, Belisarius entered Rome, which opened its gates to him with joy, A. D. 536.

Vitiges, the successor of Theodatus, assembled a powerful Gothic army, and laid siege to Rome, which was bravely defended by Belisarius with an inferior force for more than a year. During this siege the sepulchre of Hadrian, now known as the Castle of St. Angelo, was used for the first time as a fortress. The Goths lost heavily in their attacks upon the city; 30,000 men fell in the principal assault; and Vitiges was obliged to draw off his decimated army to Ravenna, leaving Belisarius master of Italy. This great general could easily have conquered the entire country but for the dissensions of the Roman chiefs. Valuable time was lost, and the Goths were given a breathing spell. Ten thousand Burgundians, allies of the Gothic king, captured and destroyed Milan, which had revolted from Vitiges, A. D. 538. The next spring Theodebert, the grandson of Clovis, passed the Alps at the head of 100,000 Franks, and defeated both the Roman and the Gothic armies near Pavia, and ravaged Liguria and Æmilia until his losses from disease and the intemperance of his troops compelled him to return to his own country.

Belisarius now applied himself to the completion of the conquest of Italy. He laid siege to Ravenna, and reduced that impregnable city by famine. The Goths, weary of Vitiges, proposed to deliver up the city to Belisarius if he would make himself their king. He pretended to accept the proposal, but upon gaining possession of Ravenna, threw off the mask and declared that he held the city only as the lieutenant of the emperor. Pavia, garrisoned by 1,000 Goths, alone held out, and these warriors elevated Totila, the nephew of Vitiges, to the vacant throne. Before Belisarius could attempt anything against this stronghold, he was recalled to Constan-

tinople by the emperor, who had become jealous of his fame. Totila at once attempted to regain all that had been lost by his uncle. Many cities which had welcomed Belisarius as a deliverer had been so sorely oppressed by the Byzantine officials that they now gladly opened their gates to Totila. Rome was taken in A. D. 546, the senators carried away as prisoners, and its people scattered. The noble character of Totila won him friends on all sides, and it seemed that he was about to restore the Gothic kingdom in all its strength. Such rapid and marked success compelled Justinian to restore Belisarius to the command in Italy, but the emperor could not overcome his jealousy of his great general, and sent him to Italy without troops, and delayed those which were ordered to follow him. Belisarius "soon discovered that he was sent to remain the idle and impotent spectator of the glory of a young barbarian." Crossing to the coast of Epirus, he succeeded by extraordinary exertions in assembling a small force, with which he sailed to the mouth of the Tiber. He arrived in time to witness the capture of Rome by Totila, and though he was too weak to prevent this, he succeeded by his firm and temperate remonstrance in inducing Totila to spare the city, which he had resolved to destroy. Upon the departure of Totila for southern Italy Belisarius, with a thousand horse, seized the deserted city, and, erecting the imperial standard upon the capitol, succeeded in inducing the scattered population to return. The fortifications were repaired, and Totila was repulsed with severe loss in his efforts to retake Rome, A. D. 547. The jealousy of the emperor still continued to hamper Belisarius, and he was unable to follow up his success. His movements in southern Italy were defeated by the disobedience and the cowardice of his own officers. In 548, finding it impossible to accomplish anything in the face of such obstacles, he sought and obtained leave to return to Constantinople. In A. D. 549 the city of Rome was again captured by Totila, who overran Italy, conquered Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, and invaded Greece. These successes induced the pope himself to head a deputation to Justinian, imploring his aid against the Goths. The emperor despatched a strong force under the eunuch Narses, a man of commanding abilities, and a favorite of the emperor. Narses was invested with absolute power for the prosecution of the

war, and was liberally supported by the emperor. He succeeded in regaining the lost territory, and defeated and slew Totila in a great battle near Tagina. Rome at once passed into his hands, A. D. 552, changing masters for the fifth time during the reign of Justinian.

Teias, the last Gothic king in Italy, succeeded to the throne of Totila, and sought aid of the Franks. Before it could reach him he was defeated and killed at Cumæ, in A. D. 553. In the ensuing autumn a force of 75,000 Germans passed the Alps and ravaged Italy to the extreme southern end of the peninsula. They were defeated at Casilinum, on the Vulturnus, by Narses, with terrible slaughter.

All Italy was now subject to the emperor, and the Ostrogothic kingdom, after an existence of sixty years (A. D. 493-553) was at an end. Italy was erected into an exarchate, with the seat of government at Ravenna, and was governed by a lieutenant of the emperor, with the title of exarch. Narses was the first and greatest of the exarchs. He reigned from A. D. 554 to 568. The Goths either emigrated in search of new homes, or were absorbed into the mass of the Italian people.

The destruction of the Gothic power in Italy was productive of a result which the emperor had not foreseen. During the life of Theodoric and of his daughter Amalasontha, the Goths had faithfully guarded the important barrier of the upper Danube against the Gepidæ, who had, since the days of Attila, occupied, on the opposite banks of the Danube, the plains of Hungary and the Transylvania hills. The necessities of the Goths in Italy compelled them to evacuate Pannonia and Noricum for the defence of their Italian possessions against the imperial arms. Those regions were instantly occupied by the Gepidæ, who, not content with these acquisitions, threatened to burst into Italy. To defeat them Justinian called in the Lombards or Langobards (Long Beards), who had moved from the eastern banks of the Elbe down to the upper Danube. The Lombard King Audoin accepted the invitation, and, entering Pannonia with his troops, began a war with the Gepidæ, which lasted for thirty years. At his death he was succeeded by his son Alboin, who had greatly distinguished himself by his savage bravery. Alboin finding the Gepidæ too formidable to be defeated by his own people, made an alliance with the

Avars, and the result was the extermination of the Gepidæ. Alboin slew Cunimund, the King of the Gepidæ, and married Rosamond, the daughter of that monarch, A. D. 566. The Avars received the lands of the Gepidæ as the price of their services, and the Lombards were obliged to look out for new homes. The way to Italy was open, and thither they resolved to go. Narses had been degraded and removed from the exarchate, and the emperor possessed no servant capable of resisting the advance of the fierce warriors of the north.

Alboin crossed the Julian Alps in A. D. 568, and in a short time made himself master of Italy as far as Ravenna and Rome. Pavia alone resisted him in a three years' siege, but was taken in A. D. 571, and made the capital of the Lombard kingdom, which was divided into thirty duchies. Alboin did not long enjoy his success. Having mortally affronted Rosamond, his wife, by compelling her to honor his success by drinking from the skull of her father, she organized a conspiracy against him, and he was slain by the conspirators, A. D. 573. Rosamond and her lover, the latter of whom was the principal actor in the tragedy, fled to the court of the exarch of Ravenna. Longinus, the exarch, becoming enamored of the beautiful queen, offered her his hand in marriage, and she undertook to remove Helmichis, her lover, by poison, in order to accept the offer. Helmichis discovered her treachery and compelled her to drink also of the fatal cup. He then expired a few moments before the queen.

Upon the death of Alboin, the Lombard chiefs elected Cleph or Clepho, the bravest of themselves, to be king. He was assassinated in A. D. 574, and for the next ten years the kingdom had no regular government. Each chief seized some city for himself. Some of them attempted to invade the territories of the German tribes beyond the Alps, and the people of Rome besought aid of the Emperor Tiberius, who, unable to help them, bribed Chilperic, the Frankish king, to invade Italy and drive out the Lombards. In this emergency, the Lombards conferred their crown upon Autharis, the son of Cleph, who defeated the Franks, and compelled them to return to their own country. The last Frankish invasion was led by Childebert, who was encouraged to it by the Emperor Maurice. Autharis completely baffled the Frankish

sovereign by his prudence and superior generalship, and, declining an engagement, allowed the heat of summer to defeat his antagonist. The victorious Lombard extended his kingdom to the southern extremity of the peninsula, where he founded the great duchy of Benevento. He died in A. D. 590, and his widow, Theodolinda, was intrusted by the Lombards with the choice of his successor. She conferred the crown and her hand upon Agilulf, Duke of Turin, who reigned until A. D. 615. She converted her husband and many of his subjects from the Arian to the Catholic faith, and was rewarded by Pope Gregory the Great with the famous *Iron Crown* of Lombardy, which is still preserved in the cathedral of Milan, and which is said to have been made of one of the nails of the true cross.

Italy was now divided between the Exarch of Ravenna and the Lombard king. The exarch ruled over the country east of the Apennines from the Po to Ancona. Rome, with the country between Terracina and Civita Vecchia, the duchy of Naples, the islands of Sicily, Corsica and Sardinia, and the territories of the young republic of Venice were also subject to him. The duchy of Naples soon became actually independent, though it continued to own a nominal allegiance to the emperor. The Lombard kingdom included northern Italy and the two great duchies of Spoleto and Benevento. The Lombards held themselves aloof from the Italians, and despised their weakness, though they treated them with justice. Nevertheless they profited by their contact with civilization. Their kingdom in Italy was on the whole peaceful and prosperous, and their code of laws, framed by King Rotharis, who reigned in the seventh century, is esteemed the best of the barbarian codes.

During all these years Rome had sunk almost into insignificance. No longer the capital of Italy, it had fallen to the rank of a second-rate city. The barbarians were utterly ignorant of its history, and did not even know the names of the great men who had won its glory. Only one thing prevented it from being forgotten. It was the seat of the Bishop of Rome, who had come to be regarded as the champion of the orthodox Catholic faith, and whom the necessities of the times obliged to become the civil as well as the spiritual head of the Eternal City and its dependent territory. He was

not yet an independent ruler, but governed his possessions as the servant of the emperor. As the dignity of the Latin Church increased, the authority of the Roman bishop, or pope, was correspondingly augmented. At the present time, however, he was dependent upon the emperor for protection against the barbarians. "He was put under the orders of the exarch; but he did not gain any protection for himself or his city from the power he was forced to acknowledge. The Lombards threatened Rome; the emperor could only incite the Franks to make a raid upon them, and the exarch irritated, but could not hurt his powerful neighbors, who kept pressing down on the remnants of the imperial territory."

At this juncture the Roman see gained a great advantage in the elevation to the papal throne of Gregory, whom succeeding generations have unanimously named "the Great." Gregory was of noble birth, and this, with his abilities, raised him to the office of prefect of the city. Renouncing all civil honors, he embraced a religious life. Upon being made deacon, he was sent to represent the Roman see at the Byzantine court, where he boldly assumed in the name of St. Peter a tone of independent dignity which would not have been tolerated in the proudest noble of the empire. Returning to Rome with an increased reputation, he was soon compelled, against his inclination, and by the unanimous voice of the people, the senate, and the clergy, to ascend the papal throne. His pontificate extended through the century and embraced the first four years of the seventh century, and constitutes one of the most important periods of mediæval history. "He frequently ascended the pulpit, and kindled, by his rude though pathetic eloquence, the congenial passions of his audience. . . . His precepts and example defined the model of the Roman liturgy; the distribution of the parishes, the calendar of festivals, the order of processions, the service of the priests and deacons, the variety and change of sacerdotal garments. Till the last days of his life he officiated in the canon of the mass, which continued above three hours: the Gregorian chant has preserved the vocal and instrumental music of the theatre, and the rough voices of the barbarians attempted to imitate the melody of the Roman school. Under his reign the Arians of Italy and Spain were reconciled to the

Catholic Church, and the conquest of Britain reflects less glory on the name of Cæsar than on that of Gregory the First." Gregory maintained with firmness the dignity and independence of the Roman see against the encroachments of the Patriarch of Constantinople. When that dignitary claimed the universal allegiance of the Christian Church as supreme bishop, Gregory met his claim with a spirited protest, in which he asserted the independence of his own and every other see. "This," said he, "I declare with confidence, that who so designates himself Universal Priest, or, in the pride of his heart, consents to be so named, he is the forerunner of Antichrist."

But Gregory did not confine himself to the spiritual care of the Roman people. As their temporal ruler he governed them with wisdom and vigor, and successfully laid the foundations of the great edifice of the temporal power of the popes. By his wise measures he freed Rome from the pestilence and famine; he made an alliance with his powerful southern neighbor, the Duke of Spoleto, and thus secured his territory in that quarter; while he defended his northern border against the Lombards. By his wisdom and vigor he made the centre of independent action in Italy in temporal as well as spiritual matters. By the conversion of Theodolinda and Agilulf, the Lombards were changed from enemies into friends, and the Italians enjoyed a season of peace, of which they were very greatly in need.

The condition of Italy during the seventh century was very sad indeed. The Lombards ruled their territories on the whole with wisdom and firmness, but the state of the exarchate was one of anarchy. It was a time when individual rights were not acknowledged or respected, when the strongest man alone was sure of anything. "Conquest, spoliation and insecurity had done their work. Wave after wave had passed over the surface of the old Roman state and obliterated almost all the landmarks of the ancient time. The towns, to be sure, still remained, but stripped of their old magnificence and thinly peopled by the dispossessed inhabitants of the soil, who congregated together for mutual support. Trade was carried on, but subject to the exactions, and sometimes the open robberies, of the avaricious chieftains who had reared their fortresses

on the neighboring heights. Large tracts of country lay waste and desolate, or were left to the happy fertility of nature in the growth of spontaneous woods. Marshes were formed over whole districts, and the cattle picked up an uncertain existence by browsing over great expanses of poor and unenclosed land. These flocks and herds were guarded by hordes of armed serfs, who camped beside them on the fields, and led a life not unlike that of their remote ancestors on the steppes of Tartary." Nor was this the condition of Italy alone. It was the same throughout Europe.

Out of this darkness and neglect agriculture, which had become almost a lost art, took a new birth. There had arisen in various parts of Italy monasteries, peopled by Benedictine monks. The wise founder of the order, St. Benedict, appreciating the evils which must ensue from the assembling under a single roof of a number of idle persons, enjoined upon his followers "to beware of idleness, as the greatest enemy of the soul." He directed them to devote themselves to the cultivation of the soil and to the discharge of the various duties belonging to the domestic service of their convents, and bade them not to be uneasy if at any time the cares of the harvest hindered them from their formal readings and regulated prayers. "No person," he said, "is ever more usefully employed than when working with his hands, or following the plough, providing food for the use of man." The good effects of these instructions soon manifested themselves. The lands attached to the monasteries were generally selected with a view to their cultivation, and were always better tilled than those which lay around them. They thus became so many examples of the most approved methods of cultivation, their lessons were taken to heart and acted upon, and the cultivation of the soil was resumed under the direct sanction of the church. Moreover, labor was rescued from the degradation into which it had sunk, and ennobled by the participation in it of the hands consecrated to the holy offices of religion. Agriculture was invested with a certain degree of sanctity, as it was so uniformly found an accompaniment of the priestly character. As the Benedictine order spread into Gaul and other lands, it carried with it these benefits. The kings, grateful for the services thus rendered their people, bestowed upon the monasteries many privileges which became so many defences

to them. The privilege of sanctuary extended to their lands as well as to their churches, and he was a bold man indeed who dared to invade this sacred domain for purposes of violence. Other measures followed, and the clergy were constituted a superior race. Immunities were heaped upon them, and at the Council of Paris, in A. D. 613, it was decreed that the priest who offended against the common law should be tried by a mixed court of priests and laymen. Later on, the trial of such offenders was turned over to ecclesiastical courts exclusively.

The monasteries were not only places of refuge, but were the only retreats of learning in this period of darkness and violence. Whatever of education and culture had survived the Roman overthrow was preserved in these asylums, in which the scholar found a sure refuge from violence, and the leisure and means of pursuing his congenial studies. Secure in the favor with which they were regarded by all classes, the clergy formed the most powerful if not the only order of the state. "Nothing, indeed, added more at the commencement of the seventh century, to the authority of these great ecclesiastical chieftains, than the circumstance that their interests were supported, not only by their neighboring brethren, but by mitred abbot or lordly bishop in distant lands. If a prior or his monks found themselves ill used on the banks of the Seine, their cause was taken up by all other monks and priors, wherever they were placed. And the rapidity of their intercommunication was extraordinary. Each monastery seems to have had a number of active young brethren who traversed the wildest regions with letters or messages, and brought back replies, almost with the speed and regularity of an established post. A convent on Lebaon was informed in a very short time of what had happened in Provence—the letter from the Western abbot was read and deliberated on, and an answer intrusted to the messenger, who again travelled over the immense tract lying between, receiving hospitality at the different religious establishments that occurred upon his way, and everywhere treated with the kindness of a brother. Monasteries in this way became the centres of news as well as of learning, and for many hundred years the only people who knew anything of the state of feeling in foreign nations, or had a glimpse of the mutual interests of distant kingdoms,

were the cowed and gowned individuals who were supposed to have given up the world and to be totally immersed in penances and prayers."

It must not be supposed that the church was spared by the general deluge of ignorance and immorality which overspread the European world. Ambitious contests arrayed the different orders against each other, and as the church grew in prosperity it became more corrupt. The elegant scholarship which was once characteristic of the clergy disappeared. Often a bishop could neither read nor write, and was a man of notoriously evil life. Learning took refuge in the monasteries, where alone it was safe from destruction. Quarrels sprang up between the bishops and the monks, and the former often gained the ill will of the latter by their oppressive treatment of them.

In this juncture the pope interfered in behalf of the monks. He took them under his special protection, and, relieving them from the supervision of their local bishops, made them directly dependent upon and responsible to himself. By this one act he gained for himself the uncompromising and enthusiastic support of the most compact and influential body in Europe. "Wherever they went, they held forth the pope as the first of earthly powers, and began already, in the enthusiasm of their gratitude, to speak of him as something more than mortal. To this the illiterate preachers and prelates had nothing to reply. They were sunk either in the grossest darkness, or involved in the wildest schemes of ambition, bishoprics being even held by laymen, and by both priest and laymen used as instruments of advancement and wealth. From these the pontiff on the Tiber, whose weaknesses and vices were unknown, and who was held up for invidious contrast with the bishops of their acquaintance by the libellous and grateful monks, had nothing to fear." And so championed by the monks, who rapidly spread into all lands where Christianity prevailed, the power and personal influence of the pope were securely established as a firm basis upon which the great fabric of his temporal claims was subsequently erected.

Until the beginning of the eighth century, the Italians, though left defenceless by the emperor, never ceased to regard themselves as his subjects, and although the Bishop of Rome had been forced by the necessities of his people to constitute him-

self a temporal prince, and did not hesitate to maintain his independence against the exarch, yet he still acknowledged an allegiance to the eastern emperor. The Iconoclastic war, inaugurated by Leo III., struck a decisive blow at what had become one of the most cherished practices of the Catholic Church. The opposition which this measure aroused in Italy was far more serious and determined than that which it excited in the East. Pope Gregory II. endeavored to turn the emperor from his purpose, and failing in this, boldly refused in the name of the western church to allow the execution of the imperial decree for the removal or destruction of the images. A great breach was thus opened between the empire and Italy, which widened daily. Gregory III., who was made pope in A. D. 731, though he did not renounce his allegiance, proved himself an equally resolute defender of the images, and adorned the churches in Rome with magnificent objects of adoration.

"The emperor, about this time, made his last desperate effort to retrieve his fortunes in Italy, to relieve the Exarch Eutychius, who was shut up in powerless inactivity in Ravenna, and to reduce the refractory pope and Italy to obedience. A formidable armament was embarked on board a great fleet, under command of Manes, one of his bravest and most experienced generals. The fleet encountered a terrible storm in the Adriatic; great part of the ships were lost; and the image worshippers on the coast of Calabria beheld their shores strewn with the wrecks of the Iconoclastic navy. Henceforth the Eastern empire almost acquiesced in the loss of the exarchate. Eutychius maintained for a long time his perilous position in Ravenna, temporizing between the pope, the Lombards, and the Franks. Nearly twenty years later he abandoned the seat of government, and took refuge in Naples."

The peace between the pope and the Lombards was broken by Liudprand, the Lombard king, who took Ravenna, and then began to overrun the Roman territory. The pope (Gregory II.) made an alliance with the Venetians, and retook the city. Everywhere the Italians supported him against the emperor, who, as the champion of Iconoclasm, had gained their uncompromising hostility. Still Gregory hesitated to definitely throw off his allegiance to the emperor, as he needed an ally against the

Lombards, who were pressing him hard. Seeing the impossibility of gaining assistance from the emperor, Gregory at length took the decisive step, and appealed to Charles Martel, the Duke of the Franks and the real ruler of the Frankish kingdom, for aid. Gregory II. died in the midst of the negotiations, but his successor, Gregory III., took up the struggle with equal vigor. Then followed the loss of Ravenna by the exarch, and his subsequent flight. Italy was now forever lost to the empire. Only the pope and the Lombard king remained to contest its sovereignty. Liudprand, by endeavoring to reduce the pope to submission to him, compelled Gregory III. to call upon the Franks for aid, as his predecessor had done. The pope offered the Frankish leader the sovereignty of the Roman people as the reward of his intervention. Charles prepared to accept the offer, but died before he could do so, A. D. 741.

Later on, in A. D. 752, the Lombard king, Astolph, having seized Ravenna and invaded the Roman territories, Pope Stephen II. appealed for aid to Pepin, the son of Charles Martel, who had been declared King of the Franks by Pope Zachary. Pope Stephen crossed the Alps to solicit the protection of the Frankish king, and was received by him with the highest reverence. In the autumn of 754 Pepin entered Italy at the head of a powerful army, and compelled Astolph to restore the Roman territory. Pepin had scarcely left Italy on his return home when the Lombard king renewed the war, and, encamping before Rome, demanded the surrender of the pope as the price of the city's safety. In response to the appeal of the pope, Pepin again crossed the Alps, and reduced the Lombards to such straits that Astolph was obliged to purchase peace by the surrender of all his conquests, including the exarchate and Pentapolis. Pepin, who declared that he undertook the war only for the glory of St. Peter, bestowed upon the pope the whole of the restored territory. Thus began the temporal sovereignty of the Bishops of Rome, which continued until A. D. 1871. The district thus acquired by the pope included Ravenna, Rimini, and twenty-three other cities, and embraced the territories of the exarchate and the Pentapolis, which were afterwards known as the States of the Church. "By the gift of a foreign potentate this large part of Italy became the

kingdom of the Bishop of Rome. The sovereignty of this territory was retained by Pepin, but its immediate government with its rich revenues passed into the hands of the pope. In return the pontiff conferred upon Pepin the title of Patrician of the Romans. "This gave him some vague authority in the city, but the emperor was still nominally acknowledged. But it was only in theory that the emperor still reigned over Italy, and the real power of the Frankish patrician was small, because he was the other side of the Alps, while the pope, by his gift, really reigned over the remains of the Roman province." Still the pope was not yet an independent sovereign. Money was coined and justice administered in the name of the King of the Franks, and even the election of the pontiff was subject to his revision.

After the death of Pepin the war was renewed against the pope by the Lombard king, Desiderius, who invaded Romagna, laid waste the country, and threatened Rome. Pope Adrian I. appealed to Charlemagne, the Frankish king, the son of Pepin, for assistance, and Charlemagne, who was not averse to going to war with Desiderius, entered Italy with a powerful army, captured Pavia after a siege of several months, took Desiderius prisoner, and put an end to the Lombard kingdom, which he added to his own dominions. During the siege of Pavia, Charlemagne spent Holy Week at Rome, and confirmed the gift of his father Pepin to the pope, A. D. 774. In A. D. 781 Charlemagne entered Italy again to protect the pope against a league of "all the adversaries of the papal and the Frankish interests," headed by Arigiso, the Lombard Duke of Benevento, who had married the daughter of Desiderius. The prompt appearance of the great conqueror in Italy put an end to this trouble, and compelled the submission of the rebels.

Adrian I. died in A. D. 795, and Leo III. was elected pope in his place. The new pontiff had many enemies among the factions which divided Rome, and these carried their hostility to the extent of attacking him in the streets of Rome and almost killing him, A. D. 799. He escaped to Spoleto, and thence to Paderborn, where Charlemagne was waging war with the Saxons. The pope naturally appealed to the Frankish monarch for the punishment of his enemies and his restoration to his

throne, and his enemies endeavored to defend their course by charging the pontiff with grave crimes. Charlemagne "did not decline, but postponed till his arrival in Rome the judicial investigation of these charges; but he continued to treat the pope with undiminished respect and familiarity."

In the winter of A. D. 800-1 Charlemagne proceeded to Rome, and the trial of Pope Leo III. took place. It resulted, as a matter of course, in his acquittal, and Charlemagne with his own voice proclaimed the innocence of the pontiff. On Christmas day, A. D. 800, the pope solemnly crowned Charlemagne Emperor of the West. Of this latter event and of the empire of Charlemagne we shall treat in the history of Germany. The Italian kingdom of Charlemagne extended from the Alps southward to Terracina. The duchy of Benevento paid him tribute, but was in other respects independent. "The cities of Gaëta and Naples, and the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, with the extreme ends of Calabria and Apulia, which received the high-sounding title of the Theme of Lombardy, still acknowledged the eastern Cæsar. Venice was busy with her own affairs, and stood aloof from Italian politics. At this time, and for long after, she knew no emperor save him who reigned in Constantinople."

CHAPTER II.

FROM THE DEATH OF CHARLEMAGNE TO THE DEATH OF POPE GREGORY VII.

Italy Tranquil During the Reign of Charlemagne—Lothaire Becomes Emperor—Conquests of the Saracens in Southern Italy—They Besiege Rome—Are Defeated by Pope Leo IV.—The "Leonine City"—Wars with the Saracens—The Pope Pays Tribute to the Infidel—Wars in the North of Italy—Charles the Fat Emperor—Fall of the Empire of Charlemagne—Italy Ravaged by the Hungarians and Northmen—Disorders in Italy—The Emperor Otto Deprives the Romans of their Independence—Revolt of Crescentius—Pope Sylvester II.—Efforts of the Italian Cities to Preserve their Independence—Municipal Governments—Rise of the Italian Republics—Growth of the Venetian State—Pisa—Genoa—The Normans Drive the Saracens from Sicily—Their Conquests in Southern Italy—They Capture the Pope and Become his Champions—Destruction of the Commerce of Southern Italy—Great Corruption of the Church—Simony—Hildebrand—Becomes Pope as Gregory VII.—His Reforms—Enforces Celibacy Upon the Clergy—The Practice of Investitures—Gregory puts a Stop to it—His Haughty Treatment of the Sovereigns of Europe—Quarrels with the German Emperor Henry IV.—Excommunicates him—Humiliation of Henry—His Visit to the Pope—

Shameful Treatment of the Emperor—Henry Renews the War—Sets up an Antipope—Clement III.—Gregory Rescued by the Normans—Death of Gregory VII.

DURING the life of Charlemagne, Italy enjoyed a period of rest and quiet, but, in the troubles which followed his death, suffered with the rest of the empire. By the treaty of Verdun, in A. D. 843, Lothaire, the grandson of Charlemagne, received the imperial title and a long and narrow kingdom stretching from the North Sea to the southern boundary of his grandfather's Italian dominions. Lothaire associated his son Louis in the empire, and made him ruler over Lombardy.

In the meantime the Saracens, who had conquered Crete, began in A. D. 827 their efforts to gain possession of Sicily. The struggle was continued for fifty years, and then Syracuse was taken and the whole island overrun, A. D. 878. Long before this the Arabs had begun to direct their efforts against the mainland of Italy. From the Sicilian ports the Moslem squadrons ravaged the Italian coast at pleasure. Encouraged by the dissensions of the cities of southern Italy, the Saracens made a firm lodgment in the lower end of the peninsula, and extended their ravages to the vicinity of Rome, and finally laid siege to the Eternal City itself. Had they been united they might have made themselves masters of the entire peninsula. Rome was saved by the courageous conduct of Pope Leo IV. He successfully resisted the Saracens in their attacks upon the city, and brought about a league of the cities of Gaëta, Naples, and Amalfi. Their combined fleets inflicted a severe defeat upon the Arabian fleet off Ostia, and the remnant of the beaten squadron was destroyed by a tempest. Leo could not prevent the Saracens from plundering the churches and shrines which lay without the walls. Upon the withdrawal of the enemy he enclosed this portion—the Vatican quarter—with a strong wall, and called it, in honor of himself, the *Leonine City*, A. D. 852.

The advance of the Emperor Louis II. into southern Italy saved Rome from further attacks. The Saracens succeeded in capturing Bari, which enabled them to command the Adriatic, and made their power severely felt in southern Italy. This brought about a league between the Eastern Emperor Basil I. and the Western Emperor

Louis II., who joined their forces to expel them from this important point. The army of Louis besieged Bari by land, while the Greek fleet assailed it from the sea, and in A. D. 871 the city was obliged to yield to this combined attack. After the death of Louis the Saracens again made great progress, assisted by the Dukes of Naples, who, though nominally the vassals of the Greek emperor, were really independent sovereigns. Upon the death of Louis, Charles the Bald, King of France, was crowned emperor by his nephew, Pope John VIII. Being hard pressed by the infidels, John sent urgent appeals to the emperor to come to his aid, but the latter would not undertake the task, and the pontiff was obliged to purchase the safety of the city by paying tribute to the Moslems.

The principal result of the expulsion of the Saracens from Bari was the revival of the Greek power in southern Italy. The weakness of the Carolingian house in the peninsula enabled the Greek emperor to capture a great number of Saracen castles. The province known as the Theme of Lombardy extended as far north as Salernum. The Greek cities of Naples and Amalfi, and the Lombard rulers of Beneventum and Capua also acknowledged the Eastern emperor as their sovereign lord, but they were not always to be depended upon. The feuds of the rulers of northern Italy were a sure protection to the Greeks of the south from interference at this important period of their history.

In northern Italy the remainder of the ninth century was marked by the struggles of the Carolingian princes for the supreme power. When the century closed the principal powers of the north were Duke of Friuli, the Count of Tuscany, and the Archbishop of Milan, whose allegiance to the Carolingian King of Italy was chiefly nominal. At the death of Charles the Bald the Italian crown was seized by Carloman, the son of Louis, King of the East Franks. Pope John VIII. endeavored to set up a rival to the German party in the person of Boso, who had been elected King of Provence; but Charles the Fat compelled the pope to crown him emperor, and so secured the triumph of the German party. The new emperor was powerless to quell the disturbances among the Italian nobles, or to check the aggressions of the Saracens. He died in A. D. 887. With him ended the Carolingian line in Italy, and the great

empire of Charlemagne fell to pieces. A struggle at once ensued between the adherents of Beranger, Duke of Friuli, and Guido, Duke of Spoleto, for the possession of the Italian crown. Guido was victorious and was crowned emperor, and Beranger appealed to the German king, Arnulf, to assist him against his enemy. Arnulf responded willingly to the summons, and invaded Italy in A. D. 894. Having taken Rome, he set aside both Beranger and Lambert, the son of Guido, who had died during the struggle, and was himself crowned emperor by Pope Formosus. He had no real power in Italy, and soon returned to Germany, where he died in A. D. 899. Lambert died near about the same time, and Beranger gained possession of the Italian throne.

The early part of the tenth century brought many disasters to Italy. Among these were the invasion of the Magyars or Hungarians, a fierce Turanian horde, who swept over the Alps and ravaged northern Italy with fire and sword; and of the Northmen, who, under their famous leader Hastings, captured, plundered, and destroyed the city of Luna, having mistaken it for Rome. The Saracens also kept southern Italy in a state of terror until A. D. 916, when the warlike Pope John X. took the field against them, assisted by a number of the princes of southern Italy and a Greek fleet, and inflicted a severe defeat upon the infidels, which put a stop to their outrages.

Not the least among the troubles of this unhappy country were the frequent revolutions which kept the whole peninsula in a state of constant strife, and inflicted much suffering upon it. The elevation of Beranger to the Italian throne was mainly the work of Adalbert, the great Count of Tuscany. Becoming dissatisfied with his work, Adalbert called in Louis of Provence, the son of Boso, to overthrow him. Louis, however, did not remain long upon the throne, as the Tuscan king-maker, finding him a less pliant tool than he had expected, soon dethroned him. Rudolph of Burgundy next appeared to contest the rule of Beranger, who still managed to maintain his authority over a portion of Italy. At length Beranger was assassinated.

Rome was at this time virtually ruled by an infamous woman named Marozia, who acquired notoriety as the mistress of one pope, the mother of a second, and the grandmother of a third, and the record of whose

career forms the darkest page in the history of the papacy. Upon the death of Beranger I., Marozia sought to strengthen herself by marrying Hugh of Provence, who had assumed the Italian crown and had been acknowledged king by Pope John XI., the son of Marozia. She succeeded in introducing him into the Castle of St. Angelo, but the Romans, led by Alberic, the legitimate son of Marozia, refused to allow Hugh to enter their city, and confined him to the castle, from which Alberic soon drove him. Marozia was thrown into prison, the pope was confined to the exercise of his spiritual functions, and for twenty years Alberic ruled Rome, restoring to a limited degree the old republican institutions. He was succeeded by his son Octavian, who for a while ruled the city as consul. Upon the death of his uncle John XI., Octavian made himself pope under the name of John XII.

Hugh of Provence, though driven from Rome, retained his hold upon the rest of Italy, but he was such an infamous tyrant and robbed his people so unmercifully that they soon began to plot against him. The most formidable of these plots, which had the support of the greater portion of the Italian nobles, had for its object the elevation to the throne of Beranger, Marquis of Iorea, the most powerful noble of northern Italy. It was detected by Hugh, and Beranger was forced to fly; but in the end Hugh was compelled to quit Italy and go back to Provence (A. D. 945), leaving his son Lothaire, as King of Italy. Lothaire died in A. D. 950, and his death is attributed to Beranger, who at once mounted the throne as Beranger II.

Beranger II. endeavored to compel Adelaide, the young and beautiful widow of Lothaire, to wed his son Adalbert, and upon her refusal to do so, threw her into prison, and treated her with great cruelty. She succeeded in escaping, and appealed to the German king, Otto the Great, for protection. Otto crossed the Alps, defeated Beranger, and married the beautiful Adelaide himself. He took the title of King of the Lombards, but allowed Beranger to retain his crown and Lombardy as his vassal, A. D. 951. Otto returned home in triumph, leaving Beranger to govern northern Italy. After ten years of violence and discontent, during which the Lombard nobles succeeded in winning the uncompromising hostility of the Pope John XII.,

whose infamous life had disgusted all Europe, the pontiff put an end to the disorders by inviting Otto to assume the imperial crown. He was crowned with Queen Adelaide at Rome, in February, A. D. 962.

Although the pope had urged Otto to assume the imperial crown he did not remain faithful to him. Otto had scarcely passed the Alps on his return to Germany when John began to plot against him, and finally plunged Rome into a revolt against its German master. This drew upon him the vengeance of the emperor, and he was solemnly deposed from his high office for his crimes, and the Romans were deprived of their independent institutions and placed under the rule of Leo VIII., a pope of the emperor's own selection, and devoted to his interests. Thus the power of Otto was firmly established in Rome. Otto endeavored, but without success, to add southern Italy to his empire, and even went to the extreme of war with the Greek emperor, Nicephorus Phocas, for this purpose. His son, Otto II., carried out the policy of his father in this respect, and with the aid of the Lombard Duke of Beneventum attempted the conquest of southern Italy. The people, however, allied themselves with the Saracens, and in the bloody battle of Crotona inflicted a severe defeat upon Otto's forces, and saved the Lombard Theme for the eastern emperor (A. D. 982), whose power in Italy was greatly increased by this victory. Upon the death of Pandulf Ironhead, Duke of Beneventum, the ally of Otto, that duchy fell into decay and finally broke up into a number of small parts, the majority of which became subject to the eastern emperor.

The Romans attempted to regain their independent municipal government during the latter part of the reign of Otto II., and set up a consul named Crescentius, who compelled Pope John XV. to acknowledge his authority. In A. D. 996, however, Otto III. came to Rome at the head of a powerful army, put an end to the consular government, and was crowned emperor by Gregory V., a German pope, whom he had placed in the chair of St. Peter. As soon as the emperor had departed from Rome Crescentius raised the city in revolt against him, set up a Greek as antipope, and appealed to the eastern emperor for assistance. Otto promptly returned to Rome, deposed the antipope and cruelly tortured him, and laid siege to the Castle of St. Angelo, in

which Crescentius had taken refuge. He drew Crescentius from the castle upon the promise of accepting his surrender, and then faithlessly put him to death. Self-government was now at an end in Rome, and the power of the emperor was supreme. Otto even dreamed of reviving the ancient glories of the Roman empire, and of reigning as master of the world with Rome as his capital, but his early death put an end to his plans. One of his last acts was the elevation to the papal throne of his tutor, Gerbert, who was esteemed the most profound scholar and most daring thinker of his day. Gerbert assumed the title of Sylvester II., and used his power in behalf of science and learning. "The genius of this famous pontiff," says Mosheim, "was extensive and sublime, embracing all the branches of literature; but its more peculiar bent was turned toward mathematical studies. Mechanics, geometry, astronomy, arithmetic, and every other branch of knowledge that had the least affinity to these important sciences, were cultivated by this restorer of learning with the most ardent zeal, and not without success, as his writings abundantly testify; nor did he stop here, but employed every method that was proper to encourage and animate others to the culture of the liberal arts and sciences. The effects of this noble zeal were visible in Germany, France, and Italy, both in this and in the following century; as by the writings, example, and exhortations of Gerbert, many were incited to the study of physic, mathematics, and philosophy, and in general to the pursuit of science in all its branches. If, indeed, we compare this learned pontiff to the mathematicians of modern times, his merit, in this point of view, will almost totally disappear under such a disadvantageous comparison; for his geometry, though it be easy and perspicuous, is merely elementary and superficial. Yet, such as it was, it was marvellous in an age of barbarism and darkness, and surpassed the apprehension of the pygmy philosophers, whose eyes, under the auspicious direction of Gerbert, were just beginning to open upon the light. Hence it was that the geometrical figures, described by this mathematical pontiff, were regarded by the monks as magical operations, and the pontiff himself was treated as a magician and a disciple of Satan."

The disorders which had marked the tenth century in Italy continued through-

out the eleventh century. After the death of the Emperor Otto III. Rome passed again under popular government, and the great cities of northern Italy continued to enjoy, under various forms, much of the liberty which had marked their earlier his-

to do to preserve her liberties against her archbishop. In the eleventh century the municipal governments of Italy were generally conducted by two or more consuls, chosen by the people. These were charged with the duty of administering justice, pre-



A KNIGHT IN FULL ARMOR.

tory. The great trouble against which they had constantly to contend was the repeated effort of some powerful noble to make himself absolute master of some important city. Even the bishops, not content with their spiritual privileges, strove hard to acquire such power, and Milan especially had much

siding over the councils of the city, and calling out and leading the militia in time of war or insurrection. Each city had usually two councils: one smaller one, which in later times came to be called the *Consiglio di Credenza*, and which carried out the laws and general policy of the city; and

one greater body, consisting of more members, called the *Great Council* or the *Senate*, in which new measures were discussed and adopted. The supreme power lay with the whole body of the people, who were summoned together in the principal square by the great bell of the town. These assemblies were called "Parliaments."

The great Italian republics were more elaborately organized than their minor sisters. The first of these was Venice, the foundation of which we have already related in the history of Rome. Though practically independent it owned a nominal allegiance to the eastern emperor. By holding aloof from the great struggles which convulsed Italy it had managed during the six centuries of its existence to direct its energies to its steady growth. In the eleventh century it was one of the most powerful as well as one of the richest Italian states, and was just entering upon its remarkable commercial career. It was the only Italian republic which never submitted to the German emperors, and no foreign power had as yet been acknowledged within its walls. The chief magistrate of the republic was styled the Doge, or Duke, and possessed all the powers of a king. The beginning of the crusades marks the commencement of the commercial glory of Venice. Her admirable maritime position had already led her to engage in ship-building to a great extent, and had enabled her to rid the Adriatic of the pirates of Istria and Dalmatia, and to extend her power to the eastern shore of that sea. She was in a condition to supply the demand of the crusaders for ships to transport them to Asia, and the money earned by this service brought large sums to the republic. The masters of these vessels judiciously invested their earnings in the silks and other products of the East, and these were sold in Europe at handsome profits. Thus was laid the foundation of the extensive commerce which made Venice the mistress of the seas. At a later period glass-making became one of the chief industries and sources of wealth of the Venetians.

Pisa, following the example of Venice, next rose to wealth and importance, and became the principal commercial rival of Venice. The marshes of the lower Arno were drained by the large-minded merchants of Pisa, and the entire district of Maremma, which is now almost deserted, was converted into one of the most beautiful and populous

regions of Italy. The greatness and wealth of the Pisan republic were won in the face of a sharp opposition, and were maintained only by a determined struggle. The islands of the Mediterranean were closed against her by their Saracen masters, and Venice and Amalfi resented, and punished when they could, all the attempts of Pisa to secure a share in the Mediterranean trade, which they claimed as their own. In A. D. 1017 the allied Pisans and Genoese attacked Sardinia, and in 1021 wrested it from the Saracens. The island was finally parcelled out in fiefs among the nobles of Pisa.

Genoa, the third of the Italian republics, rose to wealth and power more slowly than the others. She was always the enemy of Venice and the rival of Pisa, though sometimes the ally of the latter state. Her territory ultimately embraced the cities of the two *Rivieras*, and extended around the head of the Gulf of Genoa from Nice to Spezzia.

After the death of Otto III. a struggle set in for the possession of the Italian crown. It was decided by the coronation of the German king, Henry of Bavaria, at Milan. At his death the struggle was renewed, and though the Italian crown passed to the Emperor Conrad, the disturbances went on with but little intermission. They simply changed their character, and became a contest between the people and the nobles. The absence of the emperor removed the only check which could have restrained this discord.

In the meantime the south of Italy was the scene of a contest the result of which was to change its character. At the opening of the century the Italian islands of the Mediterranean were held by the Saracens, who had also a footing upon the mainland. Southern Italy was subject to the Greek emperors. In A. D. 1010 a body of Norman knights, on a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, stopped at Salerno, and while there turned aside for a while from their journey to aid Gaimar, a Lombard prince of the city, against the Saracens. Encouraged by their success, their countrymen some years later swarmed into Sicily, drove out the Saracens, and took possession of a large part of the island. In A. D. 1030 they attacked Apulia, conquered it, and added it to their Sicilian possessions. Pope Leo IX., alarmed by their rapid progress up the peninsula, organized a league against them, and applied to the Emperors Henry III. and Constantine IX. for aid. These sovereigns being

unable to render him any assistance, the pope took the field in person against the Normans, with an army composed of Italian, Greek, and Suabian mercenaries. The Normans were inferior in force to the papal army, but they were all veterans, and were led by such tried commanders as Counts Humphrey, Richard, and the famous Robert Guiscard. They totally routed their opponents in the battle of Civitella in 1053, and captured the pontiff himself. To his surprise, instead of treating him with harshness, the Normans paid him the most profound reverence, and humbly asked pardon of the father of Christendom for the hard fate which had compelled them to defend with arms against him the lands they had won from the heretical Greeks and the infidel Saracens. By this politic course they completely gained the good-will of the pope, and received from him the investiture of their past and future conquests in Apulia, Calabria, and Sicily, which they agreed to hold as a fief of the Holy See. This was a great gain for the pope, as the Italian Normans were thenceforth his stoutest champions. Robert Guiscard continued these conquests on the mainland, and added the greater part of southern Italy to his dominions. He was made count by Pope Nicholas II. Count Roger, the brother of Robert, conquered Sicily after a long and arduous struggle. At the death of Robert he succeeded to his dominions on the mainland. His son Roger, the great Count of Sicily, took the important town of Bari, in 1071, and rapidly acquired the remainder of southern Italy. He erected his possessions and conquests into a single state, and took the title of King of Sicily.

The Norman conquest of southern Italy destroyed the commerce of the Greek cities of Naples, Gaeta, and Amalfi, which had until now controlled the trade of the Mediterranean, and drove it into the hands of Venice, Pisa, and Genoa. The Venetians maintained a powerful fleet in the Adriatic, and effectually checked the conquests of the Normans in that quarter.

The early part of this century saw the church plunged in a state of deep corruption, from which there seemed scarcely any escape. Being corrupt it was necessarily weak. The great cause of this weakness was simony, which robbed the church of its sanctity as a profession, and enabled the temporal power to interfere with its preferences. From an ecclesiastical point of

view there was a second cause of weakness, namely, the marriage of the clergy, which prevented the priests from devoting themselves exclusively to the task of making the church independent of the state and the most powerful body on earth, and which stripped the clergy of the semi-miraculous character which the most ascetic arrogated to themselves, and exhibited them to the laity as mere men. The first was a genuine cause of corruption; the latter was a great barrier in the path of papal ambition. The Emperor Henry III. endeavored to bring the church up to its true position by the appointment of German popes, who, being free from the petty local jealousies of the Italians, would devote their energies to the whole of Christendom. The first two died too soon to accomplish anything. The emperor then appointed Leo IX., his kinsman. Leo began with vigor a reformation which was destined to accomplish more than Henry either desired, or believed possible. In the end the papacy became the powerful and determined rival of the empire, with both the will and the ability to inflict many humiliations and losses upon it. Leo made an uncompromising war upon the practice of simony, for which no defence was attempted. It had become too universal a practice, however, to be destroyed in a single reign. In the reign of Gregory VII. the contest assumed a formidable character, as we shall see. The effort to enforce celibacy upon the clergy met with a determined resistance, especially in Milan, where the married clergy could bring the precepts of St. Ambrose and the example of some of his successors to sustain their course.

The ruling spirit of the papal court at this time was Hildebrand, a Tuscan monk, who from an obscure position had raised himself by the force of his own genius to the post of Archdeacon of Rome. A man of unbending will and profound ambition, he conceived at an early day a plan which aimed not only at reforming the church of the abuses which pervaded it, but of rendering the ecclesiastical independent of and superior to the civil power. "To this end he laid down two main rules, one that the clergy might not marry, the other that no temporal prince should bestow any ecclesiastical benefice, as was then commonly done in Germany, England, and most parts of Europe." That Gregory sincerely desired to bring the church back to its ancient purity, none may doubt, and in this work he

merits and should receive the gratitude of all good men. His error was that he was not satisfied with this reformation, but strove to make the civil power of all Europe subject to the will of the Bishop of Rome, and to exalt the clergy, with the pope at their head, into a superior and separate body from other men, and to place them above, and free them from, all obedience to the civil law, exempt them from taxation, and make them, in short, dependent solely upon the pope for their guidance and control. These facts should not be forgotten in considering his career.

During the reigns of Leo IX. and his successors, a period of more than twenty years, Hildebrand was the ruling spirit of the Roman court. His haughty and aggressive policy pervaded the acts of these pontiffs, and foreshadowed the bold career he had marked out for himself when he became, as he meant to be, pope. While only Archdeacon of Rome he began his reforms, wisely seeking first to constitute the clergy a compact and harmonious body dependent solely upon the Roman see. In the name of Stephen X. he gave orders for the married priests to be displaced and separated from their wives, and exerted himself to stir up the populace against the offending clergy, a task in which he was so successful that in some cases the mob put the objects of their fanatical wrath to death. The virtues of celibacy were held up to popular admiration, and Hildebrand's invectives against marriage and his praises of the sanctity of a single life were listened to with delight. "The secular clergy were forced to adopt the unsocial and demoralizing principles of their monkish rivals; and when all family affections were made sinful, and the feelings of the pastor concentrated on the interests of his profession, the popes had secured, in the whole body of the church, the unlimited obedience and blind support which had hitherto been the characteristic of the monastic orders." Through the reigns of the several successors of Leo IX., Hildebrand, who managed with unerring skill to make himself the confidential adviser, and in reality the guide and master of each, pursued with unwavering firmness the carefully matured plan by which he intended to increase and consolidate the power of the papacy. Nor can we regard him as wholly disinterested in this work. From the first his eye appears to have been fixed upon the chair of St. Peter, and each step

he took brought him nearer to it. He did not aspire to be simply Bishop of Rome; he meant as pope to give laws to the world.

In A. D. 1073 Hildebrand was elected pope, and took the name of Gregory VII. He was the greatest of the Roman pontiffs, and it was not long before he struck a decisive blow at the abuse which he had not been able to reach in his subordinate station. In France and Germany the bishops were either nominated or confirmed by the sovereign, and in England by the Parliament. The parish priests and other clergy received



GREGORY VII.

their positions from the nobles. The ceremony by which these offices were bestowed was called *Investiture*. The practice often led to the purchase of the offices with money, and their bestowal upon persons unfit to hold them. Gregory was resolved to put a stop to this practice, which he denounced as simony, but as more than half the lands in Germany had been granted to churchmen as feudal fiefs, it was evident that to attempt to make these independent of the king would strike a terrible blow at the sovereign. Nevertheless the pope did not shrink from it, as it was the first step in the task by which he meant to bring the emperor to his feet.

The German throne was filled at this time by Henry IV., then twenty-three years of age. He was a prince of great talents and of a naturally noble character, but his education had been defective, and his guardian, Adalbert, Archbishop of Bremen, a gay, easy-going prelate, had allowed him to fall into evil ways, and had trained him to distrust the dukes to such an extent that by the time of Gregory's elevation, the greater number of these princes were in open revolt. The father of Henry had treated the pope as his dependent, and had raised no fewer than four Germans successively to the papal throne. Upon his death, however, and during the minority of Henry IV., Hildebrand had so directed the policy of the Roman see as to make it practically independent of the emperor, and the German clergy, inspired from Rome, had shown so much hostility to him, that Henry had become greatly prejudiced against them.

Gregory waited two years before breaking with the king. In A. D. 1075 he addressed to him a haughty and imperious letter, commanding him to abstain from simony, and to discontinue the practice of investiture by the ring and cross. These, he claimed, were the signs of spiritual dignity, and their bestowal was inherent in the pope. Gregory had chosen his opportunity sagaciously, for Henry was engaged in a hard struggle with the Saxons, who were in revolt. In this emergency he promised to comply with the pope's demand, but, upon putting down the Saxon rebellion, refused to be bound by his promise. The pope summoned him to Rome to be tried for his crimes, and he answered by convening a synod of German bishops at Worms in 1076, and deposing Gregory. The pope then solemnly excommunicated the king, and declared him deprived of his crown and his subjects released from their allegiance to him, and proclaimed it a crime for any one to render him the slightest assistance. Thus began the famous "war of the investitures."

Henry had alienated all classes of his subjects by his harsh treatment of them, and they promptly rose against him, glad to cloak their hatred of him under the guise of zeal for religion. The pope energetically fomented the rebellion, and in the end Henry was obliged to yield. In mid-winter he crossed the Alps, and presented himself at the gates of the Castle of Canossa, where the pope was then sojourning

with his devoted friend, the Countess Matilda. Gregory refused at first to receive the king, who had come to throw himself upon his mercy, and his Christian charity exhibited itself in allowing Henry to remain barefooted in the snow and without food in the outer court of the castle for three days and nights. When at length he consented to receive him, he would only promise that the king should be tried with justice for his "crimes," and if found innocent should be restored to his throne, but if proved guilty should be punished with the utmost severity of the ecclesiastical law, A. D. 1077.

The pride of the Germans revolted against the unheard-of indignity with which their sovereign was treated, and they rallied to his support, and enabled him to inflict a decisive defeat upon Rudolph of Suabia, who had been encouraged by the pope to head the rebellion against him. The war now went on with unremitting vigor. The chief ally of the pope in Italy was the Countess Matilda of Tuscany. Her first husband, the Duke of Lower Lorraine, had been a staunch supporter of the emperor, but after his death, in A. D. 1076, she retained the government of Tuscany, the greatest of the Italian fiefs, in her own hands, and consecrated her wealth and army to the service of the pope. Lombardy, and especially Milan and Ravenna, remained faithful to Henry, for the pope was not so much revered in Italy as he was in Germany. The monks and clergy everywhere sustained the pope as the champion of their order against the secular power, and he had another element of strength in the sympathy of the common people, who beheld in him one sprung from themselves, endeavoring, as they wrongly believed, to relieve them of the oppression of the great. The imperial party regarded the pope simply as the first subject of the emperor, invested by him with his bishopric and its possessions, and in support of their view they cited the examples of Otto the Great and Henry III., who had judged, deposed, and appointed popes. The clerical party claimed that the pope was above all earthly sovereigns, as things spiritual were above things temporal, and reminded their opponents that it was the coronation by the pope which could alone make a German king Augustus.

The true cause of Henry's weakness was the discontent which his tyranny had caused

in Germany. The discontented nobles now chose Rudolph of Suabia emperor, and after defeating Henry at Mülhausen, Rudolph was crowned by Gregory. Henry thereupon set up an antipope in the person of Guibert, Archbishop of Ravenna. Rallying from his reverse, Henry overthrew Rudolph, who was slain, A. D. 1080, and then turned his arms against the pope. Entering Italy he was received with great joy in Lombardy. The Countess Matilda endeavored to stay his march, but her army was defeated near Mantua, and Florence, her capital, was threatened by the king. Advancing to Rome, Henry laid siege to the city, and continued it for three years, retiring every summer to avoid the heat, and returning again in the winter. The Eastern emperor, whose dominions were invaded by the Norman, Robert Guiscard, who was an ally of the pope, made a league with Henry, and supplied him largely with money. The absence of Robert Guiscard in the East deprived Gregory of his ablest champion, and allowed Henry to work his will in Italy. The imperial troops overran Tuscany, and many of the adherents of the Countess Matilda deserted the papal cause. Henry carried the Leonine city (the Vatican quarter) and forced the pope to take refuge in the Castle of St. Angelo. At length the city proper opened its gates to the Germans, who took possession of it, and on Palm Sunday, A. D. 1084, Guibert, Henry's pope, was consecrated with the title of Clement III. After his consecration he crowned Henry Emperor of the Romans. Gregory, secure in the impregnable fortress of St. Angelo, still held out against Henry, and at length help came to him. Robert Guiscard, returning from the East, advanced towards Rome with a large army, of which the Saracens of Sicily, who were the subjects of his brother Roger, formed a large part. The emperor withdrew from the city upon the approach of the Norman leader, who entered Rome without opposition, A. D. 1084. A tumult broke out among the citizens, and so enraged the Normans that they gave the city up to pillage. It was remorselessly sacked, and the Caelian quarter was destroyed by fire. The Normans conducted Gregory to the citadel of Salerno, where he died in A. D. 1085, using his last breath to utter curses upon the Emperor Henry, and protesting that he died in exile because he had "loved righteousness and hated iniquity"—to so great an extent

can men, even in the supreme moment of death, deceive themselves.

CHAPTER III.

FROM THE DEATH OF GREGORY VII. TO THE SICILIAN VESPERS.

Arrogant Claim of the Pope—Henry V. Defeats Pope Paschal II.—Is Crowned Emperor—Death of the Countess Matilda—Her Bequest to the Pope—Settlement of the Question of Investitures—Gains for the Germans—The Independence of the Papacy Secured—Quarrels of the Italian Cities—The Guelphs and the Ghibellines—Arnold of Brescia—Barbarossa Emperor—Puts Down the Revolt in Northern Italy—Milan Submits—Renewal of the War—The Lombard League—Defeat of the Emperor at Alexandria—Treaty of Constance—Gains of the Lombard Cities—Their Increase in Political Importance—Establishment of the Venetian Influence in the East—War Between the Pope and Otto II.—Henry II. Emperor—His Quarrel with Pope Gregory IX.—Excommunication of the Emperor—His Crusade—War with the Pope—Blasphemous Claim of Innocent IV.—Alarms the Sovereigns of Europe—The Pope Refuses to be Reconciled to the Emperor—Death of Frederick II.—Decline of the Imperial Power in Italy—Charles of Anjou Made King of Sicily by the Pope—Defeats Manfred—Gregory X.—The French in Sicily—Their Tyranny—Revolt of the People—The Sicilian Vespers—Massacre of the French—Establishment of the Inquisition.

THE death of Gregory did not end the struggle which he began. His successors continued his policy, the true character of which is shown in his published declaration: "There is but one name in the world, and that is the pope's. He only can use the ornaments of empire. All princes ought to kiss his feet. He alone can nominate or displace bishops and assemble or dissolve councils. Nobody can judge him. His mere election constitutes him a saint. He has never erred, and never shall err in time to come. He can depose princes, and release subjects from their oaths of fidelity." The successors of Gregory stirred up enemies against Henry in his own household, in the end drove him to a miserable death, and not content with this, refused him Christian burial.

The wrongs of Henry IV. were to a certain extent avenged by his son and successor, Henry V., notwithstanding the fact that Henry had been aided by Pope Paschal II. in his unjustifiable rebellion against his father. Entering Italy with a large army, in 1111, he overran the country, and threw Pope Paschal II. into prison, and only released him on his promise to crown

him emperor, and to resign the investiture of all bishops and abbots in the empire. Upon the death of the Countess Matilda she left her large territories to the pope, but the emperor claimed them, and took possession of Tuscany, and held it until his death. The popes, however, did not surrender their claims to the dominions of the Countess Matilda, though unable to maintain them.

At length, in 1122, the question of investitures was decided. A concordat, or treaty, was entered into at Worms between the emperor and the pope, by which the emperor surrendered the right of investiture by ring and staff, and granted the right of free election to the clergy, while the pope consented that the temporal possessions of the German Church should be received from the emperor, a concession which made the German a National Church. The ring and crozier, the symbols of spiritual authority, were to be conferred by the pope alone. The loss of the emperor was a gain for the German king; but the greatest gain of all was that of the pope, who became independent of the emperor in all things, while the emperor still received his crown from the hands of the pope. The independence thus gained was the sure stepping-stone to papal supremacy.

One of the chief results of the war of investitures was the growth of the Italian cities in importance and freedom from control. The first effect of this growth was to cause them to engage in numberless quarrels with each other, but, as we shall see, they afterwards made common cause against the emperor. At the first, northern Italy was divided into two great parties by the long feud between Milan and Pavia. Milan was successful, and became the acknowledged leader of Lombardy early in the twelfth century. Florence, which was now ruled by consuls, and had become a republic, rose into prominence, and began to extend its territory during the first half of this century. Many noble families were compelled by force to become citizens of the new republic. Pisa continued her career of prosperity; Lucca was forced to make peace, and the Pisans captured the island of Majorca from the Mohammedan pirates. In the struggle with Lucca, Florence took part as the ally of Pisa.

Upon the death of Henry V., the Saxon Duke Lothaire was made king by the German electors, and was supported by the

Guelfs or Welfs, the reigning family of Bavaria. Lothaire died in 1138, after a reign of three years, and his rival, Conrad of Hohenstaufen, became king. The Welfs were partisans of the pope; the Hohenstaufen were opposed to the papal party in Germany, and were the champions of imperial law and order. The Welfs possessed not only the duchies of Saxony and Bavaria in Germany, but also the large hereditary estates of the Countess Matilda of Tuscany. In the struggle which ensued their war-cry was their family name, "Welf," while their enemies shouted "Waiblingen," the name of a village which was the home of the Hohenstaufen family. Though these names belonged to Germany, they were soon adopted in Italy to distinguish the partisans of the pope and the emperor, and in their Italian form became "Guelf" and "Ghibelline."

The papacy meanwhile had been divided between Innocent II. and Anacletus, the antipope, but Innocent had triumphed over his rival, who was removed by death about 1139. Upon the accession of Conrad III. to the German throne, Innocent endeavored to strengthen himself by a close alliance with King Roger of Sicily, who was so formidable an adversary that both emperors, Manuel and Conrad, formed a league against him. In Rome itself, the authority of the pope was for a while set at naught by the people, who, influenced by the stern denunciations of priestly ambition by a monk named Arnold of Brescia, threw off the rule of their bishop, and set up a senate and a patrician named Giordano.

Conrad III. died before he could interfere in these affairs, and was succeeded by his nephew, Frederick Barbarossa, who came into Italy in 1154, and at a great diet held at Roncaglia received the submission of all the Italian states. Frederick came with both the intention and the power to restore the imperial authority, and he proceeded at once to do so. Complaints were made to him by the enemies of Milan, and as that city had deeply offended him by denying his authority and refusing the supplies which as emperor he was entitled to, he decided against Milan. Tortona, an ally of Milan, being also accused, shared the same condemnation. He destroyed Asti and Chieri, and took and burnt Tortona, the allies of Milan. He spared the lives of the inhabitants, and they took refuge in the last-named city. He then proceeded to

Rome, where he was crowned emperor by Pope Adrian IV. By authority of the emperor, Arnold of Brescia was put to death, and Rome was once more placed under the rule of the pope. Milan was obliged to submit to the emperor, who placed the imperial eagle on the spire of its cathedral, in token of his supremacy. In a little while, however, the pope and the emperor began to quarrel over the territories of the Countess Matilda, and this misunderstanding soon grew into an effort on the part of the pope to strip the emperor of all his rights over Rome and his Italian possessions. Upon the death of Adrian IV., in 1159, two popes were elected—Alexander III. by the papal party, and Victor IV. by the imperialist party. Each pope excommunicated his rival and his followers, and all Christendom was divided into two parties. Alexander III. was more generally acknowledged, and a war which now broke out between the emperor and the Lombard cities enabled him to make a stout resistance to his formidable enemy—Frederick.

The submission of Milan to the emperor was only temporary. In the year of the death of Pope Adrian, 1159, Milan rebelled, and Frederick marched against it in person, and after taking Crema, the ally of the Milanese, and destroying it, compelled Milan to surrender. The lives of the citizens were spared, but the city itself was utterly destroyed. The fall of Milan broke the resistance of northern Italy, and made Rome an unsafe place for Pope Alexander. Sicily was so torn with violence and civil strife that it no longer offered the pontiff his accustomed asylum, and he fled into France, where he remained three years. During this period Victor, the antipope, died, and his place was filled by Guido of Crema, who took the name of Paschal III. Events in Germany kept the emperor there, and Alexander took advantage of this to return to Rome, A. D. 1165.

The enemies of the emperor, comprising the cities of the Veronese march and the whole Guelfic party, now rallied around Pope Alexander. Even Cremona and other cities which had formerly opposed Milan, joined the alliance against the emperor, which was definitely organized in 1167 under the name of the "Lombard League." The power of the emperor was seriously threatened by this combination, and about the same time the Eastern Emperor Manuel

obtained a footing in Italy, and won over Ancona. Frederick promptly took the field against his enemies, and after vainly attempting to capture Ancona, marched upon Rome. The pope fled at once, but the advantage of Frederick was neutralized by the breaking out of a pestilence in his army, which forced him to retreat in haste. In 1174 he endeavored to capture the new Guelfic city of Alexandria, near Pavia, but after a siege of seven months was obliged by the army of the league to withdraw. In 1176 he was defeated at Legnano, about fifteen miles from Pavia. The defeat was brought about chiefly by the withdrawal of Henry, Duke of Saxony, the head of the Guelfic party. The emperor escaped with difficulty from the field. This battle decided the war, and a truce was soon arranged at Venice by which Frederick and Pope Alexander were reconciled. Alexander was acknowledged as pope by the emperor, who was allowed to retain the territories of the Countess Matilda until his death, when they were to revert to the pope. The truce was for six years, but upon its expiration, in 1183, a permanent peace was arranged at Constance, a city of Suabia. By this treaty the emperor "ceded to the towns all rights within their walls; he allowed them to administer their own laws, and to make peace and war on their own account; he retained the ancient regalian rights (the right to food, quarters, and clothing for his army when in the territory of these cities), but they were defined, and precautions allowed against future disputes; he allowed the consuls to be retained, but they were nominally invested by him, and each city was to admit an imperial judge of appeal." By these provisions the Lombard cities became virtually independent, while at the same time they continued to form a part of the empire. Left to themselves, they became the chosen resorts of great men, and the nurseries of science and art. The removal of the imperial rule, however, left them divided and arrayed against each other, with no power capable of harmonizing their quarrels.

Frederick after this gained another advantage over the pope. The Norman King of Sicily had been the most faithful ally of the pontiff. The emperor married his son Henry to Constance, the daughter of King Roger, who, on the death of William II., the reigning king, who had no children, would be the direct heir to the Sicilian

crown. After some disputes Henry, who had in the meantime succeeded his father, became King of Sicily, in right of his wife, in 1194. He treated his new subjects with such cruelty, and so disgusted the Italians with his tyranny, that they hailed his death in 1197 with joy. Previous to his death Henry had made his German followers counts of various territories in Italy, and had bestowed Tuscany upon his brother Philip. Upon the death of the emperor, the pope revived the Lombard League, placed himself at its head, and drove the Germans into the south of Italy. Constance, the widow of Henry, acknowledged the pope as her feudal lord. She died in 1198, and left Pope Innocent III. the guardian of her infant son Frederick. The Germans, under the Regent Markwald, kept Sicily in a state of confusion, and gave great trouble to the pope.

In the dispute over the empire, which followed the death of the Emperor Henry VI., the Ghibelline party in Italy supported the claims of his brother Philip, while the Guelfs sustained those of Otto, the son of Henry the Lion. The house of Bavaria had always supported the church against the emperor, and Pope Innocent III. naturally desired its triumph. Philip was successful, but he was soon after assassinated, and in 1209 Otto received the imperial crown. This secured the triumph of the Guelfs.

Since the close of the war with the emperor Frederick Barbarossa, the cities of northern Italy had been improving their systems of self-government. As has been remarked, they became practically independent states, with full rights, including those of making war and concluding peace; but at the same time they remained parts of the empire. Their increase in political power and importance brought about a corresponding depression of the nobles, who found themselves unable to continue their former system of aggression against these communities. The cities were now in a condition to defend themselves, and to combine for their mutual protection, while the nobles were divided and without either a common head or a common cause. The great princes remained in their previous condition, but the weaker nobles now sought to preserve their importance by enrolling themselves among the citizens of the towns which overshadowed them. Their military prowess made them useful to the

cities in time of war, but in peace their feuds and violence gave great trouble to these communities. They often set the law at defiance, and erected strong edifices in the cities in which they could resist the power of the magistrates. To curb them the cities appointed a chief magistrate called a *podesta*, who held office for a year, and enforced the laws against all classes. The nobles gave the *podestas* a great deal of trouble to keep them in order.

Venice had taken but little active part in Italian affairs up to the opening of this century. The necessities of the warriors of the Fourth Crusade, which forced them to go to Venice to obtain the shipping requisite for their transportation to the Holy Land, threw a golden chance into the hands of the Venetians for increasing their wealth and power, of which they skilfully availed themselves. As has been stated, the Venetians made use of the crusaders to obtain possession of some towns on the Dalmatian coast, especially that of Zara. The conquest of Constantinople by the Latins added very much to the wealth of the Italian cities, especially to that of Venice, which city, having borne a prominent part in the capture of that capital, received a considerable share of the lands of the Eastern empire, and especially many islands and places on the sea-coast. The Genoese divided the trade of the Levant with the Venetians, but could not deprive them of their supremacy in that quarter. The Genoese rendered the Nicean Emperor Michael Palæologus great assistance in his reconquest of Constantinople, and expected to receive from him the monopoly of the trade of the East; but he was neither willing nor able to disturb the Venetian or Pisan traders.

Soon after becoming emperor, Otto IV. changed Pope Innocent from a friend to an enemy by claiming as his right the sovereignty of the territories of the Countess Matilda, and of the kingdom of Sicily. Innocent took advantage of the emperor's unpopularity with the German princes who supported the Suabian house, to encourage them to offer the imperial crown to Frederick, the young King of Sicily. The state of affairs which ensued was singular enough. In the war which now opened the pope was the ally of the Ghibellines, and Otto, the head of the Guelfic party, was his antagonist. Otto was finally defeated in the battle of Bouvines, in 1214, and was soon obliged

to retire to private life, and in 1215 Frederick II. was crowned king at Aix la Chapelle. In 1216 Pope Innocent III., who had contributed in a marked degree to the increase of the power of the see of Rome, died. The next year Otto IV. died, and Frederick II. was left without a rival to dispute his claim. In 1220 he went to Rome to be crowned emperor by Pope Honorius III. A large part of his history concerns itself with Italian affairs, and not unnaturally. Though of German descent, he was a Sicilian by birth, and he was thus endowed by nature with certain qualities and habits of mind which did not belong to his Teutonic blood. He had been carefully educated, and had even sought knowledge at the hands of Mohammedan teachers, and his acquirements and depth of thought placed him far in advance of his time. He was a man of liberal views, and his southern training had inclined him to a liberality about religious matters especially which the churchmen regarded as downright irreligion. He was not undeservedly named the "Wonder of the World." He early learned to hate the pope with a bitter hatred, and this feeling in the end was the cause of much trouble to him.

The first years of his reign were the happiest. In his own kingdom of Sicily he was free to carry out his own policy, and it enjoyed under him a security and prosperity which his predecessors had failed to confer upon it. He established the reign of law, and compelled the nobles to submit to it, thus securing protection to the weak; and he encouraged learning and art by founding the University of Naples and assisting those of Bologna and Salerno. During his reign the Italian language began to assume its modern form.

The good understanding between the emperor and the Holy See was soon disturbed. Frederick had promised Pope Honorius to lead a crusade for the recovery of Jerusalem, as the price of his coronation as emperor. The emperor delayed his departure longer than the pope desired, and Honorius assumed the right to censure him for his tardiness. Gregory IX., the successor of Honorius, pursued a similar course, and in 1227 Frederick was excommunicated by the pope for venturing to fall sick at the time the pontiff expected him to set sail for Palestine. He treated the excommunication with utter contempt, and this so enraged Gregory that in 1228 he threatened

the emperor with still more severe penalties. There was a strong party in Rome who were devoted to the emperor through gratitude for his generous assistance of them in a time of famine, and these, indignant at the pope's unjustifiable course, rose against him and compelled him to quit Rome.

The pope, who had excommunicated the emperor for his delay in not setting out on the crusade just when he was ordered, now attempted to prevent him from sailing when all was in readiness; but Frederick paid no attention to his mandate, and proceeded on his voyage to Palestine, where he arrived in September, 1228. The hatred of Gregory followed him even there, and arrayed the Hospitallers and Templars and the ecclesiastics against him. The two military orders absolutely refused to fight under him, and grossly insulted him. In spite of this, however, he proceeded to the work before him, seized Jaffa, and induced the Sultan of Egypt, with whom he had long been on friendly terms, to surrender to him the city of Jerusalem. This accomplished, he proceeded to Jerusalem to complete his pilgrimage to the Holy Sepulchre. "The emperor had not arrived in Jerusalem," says Milman, "before the Archbishop of Cæsarea appeared with instructions from the Patriarch of Jerusalem to declare him under excommunication, and to place the city of Jerusalem under the ban. Even the sepulchre of the Lord was under interdict; the prayers of the pilgrims even in that holiest place were forbidden or declared unholy. No Christian rite could be celebrated before the Christian emperor, and that disgrace was inflicted in the face of all the Mohammedans! Immediately on his arrival the emperor visited the Church of the Holy Sepulchre. The church was silent; not a priest appeared; during his stay no mass was celebrated within the city or in the suburbs. An English Dominican, named Walter, performed one solitary service on the morning of the Sunday. Frederick proceeded again in great pomp and in all his imperial apparel to the Church of the Sepulchre. No prelate, no priest of the Church of Jerusalem was there who ventured to utter a blessing. The Archbishops of Palermo and of Capua were present, but seem to have taken no part in the ceremony. The imperial crown was placed on the high altar. Frederick took it up and with his own hands placed it on his head."

Returning to Europe in 1229, Frederick

found that the pope had revived the Lombard League against him, and was even endeavoring to stir up against him a crusade of all Europe. This attempt was unsuccessful, however, and in 1230 a peace

dinary power claimed by the priests of the Romish Church. Gregory, jealous of the great influence of Frederick in Italy, soon brought on another war with him by inducing the people of Milan to encourage



FREDERICK II. REFUSED ADMISSION TO THE HOLY SEPULCHRE.

known as the Treaty of San Germano was signed between the emperor, the pope, and the Lombard League. Frederick then gave his assistance to the pope in persecuting the religious sect known as the *Paterini*, which had ventured to dispute the extraor-

the emperor's son Henry, King of the Romans, to rebel against his father. The emperor quickly suppressed this revolt and put his son in prison, where he died. A new quarrel now arose in northern Italy, where the oppressions of Eccelino da Ro-

mano, the leader of the imperial party, drove the Guelfic party in Padua, Vicenza, and Verona into resistance. Milan arrayed itself on the Guelfic side. In 1237 Frederick entered Italy, and defeated the Milanese at the battle of Corte Nuova. He captured the podesta of the city, who was a son of the Doge of Venice, and put him to death for his rebellion. This execution so enraged the Venetians that they joined the Lombard League against the emperor. Genoa also embraced the Guelfic quarrel. Gregory resorted to his old weapon of excommunication, and summoned a general council of the church at Rome to ratify it; but through the capture by the Pisans of the Genoese fleet bearing the French and English bishops, some of whom were drowned and others made prisoners in the engagement, the council failed to accomplish anything. In 1241 Gregory IX. died.

Innocent IV., who became pope in 1243, was a bitter personal enemy of the emperor. Frederick at once acknowledged him as pope and made offers looking to a reconciliation. Innocent, however, being determined to crush Frederick, would accept no settlement of the quarrel but the unconditional submission of the emperor, and in order to place himself beyond the reach of the emperor, fled from Rome and took refuge in the free city of Lyons, which was not yet a part of the kingdom of France. The arrogance of the pope, and, above all, the bitter and cruel hatred which he exhibited towards the emperor, disgusted the great princes of Europe, and even the saintly Louis IX. refused to allow him to take up his residence within the French dominions. The King of Arragon in courteous terms declined the dangerous honor of receiving the pope in his dominions, and when the King of England was appealed to for this purpose, the blunt Henry III., who had only a little while before dismissed the papal legate at the demand of the barons, with the hearty adjuration, "The devil take thee away to hell!" exclaimed: "We have already suffered too much from the usuries and simonies of Rome; we do not want the pope to pillage us." The crowned heads of Europe were alarmed by the growing power and the ungovernable ambition of the pontiff, who claimed absolute authority over all the kingdoms of the world, to set up and pull down whom he pleased, and whose claims were well expressed by the remark of Innocent IV.: "We are no mere

man; we have the place of God upon earth!" Nor did Innocent content himself with merely asserting his pretensions. He was prompt to enforce them by the power of the sword. Compelled by the coldness of the great powers to remain at Lyons, Innocent summoned a council at that city, which met in June, 1245, but which was very far from representing the whole church. The pope accused the emperor of many crimes of the most serious nature. Frederick was ably and fearlessly defended by the learned jurisconsult Thaddeus of Suessa; but the hatred of Innocent prevailed over every form of law and justice recognized by the church, and the emperor was again excommunicated, the empire was declared vacant, the pope was urged to appoint a new king for Sicily, and the princes of Germany were ordered to elect a new emperor. When the decision of the council was made known to Frederick, he exclaimed haughtily: "I hold my crown of God alone; neither the pope, the council, nor the devil shall rend it from me!"

The struggle which now ensued was desperate and infuriated. The emperor's enemies engaged in plots against his life, and he was nowhere safe. No weapon seemed too insignificant, no plot too base to receive the sanction of the pope. Frederick's better nature was overcome by this mode of warfare against him, and he became suspicious and cruel. His supporters did him much harm with the people of northern Italy by their severities, and he rapidly lost ground there. The efforts of the pope to find a new emperor were not as successful as he had hoped they would be. None of the crowned heads of Europe, nor any of the great princes, would aid him in his war upon Frederick by acknowledging by their acceptance of the imperial crown his assumed right to deprive Frederick of it. At length Henry Raspe, Landgrave of Thuringia, consented to become emperor, and was chosen by the papal party. The German cities stood firmly by Frederick, and Henry died in February, 1247, of mortification at his failure to accomplish anything. The pope then appointed as Henry's successor William of Holland, a youth twenty years of age.

At first Frederick was successful. He quelled the revolt in the Sicilian kingdom, and threw his enemies entirely on the defensive. The cruelties of Eccelino and the

emperor's lieutenants in the north neutralized these successes, and in 1247 Parma revolted from Frederick, who was unable to recapture it, though he besieged the city vigorously for many months. Florence was captured by his natural son Frederick, but in 1249 his son Enzo was made a prisoner by Bologna, and kept in captivity until the close of his life. In 1250, worn out by the constant struggle which the hatred and ambition of Gregory IX. and Innocent IV. had forced upon him in both Italy and Germany, Frederick died, and so passed beyond the power of his enemy. But "the hatred which pursued him to the grave, and far beyond the grave, described him as dying unreconciled to the church, miserable, deserted, conscious of the desertion of all. The inexorable hatred pursued his family, and charged his son Manfred with hastening his death by smothering him with a pillow. By more credible accounts, he died in Manfred's arms, having confessed and received absolution from the faithful Archbishop of Palermo." His body was carried in state to Palermo and buried in a magnificent tomb. To Sicily he had been always one of the wisest and best of sovereigns.

The death of Frederick II. ended the great power of the emperors in Italy. The towns of northern Italy soon became strong enough to resist the occasional efforts of the German emperors to control them, and in southern Italy the power of the imperial crown was soon secured by other claimants. Indeed the affairs of Germany occupied the successors of Henry so thoroughly that they were not able to give much thought to Italy.

Conrad, the son of Frederick II., succeeded his father as King of Sicily. In Germany his crown was contested by William of Holland, the pope's emperor. Conrad left Sicily in charge of his brother Manfred and went to Germany. During his absence from Italy, Pope Innocent stirred up a rebellion against him in Naples, and offered the crown to Richard of Cornwall, brother of Henry III. of England. Richard had the good sense to refuse the offer, but Henry accepted it for his son Edmund, and the pope, who was sadly in need of money, made him pay an enormous sum for the empty honor. Conrad died in 1254, after a hard struggle for his kingdom, and was followed in the same year by his brother Henry. Conrad left an infant son named

Conradin, and his brother Manfred ruled the kingdom as regent for his nephew. The government of Sicily being unsettled and there being no emperor, the Guelfic party made great gains during this period, and secured once more the government of Florence, from which they had been driven by the younger Frederick. The Florentines in 1254 advanced their power by the capture of Volterra and Siena and the humbling of Pisa. A year or two later Eccelino, who had been ruling in the Veronese march since the death of Frederick II., roused the Guelfs and many of the Ghibellines against him by his cruelties. He was defeated and taken prisoner in 1259, and died soon after.

In 1258 Manfred, who had reigned in Sicily as regent for his nephew, assumed the crown upon a rumor of the death of Conradin. He made a league with the Ghibelline party of Florence, and in 1260 the confederate army of the Guelfs was defeated at Monteaperto, on the Arbia, in consequence of which Florence passed into the hands of the Ghibellines. Manfred was from this time recognized as the head of the Ghibelline party in Italy; and what was more, he had effectually checkmated the plans of Pope Alexander IV. for the transfer of the Sicilian crown to a foreigner and the subjection of all Italy to the papal authority.

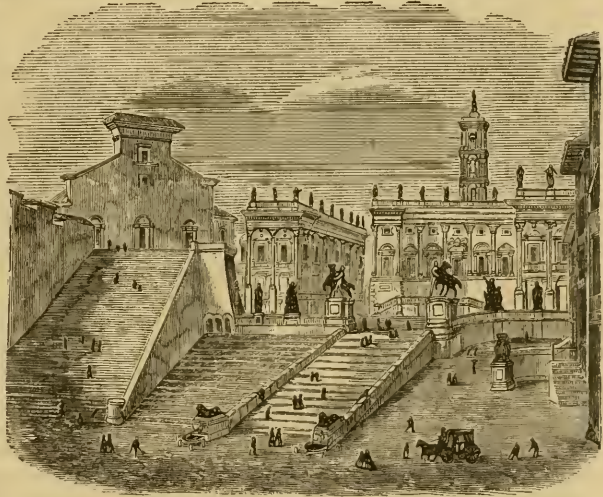
Alexander died in 1261. His successor was a Frenchman, who took the title of Urban IV. He took no part in the dispute between Richard, Earl of Cornwall, of England, and Alfonso X. of Castile for the imperial crown, as it was his policy to keep the empire vacant as long as possible and thus continue his own importance. Neither would he offer the Sicilian crown, Manfred's right to which he would not acknowledge, to either of these contestants. He offered the latter crown to Louis IX. of France, but that good king refused to claim it. His brother Charles, Count of Anjou, was not so conscientious, and promptly accepted it when Urban offered it to him. Charles was a brave and energetic man, and in addition to his county of Anjou was also Count of Provence by his marriage with Beatrix, the heiress of that county. He went to Rome, where, in 1265, he was crowned by Pope Clement IV., the successor of Urban. He promised to hold Sicily as a fief of the Holy See, that it should revert to the pope upon the failure of heirs in his

family, and that it should never be held by the emperor.

Charles was obliged to conquer his new kingdom, in which he had no supporters but a few traitors. The pope provided him with an army by proclaiming a crusade against Manfred, and levying the tax usually assessed upon the churchmen for the prosecution of a holy war. A large army of Frenchmen was assembled under Charles, and the invasion of Sicily was begun. Manfred was defeated and slain in a bloody battle at Grandella, near Benevento, and Charles quickly made himself master of the kingdom. This victory restored the Guelfs to power once more in Florence, which city chose Charles its "signor" for two years. Pisa, jealous of her rival's power, joined the Ghibellines, and declared young Conradin King of Sicily. This gallant prince was defeated by Charles in 1268, and falling into his hands was beheaded by his order at Naples. Soon after this, Charles went on a crusade against the infidels, and for two years was absent from Sicily. Upon his return he attempted to put in execution a plan he had long cherished, and which was to make him master of all Italy. He even aspired to the imperial crown, and doubtless would have succeeded had not his way been barred by a new and unexpected obstacle.

The new pope, Gregory X., was a very different man from his predecessors. He sincerely desired peace and a restoration of prosperity in Italy, and he was not slow to perceive that the success of the ambitious schemes of Charles would simply bring fresh misery to the peninsula. Moreover, the predecessors of Gregory had given the Sicilian crown to Charles as a protection to themselves. Frederick II. had surrounded the papal dominions with his territories, and had thus hemmed the pope in, and they meant that such a state of affairs should not occur again. Gregory was true to this much of their policy, and exerted himself to check the plans of Charles and preserve the balance of power. To this end he brought back the Ghibelline exiles, and compelled them for a while to live peaceably with the Guelfs. At the same time

he secured the election of Rudolph of Hapsburg, the founder of the second house of Austria, to the imperial throne in 1273. Rudolph solemnly promised the pope not to interfere with Charles in Sicily or in Tuscany. In 1277 Nicholas III. became pope. He improved upon Gregory's policy by compelling Charles to resign the offices of vicar of Tuscany and senator of Rome, and by raising the Ghibelline power throughout Italy. Having obtained the renunciation by the Emperor Rudolph of his claims upon Rome and the territories of the Countess Matilda, the pope became a powerful territorial sovereign, and was able to support his independent policy with arms. The Ghibellines, under the Archbishop Otto Visconti, came into power in Milan about this time, and that city thus became an ally



STAIRS OF THE MODERN CAPITOL AT ROME.

of the pontiff. Charles submitted with a bad grace, but on the death of Nicholas he secured the election of a Frenchman to the papal throne, who took the name of Martin IV. With the new pope for his tool he began a second attempt to extend his power, when he was checked as suddenly as he had been before.

The French had earned the bitter hatred of the Sicilians by their cruel and tyrannical treatment of them, and a conspiracy was organized by the latter to transfer the crown to Pedro, King of Aragon, who claimed it in right of his wife, Constance, the daughter of Manfred. Pedro asked the aid of the Greek Emperor Michael Palæologus, which was promised him. The

leader of the conspiracy was John di Procida, a Sicilian noble, who had been grievously wronged by the French. For two years the secret was preserved by the conspirators, who embraced a large part of the inhabitants of the island of Sicily. Charles was partially aware of his danger, and was preparing to meet it, when hostilities were precipitated by a chance occurrence. On the 30th of March, 1082, a French soldier in the suburbs of Palermo grossly insulted a bride in the presence of her friends. He was furiously assailed, and the cry of "Death to the French" was raised. It spread with lightning-like rapidity, and the inhabitants of Palermo turned upon all the French within their walls and put them to the sword. In a few days eight thousand Frenchmen were slain in various parts of the island, and Sicily became an independent kingdom under Pedro III., of Aragon. The massacre is known as the "Sicilian Vespers." Pope Martin declared Pedro excommunicated and offered his crown to Charles of Valois, the nephew of the King of Naples. In 1286 Pope Martin, Charles of Anjou, Philip III. of France, and Pedro III. of Aragon all died. A war of twenty years followed the death of Pedro. His son, Frederick, was chosen king by the Sicilians, but the descendants of Charles of Anjou retained their hold upon the mainland, with Naples for their capital. They belonged to the Guelfic party, while the island kingdom supported the cause of the Ghibellines.

The thirteenth century is noted as the period of the establishment of the Inquisition. The exact time of its creation is uncertain, but it was some time during the pontificate of Innocent III. It was completely organized at the Council of Toulouse in 1229. It continued in operation in Spain, Italy, and the Spanish American states until the commencement of the present century, and during the six hundred years of its existence covered Europe with suffering and blood. Its especial duties were the searching out and punishment of heresy. Persons accused of this "crime," or suspected of it, were seized in secret, immured in the dungeons of the Holy Office and imprisoned for life, or cruelly tortured and put to death. In Spanish countries alone it inflicted its torments upon over half a million of sufferers, of whom upwards of 32,000 were burned at the stake. Its cruelties won for it the execration of mankind.

CHAPTER IV.

GROWTH OF THE ITALIAN REPUBLICS.

Henry VII. in Italy—Rise of the Italian Republics—Growth of Venice—Its Government—The Council of Ten—Prosperity of Genoa—Wars with Venice—The Genoese Fleet at Chioggia is Forced to Surrender—Losses of Venice—Genoa Places herself under French Protection—Rise of Florence—State of Affairs under the Florentine Republic—Employment of Mercenary Troops—The Golden Age of Florence—Affairs in the South of Italy—Robert of Sicily—Troubles at Naples—The Jubilee of Pope Boniface VIII.—His Quarrel with Philip the Fair—His Death—Clement V. Pope—Removes from Rome to Avignon—Loss of Power by the Pope—Troubles at Rome—Rienzi—Becomes Tribune—His Fall and Death—Gregory XI. Returns to Rome—Election of Urban VI.—Clement VII.—The Great Schism—The Plague of Florence—Anarchy in Northern Italy—Sicily Becomes a Spanish Possession—Queen Joanna—Alfonso of Aragon Becomes King of Naples—Rise of the Medici at Florence—Political Divisions of Italy at the Middle of the Fifteenth Century—The Council of Constance—Martin V. Made Pope—The Council of Basle—Nicolas V. Pope—Defends the Independence of the Papacy—St. Peter's Founded—The Turks in Italy—The French Expelled from Genoa—Cosmo de' Medici—Lorenzo the Magnificent—Ludovico Sforza Becomes Duke of Milan—Plots the Assassination of Lorenzo de' Medici—Failure of the Attempt—The Pope Excommunicates the Florentines—Troubles at Naples—Prosperity of the Italian Republics—Death of Lorenzo de' Medici—Alexander VI. Pope—His Infamous Character—Casar and Lucrezia Borgia—The Pope Invites the French to Conquer Naples.

THE death of the Emperor Frederick II., and especially the interregnum, closed the reign of the imperial power in Italy. Though the German sovereigns still retained the titles of "King" and "Emperor of the Romans," they were possessed of little or no power in Italy. Several of Frederick's successors were never crowned emperor, and though others visited Italy at different times, and made changes in the government and political divisions of that country, they were never able to re-establish their power in, or to retain any lasting hold upon, Italy. Henry VII., who entered Italy in 1310 with a small German army, was the last of the emperors whose authority was respected in that country. The Pope Clement V. was a captive at Avignon, and was fearful that the influence of France would be extended over Italy and thus make it impossible for him to be free from the power of the French king, and he induced the Guelfic party to receive the German king with favor, while the Ghibellines met him as their natural lord. Milan

gave him a ready welcome, and he received there the iron crown of the Italian kingdom on Christmas day, 1310. That city was divided between the adherents of two powerful nobles, Guido della Torre, the leader of the Guelfs, and Matteo Visconti, the leader of the Ghibellines. Each sought to secure the favor of their sovereign by costly presents, but Henry's demands for money became so enormous, that both parties rose against him. Matteo, however, took advantage of the occasion to betray his rival, and got possession of the city, which from this time continued to be held by the Visconti. Pisa and the other cities hostile to Florence received the emperor with joy, but Florence shut her gates upon him and made an alliance with Robert, King of Naples. That king also sent a garrison to Rome, and Henry, unable to get into St. Peter's, was crowned emperor in the church of St. John Lateran. The emperor now made an alliance with the island kingdom of Sicily, and marched south to attack Florence, but was taken sick and died on the way, August 24th, 1313. He was buried at Pisa. After him no emperor received the hearty support of the people of the Italian kingdom.

With the decline of the imperial power, another change of great importance occurred in northern Italy. We have seen in our account of the twelfth century how the principal cities became so many independent commonwealths. These little commonwealths during this century disappeared, and larger and more important states took their places by the grouping together of a number of cities in a single government. Of course the more powerful cities extended their authority over their weaker sisters. It frequently happened that the lord or tyrant of one city got possession of several cities, which enabled him to form them into a large continuous domain. In such cases, to give the color of legality to his proceeding, he obtained from the pope, or the emperor, the investiture of these dominions as a fief, and became an hereditary prince by obtaining from the same source the title of duke or marquis. In this way Milan, the sovereignty of which had been contested throughout the whole century by the Visconti family and their rivals, came by degrees into the possession of that family. In 1395 Gian Galeazzo Visconti bought a charter from Wenceslaus, King of the Romans, creating him Duke of Milan. Under

the rule of its dukes, Milan became a powerful state, her power extending over Pavia and a number of the Lombard cities, some of which acknowledged her supremacy for the sake of enjoying her protection, others of which were forced to submit to her. By the close of the century the power of Milan had been extended over Pisa, Lucca, Perugia, and Siena. These Tuscan conquests were lost in the next century.

While Milan was thus growing in power, Venice, which had held aloof from Italian politics, until the last century, continued to extend her territory and influence in northern Italy. The government of the Venetian republic was, like that of most of the Italian commonwealths, administered by three councils. The laws were enacted by the great council, and executed by the senate and the doge. The third council had charge of the criminal justice of the city. The great council consisted only of the higher nobles, and was self-elective, an arrangement which excluded the lesser nobles, as well as the commons, from all share in the government. In 1297 a law was enacted forbidding the election to the council of any one but a member of the great noble families. This measure gave rise to serious disaffection, to check which a *secret Council of Ten* was established in 1310. This council well served the purpose for which it was intended—to keep the people subject to the nobles. Its practices were similar to those of the Romish inquisition. Accusations were made to it, and the accused were arrested privately and immured in its dungeons, where every effort, including torture, was exerted to compel them to confess the crimes with which they were charged. Its punishments were secret, and were death or a living death in its dungeons. In the end, the Ten became the real and terrible rulers of Venice, and subjected even the nobles to their authority.

Genoa grew with rapidity, and soon became the successful commercial rival of Venice in the Levant. For a while her government was conducted entirely by the nobles in their own interest, but in 1039 a check was placed upon their power by the choice of a doge. After this the old noble families lost their political power to a considerable extent. Genoa, like Venice, held aloof from Italian politics, but was always the constant foe of that republic. The hostilities between the two states were chiefly carried on in the Levant, where each sought

the monopoly of the trade of the East. The Genoese rendered important services to the Greek emperors in their recapture of Constantinople, and were given the quarter of

allied fleet of the Greeks and Venetians, and compelled the emperor to send away the Venetians and grant the Genoese the trade of the Levant. Genoa, indeed, seemed



THE BRIDGE OF SIGHTS, VENICE, SHOWING THE DUCAL PALACE AND THE PRISON.

Pera, or Galata, which they in course of time fortified. In 1349 they made war upon the Emperor John Cantacuzene in the harbor of Constantinople, to compel him to drive away the Venetians, and defeated the

on the point of reducing the Greek empire to the position of a tributary.

In 1378 the Genoese entered into an alliance with Louis the Great, of Hungary, and with Francesco da Carrara, Lord of

Padua, the object being the conquest of Cyprus, and the recovery for Louis of the Dalmatian cities which the Venetians had conquered. The Venetian fleet was destroyed by the Genoese, and upon his return home the Venetian admiral, Vittorio Pisani, was thrown into prison. Meantime, the allied forces sailed up the Adriatic, captured the town of Chioggia, situated about twenty-five miles south of Venice, on one of the little islands commanding the Lagune. The capture of the place was mainly the work of the Genoese, but by the terms of the alliance it was given to the Lord of Padua. Venice was now in serious danger. The way to the city lay open to the allies, and the Venetians were divided and almost panic-stricken. In their dilemma they released Pisani from his prison and begged him to save them. He generously consented to do so, and set to work vigorously to prepare for the defence of the city. At the same time the great naval commander, Carlo Zeno, arrived from the Levant with his squadron to the assistance of his countrymen. He co-operated cordially with Pisani in the defence of the city. The Genoese were blockaded in Chioggia by the Venetian fleet, and were forced in the early summer of 1380, after a siege of six months, to surrender. The war was closed by the treaty of Turin, in 1381. Venice lost her Dalmatian territory, which was taken by the King of Hungary, and surrendered Treviso, her first conquest on the Italian mainland. It passed to Leopold of Austria, who subsequently transferred it to the Lord of Padua. Venice, in spite of her losses, rallied quickly, and soon became as powerful as ever. Genoa, however, never recovered from her disaster. Internal disorders and civil war followed the struggle with Venice, and in these troubles the republic was so greatly weakened that in order to save themselves from being absorbed by Milan, the Genoese conferred the Signoria on Charles VI., of France, A. D. 1396.

Florence rose rapidly into prominence during this century. Its government was neither a close oligarchy like that of Venice, nor a simple tyranny like that of Milan. Its history during the fourteenth century is a constant struggle to preserve its independence against the attacks of its neighbors, and to establish successfully the democratic principles upon which the Florentine state was based. In consequence of this a greater

freedom, intellectual as well as political, existed in Florence than in any other part of Italy, and her people were able to acquire a greatness in literature and art which have stamped their influence indelibly upon Italy and the world. Towards the close of this century the constitution of the state was definitely settled. The industries of the citizens constituted the broad foundation upon which this constitution rested. The citizens were divided into "Arts," or trades unions, similar to the "Guilds" of England and the Netherlands. Chief magistrates could be chosen only from these arts, and were elected every two months, while the grand council of state was chosen every four months. This arrangement brought the whole of the properly qualified class of citizens to the discharge of the duties of the state, and gave to each one a personal interest in it. No magistrate received any reward for his services; the honor of the position was deemed ample compensation. The industry of the Florentines consisted in the manufacture of silks and woollen goods, and jewelry. Banking was also a prominent source of the wealth of the republic. The Tuscan bankers shared with their Lombard rivals the task of collecting and distributing the wealth of Europe by bills of exchange and loans. The kings of all countries borrowed of them, and the Florentine *florin*, a beautiful gold coin, first issued in 1250, became a general standard of value. In spite of the severe struggles she was obliged to wage throughout the century against her neighbors, and especially against Milan and Lucca, for the preservation of her independence, Florence prospered and managed to grow rich. We shall see in our account of the next century how she fell below the standard of a pure democracy, which, in this period, she seemed about to reach.

One striking feature of the wars waged by the Italian republics against each other was the employment by all of mercenary troops, who sold their services to the highest bidder, and whose only interest in the quarrels in which they were engaged was to earn their pay. "The different tyrants knew that it was safer for them to employ mercenaries, who were wholly at their disposal, and who cared not for the cause for which they fought, but only for the man who paid them. This change was liked by the people, for campaigns now lasted a much longer time than formerly. Before the fourteenth century a campaign lasted only

a few days. A pitched battle was fought, or a town was attacked, and then the citizen soldiers went back, every man to his own affairs, till they were called out again. But now warfare had become an art, and campaigns and sieges lasted for months, and the citizen would have been ruined because his shop or his office would have been shut while he was at the wars. The mercenaries were soldiers by profession, and thus were far better fitted for war than the militia, who went to war only when some need arose. In order to pay these troops, the states contracted heavy debts to different private persons; these debts were *funded*, or placed in one stock with the same security for payment and the same rate of interest, and so the present system of national debts and securities arose. At first the mercenaries were foreigners, but towards the end of the century a famous school of generalship arose in Italy. This was the company of St. George, founded by Alberigo, Count of Barbiano, and from that time the great tacticians of the Italian school were themselves Italians, as Jacopo del Verme and others. These mercenary troops often gave a tyrant power to extend his territories; but sometimes they enabled a free state, like Florence, to defend herself against those who wished to enslave her."

As the three centuries preceding the fourteenth witnessed a rapid revival and growth of architecture and the arts in Italy, so the close of the thirteenth and the whole of the fourteenth century saw the sudden blossoming of Italian literature. Dante, the greatest of Italian poets, was born in Florence in 1265, but his writings belong almost entirely to the fourteenth century. Petrarch; also a native of Florence, wrote his love songs about the middle of the century, and Boccaccio, another Florentine, laid the foundations of the school of modern Italian prose. The two Malaspini, the earliest Italian chroniclers, and Giovanni Matteo and Filippo Villani, who wrote one of the earliest Italian histories, were also Florentines. Florence soon drew to itself the brightest and most vigorous intellects of Italy, and ere long learning found a permanent home there. It must not be forgotten, however, that the true greatness of Florence in literature was co-existent with her civil freedom. When liberty began to decline, not even the munificence of the Medici could give to Florence the grand thinkers who had illustrated her earlier and freest

period. Dante made his city illustrious in return for the liberty with which she blessed him.

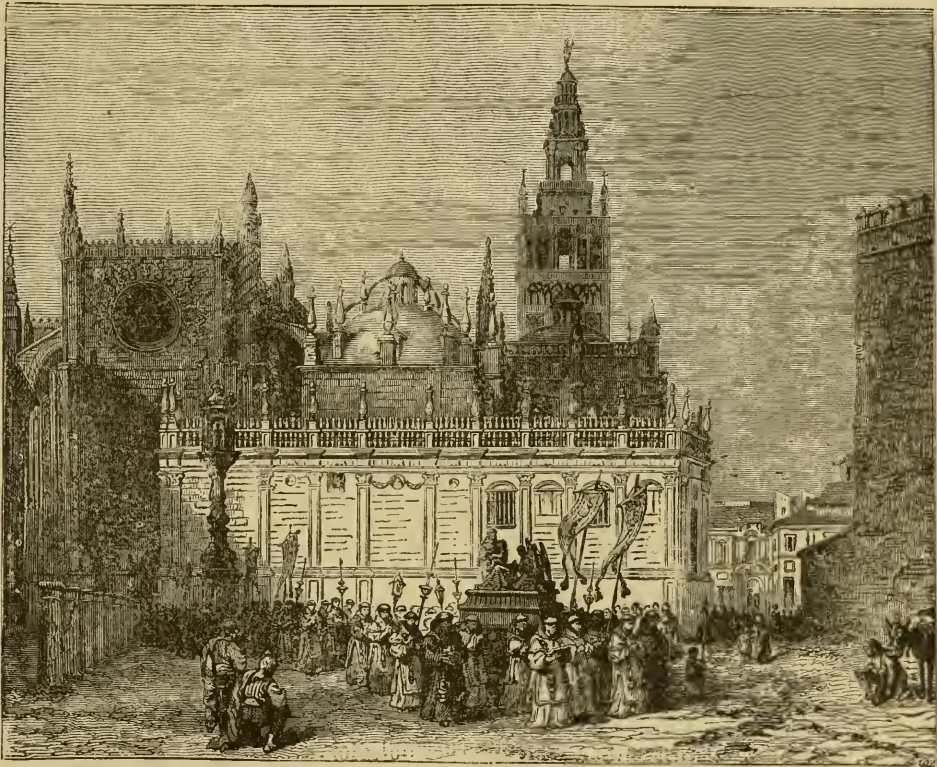
South of the papal territory Italy was divided between the Two Sicilies. The kingdom on the mainland was known as Naples, was the largest in size, and was one of the most powerful of all the states of Italy. Some of its kings played an important part in Italian affairs, but not all. Robert, who reigned from 1309 to 1343, was the acknowledged head of the Guelfic party, and as such was enabled to offer a stout resistance to the Emperor Henry VII. After the death of that emperor, Robert took advantage of the disorders which prevailed in the peninsula to increase his own power, and at length aroused a strong opposition to himself, as it was clear that he was aiming at nothing less than the crown of Italy. In 1327 he compelled the Emperor Louis of Bavaria to abandon Rome; but when John of Bohemia came to Italy, Robert, being too old to take the field, could only use his influence against him; but in the end John was obliged to quit Italy. Robert died in 1343, and was succeeded by his granddaughter Joanna, who had married her cousin Andrew, the heir to the crown of Hungary. He was soon murdered, as it was believed, by her orders. The citizens of Naples compelled Queen Joanna and her paramour, Louis of Taranto, to fly from the city. Louis the Great succeeded his brother Andrew on the throne of Hungary, and in 1347 invaded the kingdom of Naples. A war of four years ensued, in which Naples suffered severely, especially from the mercenary troops, or "free companies," as they were called. Peace was made between Naples and Hungary in 1351. Queen Joanna had no children, and her heir was her cousin Charles of Durazzo. The queen married her fourth husband after the peace, and to thwart Charles, she adopted as her heir Louis of Anjou, the son of King John of France. Charles was crowned King of Naples, however, by the pope, and Louis of Hungary sent him a strong body of troops. He took the queen prisoner, and put her to death. The death of Louis of Anjou in 1383 removed his only rival. Upon the death of Louis of Hungary, who was his uncle, Charles went to that country to claim the crown, and was murdered there. After his death Naples was again distracted by a war between the adherents of his son La-

dislaus, and the French, who wished to set up a king in the person of Louis II., who was also a child. Charles at length succeeded in expelling the French.

The history of the papacy during the fourteenth century is both eventful and important. In the year 1300 a jubilee was celebrated at Rome by Pope Boniface VIII., and the Eternal City was thronged with pilgrims of all ranks from all parts of the world, who came to avail themselves of the pontiff's liberal offers of indulgence and remission of sins. It seemed that the de-

years old, but his age had not dulled his ambition, or eased his vanity. He took part in the procession clad in the imperial robes, and before him were borne two swords and the globe of sovereignty, significant of his desire to rule the world. In front of him walked a herald, who cried: "Peter, behold thy successor! Christ, behold thy vicar upon earth!"

Alas for his ambitious hopes! The world was moving in spite of his efforts to hold it back. Europe was beginning to settle down into that system of distinct nations which



VIEW IN ROME.

voition of the Catholic world to its spiritual chief was never greater or more enthusiastic; but there were great minds watching the display, which looked under and beyond all this show of devotion, and saw that the day of faith, of unquestioning belief in and submission to the papacy, was past. Among these observers was the poet Dante, whose keen vision saw the truth, and refused to be blinded by the sham with which it was covered over. Least of all, did the reigning pontiff, Boniface VIII., realize the actual state of affairs. He was more than eighty

compelled the popes to content themselves with their true character—that of Italian princes. Even in spiritual affairs the pontiff was beginning to lose his power over other nations. We shall see that in Germany the popes found it impossible in this century to play the part they had acted in the last; that the King of France, so far from yielding humble obedience to the pontiff in all things, did not hesitate to seize and punish one, and made another his tool and virtual captive; and that in England the great shield of the common law had be-

come strong enough to break the force of every blow by which the pontiff tried to bring England to his feet, as Innocent had done in the days of King John. These matters belong to the history of these respective countries, and will be related there. Not long after the jubilee, Boniface VIII. quarrelled with Philip the Fair of France, who seized him. The pope died soon after. His successor, Benedict XI., reigned less than a year. He meditated the restoration of the papacy to its former power, and announced his intention to bring to punishment the parties concerned in the arrest of Boniface VIII. This alarmed his enemies. One day a nun of the convent of St. Petronilla presented him with a basket of figs, and at the end of the week the pope was in his grave. "No one thought that a death so seasonable to one party, so unseasonable to another, could be in the course of nature."

Clement V., the successor of Benedict, was a Frenchman, and his election was procured by Philip IV. of France, who meant to use him as his tool, and did so use him in carrying out certain measures. To please the French king, Clement removed his residence from Rome to Avignon in Provence, just outside the French border, and belonging to the French Kings of Naples. By this arrangement the pope really became the prisoner of the King of France, who was not slow to make him feel his dependent position. For seventy years the popes continued to reside at Avignon. This period came to be called "the Babylonish Captivity," 1305-1376. Pope John XXII., who was also a Frenchman, and resided at Avignon, took an active part in Italian affairs against the Emperors Henry VII. and Louis of Bavaria, but was not able to accomplish anything against either. He excommunicated Louis, but that potentate paid no attention to the anathema, and proceeding to Rome received the imperial crown from the hands of two excommunicated bishops, A. D. 1327. Louis declared his enemy, John XXII., deposed from the papacy, and set up an antipope, but both the antipope and the emperor were quickly driven away by Robert of Naples. Benedict XII., who became pope in 1335, seemed at one time on the point of restoring the moral supremacy of the papacy, and of settling the troubled state of Christendom, but his death, in 1342, put an end to all such hopes.

Clement VI., the successor of Benedict XII., was able, through the discontent with which the Germans regarded the Emperor Louis of Bavaria, to gain some advantages over the emperor; but these were not real gains, for the pope's strength lay in the dislike of the Germans for their king, rather than in any reverence for, or fear of, the power of Rome. Queen Joanna fled to Avignon, with her guilty lover, Louis of Taranto, after the murder of her husband, and was married to her paramour with the consent of the pope, to whom she sold the city of Avignon.

In the reign of Clement stirring events transpired at Rome. The city had been for forty years deserted by the popes, and for the time had ceased to be the religious capital of the world. The throng of pilgrims which had once poured into it with unbroken regularity now journeyed towards Avignon. The city was nominally governed by its magistrates, but there was little of law and order within its walls. The nobles, particularly the families of Orsini, Colonna, and Savelli, kept the city in constant confusion with their quarrels, which they fought out in the streets. In 1347 Cola di Rienzi, a young man of low birth, but of great talents, who had embraced the profession of a notary, undertook the task of arousing the Romans to a sense of their ancient greatness, and of restoring good government in the city. For many months he had been laboring to rouse the popular indignation against the nobles, who trampled on the rights and abused the persons of the citizens. Nightly meetings were held on the Aventine in the spring of 1347, and these were addressed by Rienzi with impassioned eloquence. "He compared the misery, slavery, debasement of Rome, with her old glory, liberty, universal dominion. He wept; his hearers mingled their tears with his. He summoned them to freedom."

At length, everything being in readiness, the Roman people were summoned to appear unarmed at the capitol on the 20th of May. They met in force, and a form of popular government, called "the Good Estate," was instituted. Rienzi was chosen tribune. He put in force a number of necessary reforms, and by his strong measures reduced the nobles to obedience to his government. The people upheld him in his acts, and the pope, whom Rienzi treated with the utmost reverence, though he trespassed far upon some of his prerogatives,

was at first inclined to regard his course with approbation. The success of the tribune had been too sudden, too easy; it completely turned his head. He became puffed up with a childish, yet dangerous pride, and seemed to regard himself as the successor and the destined restorer of the power of the Cæsars. Instead of forgetting the wrongs he had suffered as a private citizen, he showed himself ready to use his official power to revenge them, and alarmed and disgusted all classes by his ambitious plans and threats. On the 15th of August, 1347, at the height of his splendor, he was solemnly crowned in the church of Santa Maria Maggiore. Elated by his success, he gave utterance in the course of his remarks to these impious words: "As Christ in his thirty-third year, having overthrown the tyrants of hell, went up crowned into heaven, so God willed that in the same year of my life, I, having conquered the tyrants of the city without a blow, and alone given liberty to the people, should be promoted to the laurel crown of the tribune." His words were greeted with enthusiasm, but in the midst of the joy of his followers, one of his most zealous supporters, Fra Gulielmo, was seen to stand apart in a corner of the church, weeping bitterly. One of Rienzi's domestic chaplains asked him the cause of his sorrow. "Now," replied the servant of God, "is thy master cast down from heaven. Never saw I man so proud! By the aid of the Holy Ghost he has driven the tyrants from the city without drawing a sword; the cities and the sovereigns of Italy have acknowledged his power. Why is he so arrogant and ungrateful against the Most High? Why does he seek earthly and transitory rewards for his labors, and in wanton speech liken himself to the Creator? Tell thy master that he can atone for this only by streams of penitential tears." It was like the warning of one of the old Hebrew prophets, and when it was repeated to Rienzi that evening by the chaplain, it appalled him for a time; but the tumult and hurry of business soon drove it from his mind.

Nor was the tribune alone to blame for his failure. He had reared the splendid edifice of "the Good Estate" upon a shifting quicksand. The Romans for centuries had been steeped in degradation, slavery, superstition and misrule, and it was not possible for them to possess the virtues of freemen, the frugality, the discipline, the

respect for the law, the morality and integrity necessary to make them good citizens, in so short a time. These are virtues which grow slowly, and cannot be improvised. And so both tribune and people found themselves unequal to the task they had laid upon themselves. The latter became discontented, and the former, giving way to the temptations of his position, fell miserably below his august ideal, and forfeited his claim to the public confidence. The popular discontent was fanned by the papal party, who now began in earnest an effort to drive out the tribune and restore the authority of the pope. Rienzi soon perceived the growing discontent of the people, and as he had always known that the nobles were his foes, and would seek to overthrow him at the first opportunity, he attempted to break their power by professing the warmest friendship for and confidence in them, and then seizing them and throwing them into prison. He sought to atone for this act of base treachery by speedily releasing them and granting them a pardon for their offences, but the nobles and people attributed his course to cowardice, and two months later the Colonnas took arms against him, and were joined by other nobles. They were defeated by their own imprudence rather than by the skill of Rienzi, but the tribune struck a death-blow to the remains of his popularity by brutally insulting the corpses of his foes. The pope now declared against him in the strongest terms, and in December, 1347, Count Pepin of Minorbino, in the kingdom of Naples, dashed into Rome at the head of 150 men-at-arms, and intrenched himself in the Colonna quarter. The tocsin rang to summon the Romans to arms, but they refused to respond to the call of the tribune, and Rienzi took refuge in the Castle of St. Angelo. For three days the nobles were unwilling to enter the city to join Count Pepin. Then they came in and overthrew the tribune's government and his acts, and restored the old forms. Rienzi, in the disguise of a monk, fled to the Apennines, where he remained concealed for two years and a half among a company of Franciscan monks, from whom he kept his name a secret. Going thence to Prague, he shocked the Emperor Charles IV. by his heresies, and was sent as a prisoner to the pope at Avignon. There he was imprisoned for a while, but was finally released and sent back to Rome by Innocent VI., in 1354, to try to

restore order to the turbulent and distracted city. He came now as senator, to govern in the name of the pope. He had lost his popularity, and as he no longer came to offer freedom to the people, he had no influence over them, and was slain in a tumult a few months after his arrival in the city.

The Romans regarded the absence of the popes from Rome as the cause of all their troubles. It was certainly the cause of their pecuniary embarrassments, for the presence of the pontiff in the city drew to it crowds of strangers from all parts of Europe, and the expenditures of these visitors and of the papal court was a source of considerable wealth to the citizens. They exerted themselves by all means in their power to induce the pontiff to return to their city. Finally, in 1377, Gregory XI. came back to Rome, and the city once more became the religious centre of the world. Gregory died the next year, and the Romans took up arms to compel the cardinals to conduct the election for his successor at Rome and choose an Italian pope, or at all events a pope who would remain at Rome. They even invaded the hall where the conclave had assembled with shouts of "A Roman Pope! we will have a Roman Pope." Though persuaded to retire, they thronged the streets for two days, shouting their demands and threatening the cardinals with death if they refused to comply with them. In the midst of such scenes the trembling cardinals elected the Archbishop of Bari, an Italian, to the papal throne. At this very moment the mob made a fierce attack upon the hall, intending to make short work of the cardinals. The frightened ecclesiastics induced the venerable cardinal of St. Peter's to appear as the newly chosen pontiff. He presented himself at the window, "hastily attired in what either was, or seemed to be, the papal stole and mitre. There was a jubilant and triumphant cry, 'We have a Roman Pope! the Cardinal of St. Peter's. Long live Rome! Long live St. Peter!'" The mob, now wild with joy, burst into the hall. The supposed pope was seized by his enthusiastic friends, his gouty and swollen hands and feet were pressed and kissed with such fervor that he shrieked with pain, and swore to them in very emphatic language that he was not the pope.

The Archbishop of Bari was hastily proclaimed, and took the name of Urban VI.

He was a violent and savage man, and though he sought to reform the abuses of the church, he did so by the severest measures, which he executed in the harshest manner. He soon raised up a formidable opposition among the cardinals, especially in France; and his enemies met at Avignon and chose Robert of Geneva pope. He took the name of Clement VII. Thus the church was divided, one pope reigning at Rome and the other at Avignon, and dividing the allegiance of the faithful, an allegiance which was influenced by motives of interest rather than of religion. All the leading kingdoms, save France and Naples, supported the Roman pontiff; but those nations sustained his rival at Avignon. The "Great Schism" divided the church for thirty-eight years, and did not end until 1414. The result was that the papacy sank lower in the estimation of men and became weaker.

In the middle of this century Italy was scourged by a terrible plague, which had already laid waste the eastern world. It broke out in Italy in 1348, and raged with terrible fury. It is said that Naples lost 60,000 inhabitants, and that in Pisa seven persons out of every ten died. It utterly destroyed the prosperity of Siena. Florence also suffered severely. The scourge is generally known as the *Plague of Florence*, because the Florentine Boccaccio has left us a vivid account of its ravages in his native city.

One consequence of the "Great Schism" was that the Italian princes treated the rival popes with contempt, and northern Italy fell into a state of anarchy. The duchy of Milan was divided between the sons of Gian-Galeazzo Visconti, who became noted for their cruelties. A number of petty tyrannies sprang up in the duchy, but these were subdued at length by Filippo Maria Visconti, who reunited all his father's dominions. In 1402 the only independent sovereigns in northern Italy were the Count of Savoy, the Marquis of Montferrat, and the Lords of Padua, Ferrara and Mantua.

Francesco da Carrara, Lord of Padua, took advantage of the death of Gian-Galeazzo to seize Verona. Venice, the old enemy of Padua, made an alliance with the Lord of Mantua, retook Verona, and besieged Padua. Francesco da Carrara was compelled to surrender his city, and, with his two sons, was sent to Venice, where all three were put to death by order of the Council of Ten. This war placed Venice

in possession of Treviso, Feltro, Verona, Vicenza and Padua, and, by thus giving her a considerable territory on the mainland, raised her to the dignity of a leading Italian state.

The death of Gian-Galeazzo also freed Florence from the danger with which he had constantly menaced her. In 1406 Florence extended her dominion over Pisa, and though she treated her old enemy with

Angevin line, and Louis II., the head of the new French party. In the end Ladislaus was able to drive out his rival and establish his own rule, but the contest between the rivals served greatly to prolong the schism in the church, as each sustained the rival of the pope favored by his antagonist. Ladislaus was succeeded by his sister, Joanna II. She was twice married, but had no children, and adopted as her



VERONA.

fairness, the Pisans left their homes in large numbers, and the greatness and commercial prosperity of the city declined rapidly.

Genoa was governed at the opening of the century by a viceroy of Charles VI., King of France. In 1409 the island kingdom of Sicily was united with the Spanish kingdom of Aragon by the marriage of Mary, Queen of Sicily, to Martin, King of Aragon. The kingdom of Naples, which also bore the name of Sicily, was disputed between Ladislaus, the head of the old

heir Alfonso, King of Aragon and Sicily. Becoming dissatisfied with him, she adopted Louis III. of Anjou in his place. The rivals went to war for the possession of the Neapolitan crown, and divided all Italy by their quarrel. The Duke of Milan and Sforza, the general of Queen Joanna, sustained Louis; while the pope, the Florentines, Braccio, and the Lord of Rimini sustained Alfonso. The Florentines, being hard pressed by Milan, made an alliance with Venice, and the Duke of Milan was

obliged to make peace in 1426. In Naples Louis of Anjou gained the upper hand, and Alfonso could accomplish nothing. At the death of Louis, Queen Joanna adopted his brother René of Anjou in his place, and the war between the Angevin and Aragonese parties broke out again. It continued until 1433, to the general advantage of the Angevin party and their allies. In that year peace was made at Ferrara through the interposition of Sigismund, King of the Romans. In 1435 Queen Joanna II. died, and Alfonso attempted to seize the kingdom. The claim of René was supported by the Duke of Milan, who, with a Genoese fleet, defeated Alfonso and took him prisoner off the island of Ponza. Soon after this the duke, becoming alarmed at the growing power of the French, drove René out of the kingdom, and established Alfonso on the throne. Alfonso was now King of Naples, Sicily and Aragon. He made Naples his capital, and won the hearts of his new subjects by his kind treatment of them and his liberality and literary taste. He remained throughout his reign the constant ally of Milan.

Ever since the insurrection in 1382 Florence had been ruled by an oligarchy composed of the old Guelfic families and the new *popolani grossi*, or rich men of the people. In 1433 the head of this oligarchy was Rinaldo degli Albizzi. The leader of the opposition was a rich merchant named Cosmo de' Medici. Cosmo was a man of immense wealth, which he used liberally for the assistance of his fellow-citizens. His genial and affable disposition, and his generous support of all literary men, made him generally beloved in the city, and excited the hostility of Albizzi and his followers, who determined to secure his ruin. In 1433 he succeeded in procuring his banishment, but the next year Cosmo was recalled by the Florentines and received with enthusiasm, and hailed as the "Father of his Country." The Medici took advantage of this triumphant welcome to place themselves at the head of the state, and thus secured a power which they never afterwards entirely lost. Neither Cosmo nor his successors assumed any particular title. "Their power was of a different kind from that of the lords or tyrants, either in old Greece or in other cities of Italy. Nor was it such a power as that of Pericles at Athens, as it passed on from father to son. It was more like the power of Augustus

and the other Roman emperors, who respected the forms of the commonwealth." The party opposed to Cosmo fled to Milan, and induced the Duke Filippo Maria Visconti, who was already at war with Pope Eugenius IV., to attack Florence. The pope fled to the Florentines, who, with the Venetians, espoused his cause. The Florentine army was placed under the command of the pope's general, Francesco Sforza, and in a brilliant campaign, well conducted by both sides, the Duke of Milan was badly worsted. Filippo Maria, seeing his danger, drew Sforza over to his side by giving him his natural daughter, Bianca, as a wife, with the cities of Cremona and Pontremoli for her dowry. Sforza soon secured a peace between Florence, Venice, and Milan.

Francesco Sforza lived on very bad terms with his father-in-law, and when Filippo Maria died, in 1447, without male heirs, he claimed the duchy of Milan in right of his wife, although it was a fief which could descend only through the male line. His claim was denied by the Milanese, but as they were at war with Venice, they were obliged to employ him to conduct their campaign. He took advantage of this to seize the state, and was formally acknowledged by the Milanese as their lord and duke in February, 1450. The middle of the century saw Italy divided between four great temporal powers—the kingdom of Naples, the duchy of Milan, and the republics of Venice and Florence. A fifth power—the papacy—now began to assume its true place among the Italian states.

The schism which had so long divided the church was brought to an end by the Council of Constance, which deposed all three of the rival popes, and appointed Martin V., who was everywhere acknowledged as a true pope, A. D. 1416. This council was followed by another which met at Basle, which sought to place the pope under the control of the councils of the church. Eugenius IV., the reigning pontiff, energetically resisted this action, and with the aid of Æneas Sylvius, the secretary of the council, succeeded in maintaining his independent authority, and secured the undisputed election of his successor, Nicolas V., 1447. The new pope was one of the greatest of the Roman pontiffs, and the failure of the Council of Basle having freed the papacy from control, he had a fair opportunity to exert his abilities for the good of the world. The captivity at Avignon

and the schism had greatly weakened the moral power of the papacy, and from the time of Nicolas V. the popes must be considered, not as the head of Christendom, power, for he was one of the best as well as one of the greatest of the popes. He was a lover of learning and art, and gave a powerful support to the revival of the study of



CATHEDRAL OF MILAN.

but as powerful Italian princes. Nicolas soon established his authority over the states of the church, which embraced the gifts of Pepin and Charlemagne and the Countess Matilda. He made a good use of his Greek literature, which took place in consequence of the communication between Italy and the Greek empire in the last days of that power. Under him Rome became once more a centre of learning and

art, dividing the supremacy in Italy with Florence. He adorned the city with splendid churches, began the great cathedral of St. Peter, and built the magnificent palace of the Vatican. He also restored the fortifications of Rome and the Roman states; founded the noble library of the Vatican; and encouraged learning, which was greatly assisted by the introduction into Italy about this time of the art of printing. From the first he took a prominent stand among the princes of Italy, and one of the first uses he made of his political power was to bring about the peace of Lodi, in 1454, between Venice, Milan, and Naples. He died in 1458, and was succeeded by Æneas Sylvius, who took the title of Pius II.

Pope Pius was at once called upon to exert himself to stay the progress of the Turks, who, after their conquest of Constantinople, had embarked in an effort to bring the rest of Europe to their feet. He endeavored to unite all Christendom in a crusade against them, but died in 1464, before anything could be accomplished.

The Venetians endeavored to hold their possessions in the Archipelago, but were invariably defeated by the Turks, who took Lesbos, Eubœa, and other islands from them, and put them to great exertions to maintain their supremacy in the Adriatic. In 1477 a powerful Turkish army invaded Italy by way of Friuli, defeated the Venetians, and ravaged the country as far as the Piave. In 1480 the Turkish army under Ahmed Keduk, the greatest general of Mohammed, crossed the Adriatic, took the strong city of Otranto by storm, and massacred the inhabitants. The Venetians secretly favored this expedition as a means of injuring the King of Naples. Mohammed II. was greatly encouraged by this success, as he fully intended to attempt the conquest of Italy; but his death and the quarrels of his successors prevented the Turks from advancing any farther, and obliged them to return to the other side of the Adriatic.

Alfonso, King of Naples, died in 1458. He left Aragon and Sicily to his legitimate son John, and bestowed Naples upon Ferdinand, his illegitimate son. The cruelties of Ferdinand caused his subjects to rebel against him, and they offered their crown to John of Calabria, the son of René, who had been King of Naples before Alfonso. René, who was the French Governor of Genoa, endeavored to induce the neighbor-

ing Italian princes and the French king to help him and his son, but all refused. The result of the matter was that the Genoese, led by their archbishop, drove the French out of Genoa and set up a new government. The Duke of Calabria was unable to accomplish anything against Ferdinand of Naples. The new government of Genoa was so oppressive that the Genoese overthrew it and transferred their allegiance to the Duke of Milan, to whom Louis XI. of France ceded all his rights to Genoa. For the time French influence was utterly dead in Italy.

Cosmo de' Medici used his great wealth to acquire almost absolute power in Florence. Though his authority was much too great for the safety of a free state, he used it with moderation, though neither he nor any of his family had any sympathy with popular freedom. He was a great friend of literature and the arts, and steadfastly and liberally encouraged them. During his administration of affairs the beautiful dome of the cathedral of Florence was built, and the city was adorned with works of art and enriched with a valuable library. Cosmo died in 1464, and was succeeded in power by his son Pietro, who, though a constant invalid, was a man of great vigor of mind. Until a few years before his death he directed the affairs of the state himself with energy and ability, but as his health became worse he was forced to delegate his powers to others, who did not always act in accordance with his wishes. He died in 1469, leaving two sons, Lorenzo and Giuliano, who were too young to direct the government, which was for some years administered by the ministers of Pietro. At length Lorenzo took the management of affairs in his own hands. Thus, though they possessed no particular title, the Medici were able to transmit their power from father to son, and each one became more powerful than his predecessor. They had unlimited control of the public treasury, and often made use of the public funds to sustain the commercial credit of their house, though on the whole their power was used for the good of the city. An event now occurred which greatly strengthened Lorenzo.

The Duke Galeazzo Sforza, of Milan, whose cruelties had exasperated his people, was assassinated in December, 1476. His brother, Ludovico Sforza, finally succeeded in setting aside the widow and the young heir of the murdered duke, and made him-

self ruler of Milan. The pope, Sixtus IV., who had begun to intrigue like any other Italian prince, for the extension of his territory and the enrichment of his family, was so greatly encouraged by the success of the plot against Duke Galeazzo that he resolved to imitate it. He wished to establish his nephews in Romagna, but he was checked by Lorenzo de' Medici, who aided the cities of Romagna against him. He therefore re-

Lorenzo and Giuliano de' Medici, in the cathedral of Florence. At the elevation of the host during the celebration of mass, Giuliano was stabbed to the heart by Bernardo Bandini and the Archbishop of Pisa. Two priests had undertaken the murder of Lorenzo, but they failed in the attempt, and were subsequently put to death. Lorenzo was but slightly wounded. The conspirators then attempted to raise the Florentines



SIEGE OPERATIONS IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY—FROM AN ENGRAVING OF THE TIME.

solved to remove Lorenzo by assassination. A conspiracy was organized by the pope for the overthrow of the Medici, and the elevation of the Pazzi family, the rivals of the Medicean house, to power in Florence. The parties to the conspiracy were the pope, his nephews, the count, and the Cardinal Riario, the Archbishop of Pisa, the Pazzi, and several priests. Ferdinand, King of Naples, also favored the plot. On Sunday, April 26th, 1478, an attempt was made to kill

in behalf of the Pazzi, but the people, who had no wish to lose the benefits of the wealth of the Medici, rallied enthusiastically to the support of Lorenzo, and the conspirators were seized. Some were despatched on the spot, and others were executed with more form. The Archbishop of Pisa, clad in the robes of his sacred office, and Francesco de' Pazzi were hanged side by side. The pope was very angry at the failure of the conspiracy; he excommunicated the people of

Florence, and, finding that weapon ineffectual, made war upon them.

The power of Lorenzo was greatly increased by the failure of the plot against him. The Florentines gave him a guard to watch over his safety, and he conducted his court on a scale of splendor, which won him the surname of "the Magnificent." He paid for this splendor out of the public funds, but he gathered about him men of letters, artists, poets, and all who could contribute to the glory of his reign, and maintained them liberally. Under him Florence was at the height of her magnificence, but



POPE ALEXANDER VI.

the cause of popular liberty steadily declined. The quarrel with the pope was arranged in 1480. The presence of the Turks in Otranto endangered the safety of Rome, and rendered the pontiff anxious to make peace. Soon afterwards the Neapolitan barons again rebelled against their cruel king, and sent to Pope Innocent VIII. for aid, reminding him that Naples was a fief of the Holy See. The pope offered the throne to René, Duke of Lorraine, but the duke delayed so long that he lost the opportunity. Lorenzo Medici aided Ferdinand against the pope, and finally arranged a settlement by which order was restored in

the Neapolitan kingdom. Ferdinand, in violation of his promises, took a bloody revenge upon some of the leading nobles who had opposed him.

The twelve years covering the period from 1480 to 1492 were in the main peaceful. The King of Naples, the Duke of Milan, and Lorenzo de' Medici had a common motive for desiring peace—their fear of Venice, which was stronger than either of them alone, and was sure to derive some advantage from any war in Italy. The King of Naples also feared that the French party in his kingdom, which was growing stronger, would take advantage of a war to rise against him. The ruler of Milan, Ludovico Sforza, also feared the French. His nephew, the rightful heir of Milan, was the cousin of Charles VIII. of France, and Ludovico was fearful that the French king would seek to restore him to his rights. Lorenzo de' Medici desired to preserve the balance of power, and upheld the authority of Ludovico in Milan, as he regarded that duchy as the best bulwark of Florence against the aggressions of Venice.

During this period of peace all classes of the Italian people increased in material prosperity. Literature and the arts flourished. The prosperity of the people, however, did not stay the tide of corruption and vice which had swept over the country. "Sensuality was the natural result of absolute rule over rich and prosperous states, for men had no scope for lawful political ambition." In Florence, one of the best and most gifted of the Italians of any age endeavored to check the evil by his eloquent denunciations of it. This was the famous Girolamo Savonarola, a Dominican monk. He accomplished little, and soon fell a victim to the hostility of the enemies he had raised up against him.

In 1492 Lorenzo de' Medici died, leaving three sons, Pietro, who succeeded him in the government of Florence; Giovanni, who had been made a cardinal at the age of fourteen, and who subsequently became Pope Leo X.; and Giuliano. In 1493 Innocent VIII. died, and was succeeded by Roderigo Borgia, who bought his election of the college of cardinals, and took the name of Alexander VI. This pope was a man of shamefully and openly vicious life, of inordinate ambition and covetousness, false in his friendship and relentless and cruel in his hatred. He was a man of great ability, and used his power to advance the

ambitious schemes of his children. Cæsar and Lucrezia Borgia were the most noted as well as the ablest of these children. The accession of such a ruler to the papal throne should have inclined the master of Florence to a policy of great caution; but Pietro at once departed from the wise course of his father, and forming a close alliance with Ferdinand of Naples, undertook to thwart the plans of the Duke of Milan and the pope. Ludovico, whose nephew was the son-in-law of Ferdinand, was fearful that the Neapolitan king would seek to restore the dispossessed duke to the throne of Milan, and he made an offensive and defensive alliance with the pope and the Venetians, and, distrusting both his allies, invited Charles VIII., of France, to enter Italy and take possession of the kingdom of Naples. Charles, who had a sort of a claim to the crown of Naples, which he had inherited from the house of Anjou, accepted the offer, and prepared to invade Italy. He conceived the plan of conquering Naples, crossing the Adriatic and driving the Turks out of Greece, freeing Constantinople from their rule, and finally rescuing Jerusalem and the Holy Sepulchre from the keeping of the infidel. His wisest ministers earnestly begged him not to attempt the invasion of Italy; but dazzled with his brilliant hopes, he refused to listen to them.

CHAPTER V.

FROM THE FRENCH CONQUEST OF NAPLES TO THE BATTLE OF LEPANTO.

Preparations to Meet the French Invasion of Italy—The Army of Charles VIII.—The War Commenced in Italy—The French Army Crosses the Alps—Charles VIII. and the Duchess of Milan—Ludovico Sforza Becomes Duke of Milan—The French at Florence—Charles Occupies Rome—Enters Naples—League of the Italian States Against the French—Charles Returns to France—Failure of the French Campaign—Louis XII. Revives the French Claim to Naples—Enters Italy—Captures Ludovico Sforza—Takes Naples—Driven from the Kingdom by the Spaniards—The Papal Forces Conquer the Romagna—Cæsar Borgia Made Duke—Death of Pope Alexander VI.—Florence Subdues Pisa—Position of Venice in the Italian Quarrels—Her Power—The League of Cambray—War Between the League and Venice—The Pope Changes Sides—The Holy League Formed—Battle of Ravenna—Death of Gaston de Foix—The French Driven from Italy—Leo X. Pope—His Selfish Schemes—Louis XII. Tries to Recover Milan—His Death—Francis I. Renews the French Claim to Milan—Invades Italy—Battle of Marignano—Francis Conquers Lombardy—His Contemptuous Treatment of Venice—Is Cheated by the Pope—Charles V. Becomes Emperor—

Helps the Pope to Drive the French from Milan—Power of the Spaniards in Italy—War Between Charles and Francis—Reverses of the French—Francis Enters Italy—Battle of Pavia—Francis Made Prisoner—Charles Master of Northern Italy—He Oppresses the People—The League Against Charles—Rome Captured and Plundered—Treaty Between the Pope and the Spaniards—Rome Taken and Sacked by the Spaniards—Escape of the Pope—Genoa Declares for the French—Revival of the Holy League—Treaty of Cambray—Charles Crowned Emperor by the Pope—His Power in Italy—Florence Compelled to Submit to the Pope—Destruction of the Florentine Republic—Reign of Pope Paul III.—War Between France and Spain—Fall of Siena—Abdication of Charles V.—Treaty of Cateau Cambresis—The Reformation in Italy—The Council of Trent—Foundation of the Society of Jesus—Work of the Jesuits—The Inquisition—Wars With the Turks—Battle of Lepanto—Position of Savoy.

WHEN the intention of the French king to invade Italy became known in that country, Ferdinand, who knew the slight hold he had upon his Neapolitan kingdom, made an alliance with the pope, and promised to aid him in his scheme for enriching his children. He also tried to make terms with Ludovico, but was not successful. Ludovico deceived him, for he was not ready to come to an open rupture with him until the assistance of the French was sure. Ludovico had for a long time held the government of Milan, and had enjoyed all the power, but he had not dared to assume the title of duke, though for convenience we have spoken of him as such. He knew he was hated by the Milanese, and he was afraid that, by assuming the ducal crown, he would bring on a war with the King of Naples, who was the father-in-law of the rightful duke. He had burdened the Milanese so heavily with taxes that they were ready and anxious to rebel against him.

Charles VIII. gathered a powerful army in Dauphiny, and collected a strong fleet at Genoa. His army was composed of tried veterans from France, Germany, and Switzerland, and was paid by the king. It was the finest body of troops that had yet been assembled in Europe, in equipment, material and efficiency. Its cavalry were especially good, and the artillery consisted of light brass cannon drawn by horses, which could manœuvre with the troops in the field and be served with great rapidity. The French used iron balls instead of stone. Before Charles began his march, Ferdinand of Naples died early in 1494, and was succeeded by his son Alfonso. The new king was hated more than his father had been,

and was much crueller, and more obstinate and haughty. He renewed the alliance with the pope. Before Charles set out from France the war began in Italy. Don Frederic, the son of King Alfonso, attempted to seize Genoa, but was defeated at Rapallo by the Duke of Orleans and a body of Swiss troops. In August, 1494, Charles began his march, crossed the Alps, and entered Italy. At Pavia he visited the dispossessed Duke of Milan, who with his wife was kept by Ludovico in the castle of Pavia. The duchess threw herself on her knees at the feet of the King of France and pleaded for her husband with such eloquence that Charles was greatly moved. He had gone too far to retreat, however, and her appeal was in vain. Soon afterwards the duke died, poisoned, as it was generally believed, by his uncle Ludovico, who, safe under the protection of the French, openly took the title of Duke of Milan.

Charles had sought to secure the friendship of Venice, but as yet the republic held aloof from the quarrel. It was necessary to secure Florence before he advanced farther south, and the king determined to march through Tuscany. The Florentines were friendly to him, as they hoped he would rid them of Pietro de' Medici, but Pietro remained faithful to the King of Naples. The French entered Tuscany, and formed the siege of Saranza. Pietro, now alarmed for his safety, went secretly to the French king and made the most abject terms on his own account, agreeing to surrender Pisa, Leghorn, Pietra Santa, and Librafatta, and pay the king a large sum of money, of which Charles stood greatly in need. Upon his return to Florence, Pietro was driven out of the city by the indignant Florentines. He took refuge with the Lord of Bologna, and never went back to his native city again. On the same day the Pisans appealed to Charles to relieve them of their subjection to Florence. The king granted their request, and though this annoyed the Florentines very much, they remained friendly to the king, who a few days later entered Florence. The citizens were fearful that he would seek to deprive them of their liberties, and this fear was justified by the assertion of Charles, that as he had entered the city in arms he had the rights of a conqueror. A few days later, during an interview between the king and the Florentine commissioners, Charles insisted so obstinately upon certain measures

which the Florentines deemed disgraceful to them, that Pietro Capponi, one of the commissioners, indignantly threatened to raise the city against him. Charles was unwilling to risk his army in a street fight with the burghers, and agreed to accept the subsidy which the Florentines offered him, and promised that when he had taken Naples he would restore Pisa and the other fortresses surrendered by Pietro de' Medici.

From Florence Charles passed on to Rome, which he entered without resistance. He compelled the pope to cease his opposition to him, and sanction certain of his measures. He then continued his march southward. Alfonso of Naples abandoned his throne and fled to Sicily, where he did penance for his sins, which were many. His son Ferdinand succeeded him, but his general betrayed Capua to the French, and the people of Naples rose against him, and obliged him to fly to Ischia. Charles entered Naples on the 22d of February, 1495, amid the general rejoicings of the people.

Though successful so far, Charles had left a formidable body of enemies behind him. The Venetians were hostile to him. The pope wanted the French out of Italy because they interfered with his schemes for the advancement of his family, and the Romans had become the enemies of Charles, because of his failure to dethrone the pope, whom they hated. The Florentines, sore over the loss of Pisa, had also become hostile to the king; and the Duke of Milan, alarmed by the success of the French, who had shown him that they no longer needed him, began to plot their ruin. Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, fearful that Charles would attack Sicily, which belonged to them, and Maximilian, King of the Romans, who had been told that Charles aimed at the imperial crown, were also ready to assist in a movement for the expulsion of the French. The Duke of Milan formed an alliance against Charles with the pope, the German king, the Venetians, and the King of Spain. The joy of the Neapolitans was cooled by the insolent conduct of the French army and the grants of Neapolitan lands made by Charles to his followers, and they too joined the league for the expulsion of the French. Charles being informed of the combination against him, resolved to go back to France. He left the Count of Montpensier to govern Naples and finish the conquest of that kingdom,

and in May, 1495, set out upon his northward march. On his return to Rome the pope refused to see him, and left the city. Charles avoided Florence and alienated his only faithful ally by refusing to restore Pisa and the other cities he had promised to give back. The Duke of Orleans was besieged by the Duke of Milan in Novara, and the armies of Milan and Venice, under the Marquis of Mantua, endeavored to stop the progress of Charles at Fornovo, immediately after his passage of the Apennines. They were defeated, and Charles reached Turin in safety. In order to save the Duke of Orleans, who was reduced to great straits in Novara, Charles made a separate peace with the Duke of Milan, and returned to France.

The retreat of Charles was followed by the loss of all he had gained in Italy. Within a year Ferdinand reconquered the kingdom of Naples. He died in 1496, and was succeeded by his uncle Frederic. The Florentines were very indignant at the failure of the French king to restore Pisa to them. Charles gave up the citadel of that place to the citizens of Pisa, and sold the other Florentine fortresses to Genoa and Lucca. The Duke of Milan was very anxious to get possession of Pisa, but the Pisans placed themselves under the protection of Venice, which resolved to uphold the city as a free state. The duke then tried to restore Pietro Medici to Florence, but the citizens prepared to resist him, and Pietro fled. The war went on in a desultory manner. In 1497 a truce was made between France and Spain, which included the Italian allies of both powers, and thus peace was restored to Italy. The invasion of Charles had resulted in utter failure. The only person who had really gained anything by the war was the Duke of Milan.

In 1499 Louis XII., who had succeeded Charles VIII. on the French throne, revived the claims of that monarch, and also asserted his right to the duchy of Milan as the representative of his grandmother, Valentine Visconti, the only daughter of the last duke of that family. In August, 1499, the French army entered Italy, and advancing rapidly to Milan, drove Ludovico out of that city, and occupied it in September.

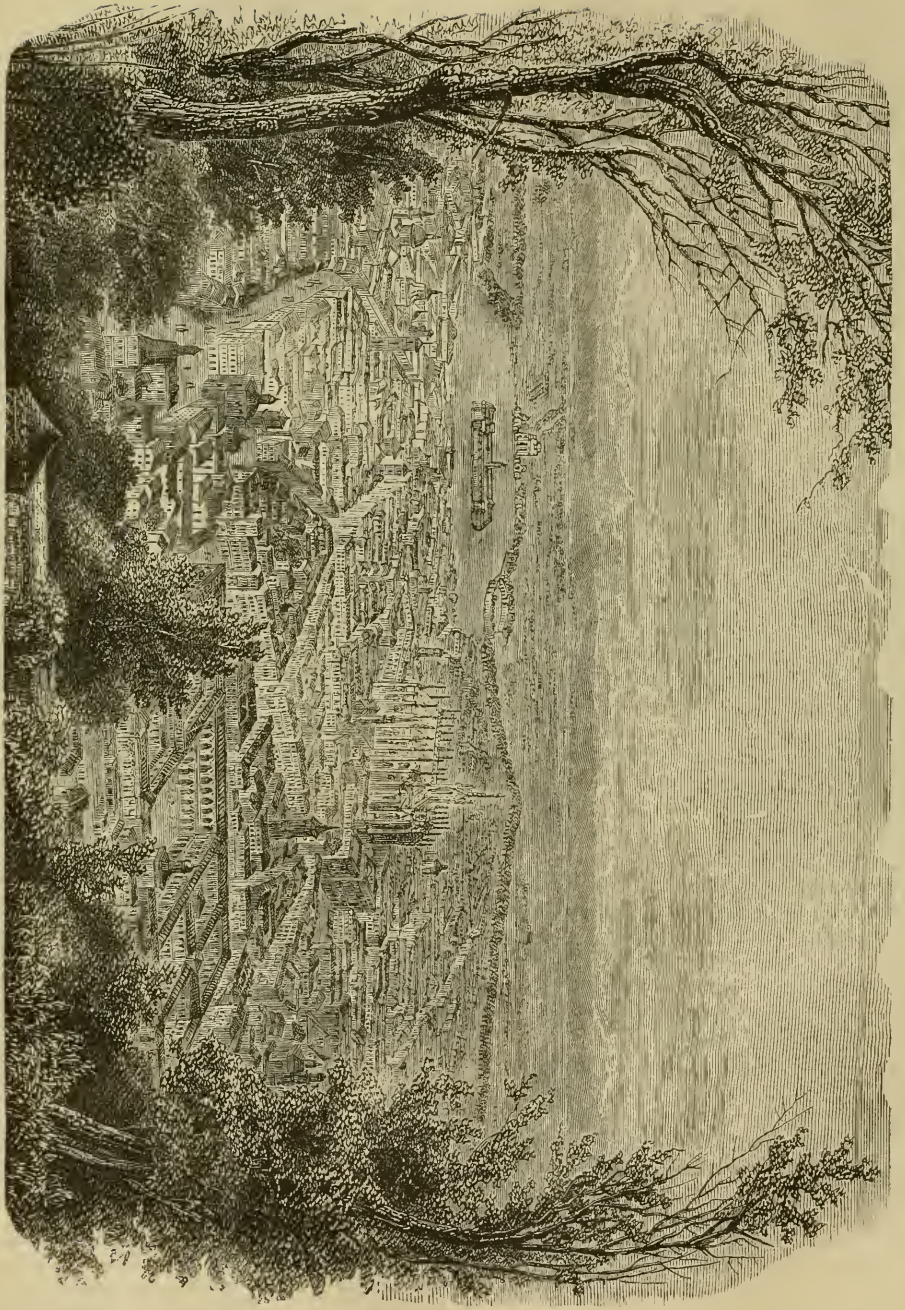
The capture of Milan by the forces of Louis XII. of France was soon followed by a change of fortune. The oppressive conduct of Trivulzio, the French

viceroy, drove the Milanese into a revolt in January, 1500, and the French were expelled from the city. At the same time Ludovico Sforza returned at the head of a large force of Swiss mercenaries, and regained the duchy. Louis despatched another army, in which were 10,000 Swiss, into Italy. The Swiss in the pay of Ludovico betrayed their employer by refusing to fight against their countrymen in the French ranks. Ludovico, in an attempt to escape, was seized by them and delivered to the King of France, who kept him a prisoner in the castle of Loches until his death ten years later. Louis was now undisputed master of the duchy of Milan. On their return home the Swiss seized the important post of Bellinzona, which commanded the entrance from Switzerland into the duchy of Milan. The French king suffered this bold act to pass unnoticed.

Louis now determined to make himself master of Naples, and entered into an alliance with Ferdinand of Spain for the partition of the Neapolitan kingdom between them. Ferdinand was in some measure pledged to protect Frederic, King of Naples, who was his cousin, but he was not able to withstand the temptation held out to him by Louis. Naples was conquered, and Frederic and his son were made prisoners. The former was sent to France; the latter to Spain. The French and Spaniards then began to quarrel over the division of the conquered territories, and a war broke out between them. The Spaniards, led by Gonsalvo of Cordova, their "Great Captain," defeated the French in 1503 in the decisive battles of Seminara and Cerignola, and in 1504 at Mola, near Gaeta. These victories made them absolute masters of the kingdom of Naples, from which the French were entirely expelled.

The pope and his son Cæsar Borgia had taken advantage of the French invasions of Italy to push their schemes forward in all quarters. The Romagna, though a nominal possession of the pope, was really ruled by a number of petty lords. With the aid of some French troops furnished by Louis, Cæsar Borgia wrested the Romagna from these rulers, and in 1501 was made Duke of Romagna by the pope. Louis would not allow him to add Bologna to his possessions, as the lord of that city was under French protection. The Duke of Valentino, as Cæsar was called, then frightened the Florentines into taking him into their

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pay, but in spite of this he gained considerable territory at their expense. At the beginning of the quarrel with Spain about Naples, Louis refused to allow Cæsar to plunder the Florentines any further, as he wanted their alliance in this war. Cæsar then seized Urbino, but this bold move united some of the most powerful Italian nobles against him, and he was obliged to relinquish the city. He was a man of unquestioned ability, handsome, daring, and utterly unscrupulous, cruel and licentious; and was regarded with distrust and dread by all the Italian states. In 1503 Pope Alexander VI. died in consequence of having by accident drank of some wine which his son had poisoned for the purpose of destroying the Cardinal of Corneto, and with his death Cæsar's good fortune came to an end. He was stripped of his possessions as suddenly as he had gained them, and was made a prisoner by the Venetians. The next year he was liberated and went to Naples, where he was seized by Gonsalvo and sent to Spain. He escaped after an imprisonment of two years and took refuge with his brother-in-law, John, King of Navarre, in whose army, he served until his death shortly after.

The conquest of Milan by the King of France made him also master of Genoa, which had been subject to Milan. Dissatisfied with the arbitrary rule of the French, the Genoese attempted to revolt in 1507, but were compelled to submit. Louis now listened to the overtures of the Florentines, who were anxious to obtain possession of Pisa. By bribing both the Kings of France and Spain, the Florentines induced them to leave Pisa to its fate, and in 1509 that city was compelled to submit to the army of Florence, which entered it in triumph. The Pisans in large numbers left their homes rather than submit to the Florentine yoke.

In 1503 Venice, which for fifty years had been at war with the Turks, made peace with them. Relieved from the necessities of this struggle, the republic began to extend its possessions on the mainland of Italy, and among other acts for this purpose, after the death of Pope Alexander VI., seized upon several cities in the papal states, which had been taken by Cæsar Borgia. They thus arrayed the pope against them, and also made an enemy of the Emperor Maximilian, by defeating him in the valley of the Cadore, in 1508, in his attempt to enter Italy to take part in the affairs of that country. Venice was now at the height of

her power. Her territory stretched from Aquilcia to the Adda, and as far south as Ravenna and Rimini. It included also Friuli, the coast of Dalmatia, some of the Greek islands, Cyprus, Crete, some points in southern Greece, Brindisi, and some other coast towns in the kingdom of Naples, which Ferdinand II. had pledged as security for loans from the Venetians. This prosperous condition excited the jealousy and alarm of the powerful neighbors of the republic. Louis XII. of France, as Duke of Milan, wished to recover the Lombard towns which he had been forced to yield to the Venetians by treaty during his wars with Ludovico Sforza; the pope claimed as his own the territory granted by Pepin and Charlemagne, which included Rimini, Faenza, and some other towns; Ferdinand of Spain wished to recover Brindisi and the other Neapolitan towns; the Emperor Maximilian claimed Padua, Vicenza, and Verona, as lapsed fiefs of the empire, and Roveredo, Friuli, and Treviso, as the property of the house of Austria; and the Duke of Savoy, as the descendant of Guy de Lusignan, claimed the island of Cyprus. In order to get possession of what he claimed as his share, Pope Julius II. endeavored to negotiate with the republic; but finding the Venetians averse to surrendering what they regarded as their lawful prize, he changed his policy and organized a league of the leading European states against them. The Emperor Maximilian, the Kings of France and Spain, the Dukes of Savoy and Ferrara, and the Marquis of Mantua, joined in the pope in this confederacy, which was known as the League of Cambray. War was declared by the confederates in 1509. Louis XII. at once took the field, defeated the Venetians at Agnadello, and soon won back the old territories of his duchy. He also gained possession of Verona, Vicenza, and Padua, the keys of which he sent to Maximilian. The pope, who began his part of the undertaking by excommunicating the Venetians, won back the cities of the Romagna; the King of Spain recovered the Neapolitan cities he had claimed; and the Duke of Brunswick regained Friuli for the emperor. Venice seemed on the point of ruin, but, abandoning its possessions in northern Italy, the republic prepared to concentrate its energies upon the defence of its home territory. The slowness with which the German Emperor Maximilian executed his movements enabled the Vene-

tians to rally from their first reverses; and, taking heart, they recaptured Padua. Maximilian besieged the city with an army of 40,000 men, but was obliged to raise the siege.

The pope now suddenly changed his position. He had gained all that he desired, and he now began to fear that the power of Venice would be reduced too low for her to offer any obstacle to the efforts of the French to get possession of northern Italy. He dreaded the effect of foreign supremacy in Italy, and set to work to drive out the French and Germans. He began with the French. By a series of intrigues he broke

but the French commander, Gaston de Foix, the nephew of Louis XII., compelled them to raise the siege. The French were so hard pressed, however, that Louis ordered Gaston to force the allies to a decisive battle. This was brought on before Ravenna on the 11th of April, 1512. The papal and Spanish forces were defeated with great loss, but it was a dearly-bought victory to the French, who lost their gallant young commander, Gaston de Foix, Duke of Nemours. The position of the French king also became more critical; for England was annoying him greatly by repeated descents upon the coast, and Spain had conquered Navarre.

Maximilian now joined the Holy League, and 20,000 Swiss invaded the duchy of Milan. The French were driven out of Lombardy, which was overrun by the Swiss, who seized some of the frontier posts of that region with the intention of adding them to their own possessions. Maximilian Storza, the son of Ludovico, was proclaimed Duke of Milan, and Bologna, Ferrara, Parma, and Piacenza fell into the hands of the pope. Genoa rose in revolt, and of all the conquests of the French in Italy, only two or three fortresses remained to



EXTERIOR DUCAL PALACE, VENICE.

up the League of Cambray, and formed another, known as the *Holy League*, with the Swiss and Venetians, the latter of whom he relieved from the excommunication. He began the war with forces furnished by these, but was defeated by the French commander, and Louis XII., in revenge for this attack upon him, induced a number of the cardinals to summon a general council, which was to meet at Pisa for the purpose of investigating and condemning the conduct of the pope. The council proved a failure, and the pope retaliated by inducing the emperor to make peace with the Venetians, and by drawing the Kings of England and Spain into the Holy League. Bologna, which had fallen into the hands of the French, was besieged by the allied forces,

Florence, which had during the war refused to break with the King of France, was now compelled by the allies to depose its chief magistrate and receive back the Medici, who were sufficiently hostile to the French to guarantee the future policy of the republic. Affairs were restored to the position in which they were before the flight of Pietro de' Medici, in 1494. Having succeeded so well with the French, Pope Julius determined to rid Italy of the Spaniards. "If heaven allow," said he, "the Neapolitans shall soon have another master." His death, in 1513, dissolved his plan. He was succeeded by the Cardinal Giovanni de' Medici, who took the title of Leo X. The policy of Alexander VI. and Julius II. had been to play off the French

and Spaniards against each other, but to prevent either from becoming supreme in Italy, and at last Julius endeavored to rid the peninsula of both. Leo X. sought, above every other interest, the perpetuation of the power of his family in Florence, and as he owed its re-establishment to the Spaniards, his policy was to continue the alliance with them.

Besides the pope the only really independent Italian power at this time was the republic of Venice. The Venetians, becoming offended at the refusal of the other members of the Holy League to restore the territory that had been taken from the republic, began to plot with Louis XII. for the restoration of Milan to him. That duchy was nominally governed by Maximilian Sforza, but its real rulers were the Swiss, who sustained him. The Milanese had grown weary of the tyranny of these mercenaries, and were favorably inclined to the French king. Genoa revolted, and the French army suddenly swept down from the Alps and entered Milan amid the acclamations of the people. Maximilian fled to Novara, which was defended by the Swiss. The French, attempting to take that place, were defeated on the 6th of June, 1513, and were driven back over the Alps. Genoa was reduced to submission by the Spanish viceroy, and Venice was attacked by the viceroy and the German king, and its territory cruelly ravaged, for aiding the French against a member of the league. The Swiss invaded France, and the English defeated the army of Louis at Guinegate. About the same time James IV. of Scotland, the ally of Louis, was defeated by the English at Flodden. These reverses made Louis very anxious for peace. He succeeded in making terms with the pope, the German king, and the Kings of England and Spain, but the Swiss refused to treat with him.

Matters were greatly changed by the death of Louis XII. in 1515. He was succeeded by Francis I., who at once revived the French claim to the duchy of Milan, and prepared to maintain it. Venice and Genoa embraced the French cause; but the pope, the Spanish viceroy, the Florentines, and the Swiss sustained the claim of Duke Maximilian, as none of them wished to see the French again established in Italy. The Swiss were stationed to hold the passes of Piedmont, and the French commander Trivulzio was forced to choose another

means of entering Italy. By one of the most brilliant movements on record, he passed his army, with its artillery and baggage, over Monte Viso, and before the allies were aware that he had begun the ascent of the mountain was safe in Lombardy. The pope's general, Prosper Colonna, was captured at Villafranca, and the French army advanced towards Milan. On the 13th of September the Swiss attacked the French camp at Marignano, about ten miles from Milan. The battle continued late into the night and was renewed the next day. It was one of the bloodiest fights ever waged, and resulted in a complete victory for the French. The Swiss abandoned the duchy in consequence of their defeat, and never after this interfered in Italian affairs. They made peace with the French king soon after. Francis was now master of Lombardy, and had he been an abler man might soon have extended his power over Tuscany and the papal states, and even over Naples. The pope, however, was the abler of the two, and taking advantage of the prejudices of the king, who was never entirely satisfied with his alliance with the "mercantile" republic of Venice, the pontiff concluded a treaty with him at Bologna. The French king made a close alliance with the pope and the Medici of Florence, and allowed himself to be cheated of the most important consequences of his victory. At the pope's persuasion he consented to defer his attempt upon Naples until the death of Ferdinand of Spain. Then, appointing the Constable de Bourbon his lieutenant in Milan, Francis disbanded the bulk of his army and returned to France. The pope, freed from danger at his hands, now devoted himself to advancing the interests of his family in Florence.

In 1516 Ferdinand of Spain died, and was succeeded by his grandson Charles, Archduke of Austria and also Lord of the county of Burgundy and the Low Countries, which he had inherited from his mother. Three years later, 1519, Charles was elected German king. He thus became the most powerful sovereign of Europe, as he was King of Germany and Spain, Archduke of Austria, Count of Burgundy, and Lord of the Low Countries. The Reformation now began to move Europe with powerful force, and Charles, who was a devoted Catholic, was unwilling to see his religion supplanted by the doctrines taught by Luther. More-

over, he was fearful that the resistance to spiritual tyranny might become a revolt against civil authority also, and both these feelings caused him to side with the pope. In Italy he was also the rival of the King of France and the natural ally of the pope, and so in 1521 a treaty was negotiated between the pope and Charles, and the latter was urged by the pontiff to come and drive the French out of Italy. It was agreed

did in its intellectual achievements, was a curse to his country. Michael Angelo and Raphael shed a glory over it, but the ambition and the falseness of the pope were the cause of serious evils to it. Indeed, in spite of their efforts to rid the peninsula of foreign influence, the policy of the last three popes had steadily increased that supremacy which they dreaded. Alexander VI., by his alliance with Ferdinand against the



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between them that Francesco, who had become the head of the Storza family by the death of his brother Maximilian, should be made Duke of Milan. The plan was successful. The French were driven out of the duchy and Francesco was proclaimed duke. Parma and Piacenza were restored to the pope. Leo died soon after hearing the news of this success. He was an intellectual epicure, and his reign, though splen-

French, introduced the Spaniards into Italy. The Holy League of Pope Julius II. gave them a strong hold upon central Italy, and the alliance between Leo X. and Charles V. made them masters of the duchy of Milan, for Francesco, the new duke, was but a puppet in their hands. The new pope, Adrian VI., though a far better man than either of those named, contributed to increase the Spanish power

in Italy. He had been the tutor of Charles V., and was therefore naturally inclined to his cause. The persistence of Francis I. in seeking to recover his lost Italian territory compelled the pope to make a direct alliance with the emperor. Venice, tired of the French alliance, also joined the party of Charles, and in 1522 Genoa was captured from the French by the imperial army. Thus the power of Spain was supreme throughout Italy.

Francis, undismayed by his losses, began in 1523 his preparations for a vigorous effort to recover the duchy of Milan. The pope at once organized a league for the defence of Italy, which embraced himself, the Emperor Charles, the King of England, the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, the Duke of Milan, and the cities of Florence, Genoa, Lucca, and Siena. The French army had begun its march into Italy, and Francis was about to follow, when he was detained at home by the discovery of the conspiracy of the great Constable of Bourbon, and was obliged to intrust the command of his army to William de Bonniwet, Admiral of France, who was outgeneralled by the papal commander, and failed to accomplish anything. About the same time Pope Adrian VI. died, and was succeeded by Cardinal Giulio de' Medici, who took the title of Clement VII. The new pope was anxious for peace, for he was fully alive to the danger to Italy of having the King of Spain master of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies and of the duchy of Milan also; but he was unable to accomplish his desire. By the death of Prospero Colonna the Marquis of Pescara succeeded to the command of the allied army. The spring of 1524 witnessed fresh disasters for the French. The Duke of Bourbon entered Italy as the lieutenant of the emperor, and the French commander Bonniwet was forced to retreat. In a battle on the Sesia, near Romagnano, the Chevalier Bayard was killed. Bourbon and Pescara then invaded France by the Cornice road, captured Aix and several other towns, and laid siege to Marseilles. They were soon compelled to raise the siege and retreat into Italy, and Bourbon found that his countrymen had no wish to share in his treachery.

Francis now entered Italy with a fine army of 30,000 men. The Venetians, though they had joined the league, made no effort to interfere with him, being perhaps jealous of the power of the emperor.

Francis threw away the advantages he had gained by halting in his advance to lay siege to Pavia. The pope secretly negotiated a treaty of neutrality with the French king and abandoned his allies, and the King of England was so lukewarm in his zeal for the cause that he failed to furnish the aid and supplies he had promised. Francis was so much elated by this good fortune that he foolishly weakened his army by sending a portion of it, under the Duke of Albany, to conquer the Neapolitan kingdom. This proved his ruin, for the imperial army, reinforced by new levies under the Constable of Bourbon and a German leader named George Frundesberg, attacked him on the 24th of February, 1525, before Pavia, and utterly defeated him. Francis and his brother-in-law, Henry d'Albret, King of Navarre, were made prisoners, and 8,000 men and some of the greatest nobles of France were slain. Francis was imprisoned in the Castle of Pizzighittone, near Milan, and was afterwards removed to Madrid, where he was confined in the Alcazar.

The victory of Pavia made Charles absolute master of northern Italy, to the great dissatisfaction of the pope and the Venetians, who had expected his defeat. He was too powerful to be a safe neighbor, and the Venetians endeavored to induce the pope to aid them in forming a league with the Regent of France, the Duke of Ferrara, and the Swiss for the purpose of checking the emperor and securing the release of King Francis, but the pope was afraid to offend the emperor, and signed a treaty with the commanders of the imperial army. In order to support the large force which the emperor maintained in the peninsula, the various Italian states were burdened with heavy taxes. The people of the duchy of Milan were almost ruined by this imposition, and were annoyed and driven to desperation by the brutality of the troops who were quartered upon them. The duke, seeing the sufferings of his people, and feeling that he himself was but a mere puppet in the hands of the Spaniards, resolved to make an effort to throw off their yoke. He was urged to this step by the advice of his chancellor, Girolamo Morone, and was secretly encouraged by the pope and the Venetians. He succeeded in drawing the Spanish commander, the Marquis of Pescara, into the plot, by offering, in the name of the parties to the plot, to guarantee him

the crown of Naples if he would assist in driving the Spaniards and Germans out of Italy. The marquis at first gave his adhesion to the scheme, but in a short time betrayed his confederates to the emperor, arrested the chancellor, and besieged the Duke of Milan in his castle. By command of the emperor he seized on all the fortified places of the duchy except Cremona and Milan, which still held out for Duke Francesco. Towards the close of 1525 the Marquis of Pescara died, and the command of the imperial army in Italy passed to the Duke of Bourbon, who was given the duchy of Milan by the emperor.

Francis I. regained his liberty early in 1526 by signing the humiliating treaty of Madrid, renouncing, among other things, his claims to Naples, Milan, Genoa, and Asti. Immediately upon his return to France he repudiated the terms of the treaty on the plea that he had been compelled to sign it while a prisoner. The sufferings of the Italians were very great, and all now turned to the King of France as their only hope. The Duke of Bourbon promised to remove the troops from Milan upon the payment of 300,000 crowns, but when this sum was raised he found himself powerless to fulfil his promise, as the troops refused to obey him. They had not been paid for a long time, and they supplied their needs by plundering the unhappy Milanese. The business of the city ceased; no man dared to open his shop lest he should be instantly robbed of all his goods by the troops. In this state of affairs the pope, the Venetians, and the Duke of Milan formed a league with the King of France, which, as the pope was at the head of it, was called the *Holy League*. Its objects were declared to be to compel Charles to release the sons of Francis, who were detained in Spain as hostages, and to restore Francesco to the duchy of Milan. In case Charles refused these demands he was to be attacked first in Milan and then in Naples.

In the meantime the people of Milan were made to suffer all the more because their duke was a member of this league. An effort of the Venetian army to expel the Spaniards from Milan was defeated by the Constable of Bourbon. Cardinal Colonna, a personal enemy of the pope, now collected an army and marched suddenly to Rome. His troops plundered the Vatican and the church of St. Peter, and the pope, who had taken refuge in the Castle

of St. Angelo, was compelled to surrender and make terms with the ambassador of the emperor. About the same time the imperial army in Italy was strongly reinforced. Among the new troops was a splendid army of German infantry, commanded by George Frundesberg. Frundesberg had raised these troops himself, and they had followed him in the hope of plunder, which his great military fame seemed to promise them. They were quartered at Mantua. Bourbon's army at Milan was almost in an open mutiny because of the failure of their pay, and Frundesberg's men soon became equally discontented. Bourbon was soon joined by the Viceroy of Naples with his forces, and by Frundesberg and his troops. It being impossible to extort anything more from the Milanese, the constable led the army into central Italy in the hope of finding some means of contenting them.

The pope, who had broken the truce forced upon him by Cardinal Colonna, sent a force to ravage the country estates of the Colonnas, and caused their palaces at Rome to be destroyed. He also made an unsuccessful attempt against the Neapolitan kingdom. The news of the march of the imperial army under Bourbon southward filled him with alarm for the safety of both Florence and Rome. He made a hasty peace with the Spanish viceroy and disbanded nearly all his troops. The viceroy promised that the imperial troops should not approach either Florence or Rome, but neither he nor their commanders could stay the march of the army, which was excited and urged on by the thought of the rich booty which the capture of the Eternal City would afford them; and it is most probable that Bourbon himself had no wish to spare the city. Passing by Florence, the army at length arrived before Rome. The pope endeavored to stay the advance of this terrible force, but without success. Frundesberg, in attempting to quell a mutiny of his men, was seized with a fit which afterwards cost him his life, and Bourbon was left in sole charge of the army. On the 6th of May, 1527, Rome was carried by storm, and for two weeks the city was given up to plunder, massacre, and the most horrid deeds of violence. "The splendor of Rome, which had outlasted so many heathen and barbarian invasions, perished at last from the cruelty and brutality of a Christian army." The Duke of Bourbon having



DEATH OF THE DUKE OF BOURBON.

been killed in the assault upon the city, the Prince of Orange was chosen by the troops to command them. The pope, who had fled to the Castle of St. Angelo, surrendered on the 5th of June because of the failure of the supplies of the castle. He was kept a prisoner until September 9th, when he escaped to Orvieto.

The Florentines, taking advantage of the absence of the imperial army from Tuscany, drove out the Medici, and, placing themselves under the protection of France, restored their republican form of government. Genoa also threw off the Spanish yoke, and, under the lead of Andrea Doria, declared for the French. The Holy League was revived, and a French army entered Italy. Pavia was taken by storm and sacked in revenge for the defeat of Francis before its walls. Lautrec, the French commander, advanced to Naples, and the Prince of Orange evacuated Rome and threw the remnant of his army which had survived its excesses into that city. Lautrec invested Naples by land, while the combined fleets of France and Genoa blockaded it from the sea. The city must have fallen had not Francis seriously offended the Dorias by his unjust treatment of them. Andrea Doria withdrew the Genoese fleet, and Genoa abandoned the French alliance and went over to the emperor. Lautrec died of a sickness which swept away the greater part of his army, and the remainder were compelled by the Genoese to raise the siege. The French invasion resulted in a complete failure; the Prince of Orange was made viceroy for the emperor, and the power of Charles was riveted upon Italy more firmly than ever.

The pope, who was resolved to become master of Florence once more, now began to negotiate with the emperor for that purpose. In June, 1529, an alliance was formed between these two potentates. Charles, who was only emperor-elect, though spoken of always as emperor, was promised the imperial crown and the investiture of the kingdom of Naples, and he agreed to compel the Venetians and the Duke of Ferrara to restore to the pope some of the territory they had taken from him, and to aid him in his designs upon Florence. In August of the same year the war between Charles and Francis was brought to an end by the Treaty of Cambray, in which Francis, with characteristic selfishness, sacrificed his Italian allies in order to obtain peace.

Thus abandoned, they were obliged to make the best arrangement they could with Charles. The Duke of Milan, who was childless, was allowed to retain his duchy on payment of a large sum, and at his death the emperor claimed the duchy as a lapsed fief. The Venetians were obliged to surrender Ravenna and Cervia to the pope, and their conquests in Apulia to the emperor. The others were allowed to purchase peace on terms more or less favorable. All the Italian states were obliged to admit the authority of the emperor. Florence alone was exempted from the general peace; nothing but the unconditional submission of the republic to the pope would satisfy either Clement or Charles.

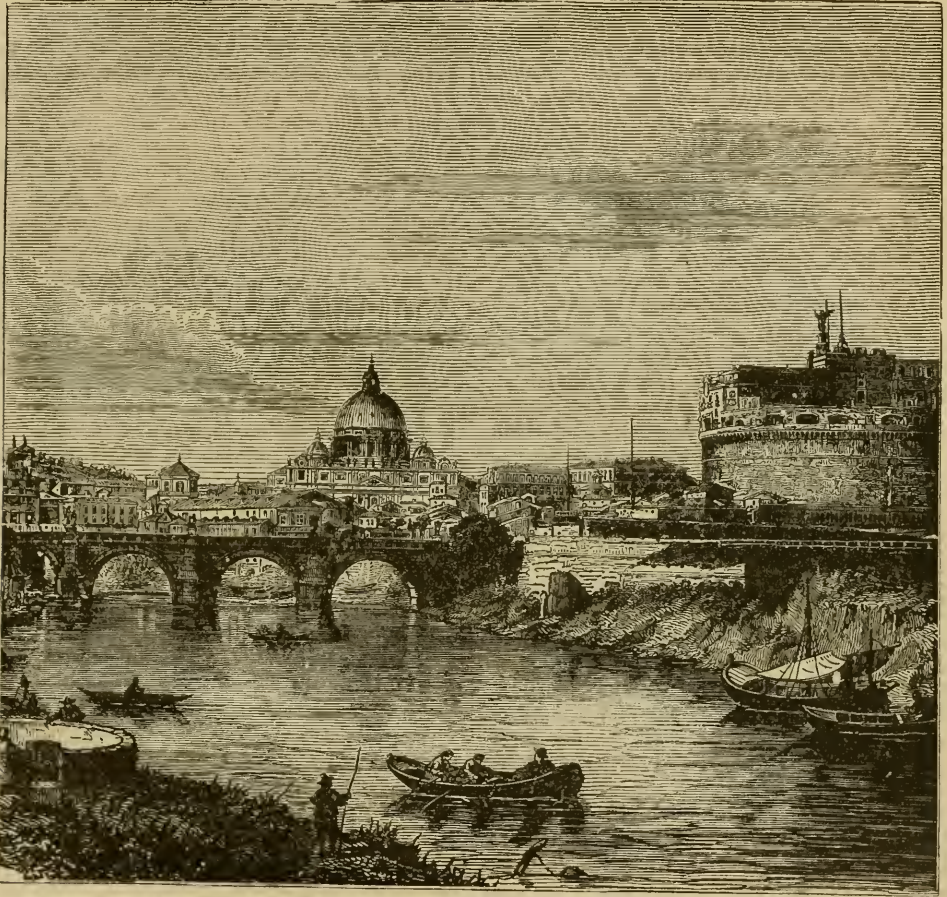
In 1530 Charles was crowned King of Italy and Emperor by Pope Clement. He received both crowns at once, and the coronation took place at Bologna, instead of at Milan and Rome. This informality, however, amounted to nothing. Charles V. was supreme monarch of the mightiest realm that had been ruled by any sovereign since the days of Charlemagne. He was absolute in Italy, and in the truest sense king of that country. His coronation did not unite Italy with the empire, however, but with the Spanish crown, to which it passed at his abdication. His coronation closed the long war between France and Spain for the possession of Italy. The results of this struggle were three-fold: the enslavement of Italy; the humiliation of France; and the exaltation of Spain. Charles V. was the last emperor crowned in Italy.

The presence of Charles in Italy was made the occasion of compelling Florence to submit to the pope. The Florentines having refused to receive back the Medici, the Prince of Orange was ordered by the emperor to attack the city. Florence was fortified by Michael Angelo, and was defended with great obstinacy and gallantry by the garrison and by an army without the walls, but its ablest general being slain in battle and another proving a traitor, the city was compelled to surrender in August, 1530. It was obliged to pay a heavy ransom and receive an imperial garrison. The hereditary rule of the Medici was re-established, and this family continued in power until the death of the last Medici in 1737. In 1570 Cosmo de' Medici was made Grand Duke of Tuscany by Pope Pius V. From this time Florence "ceased to have an in-

dependent political life; she was no longer a city-state, but only the seat of the government of the grand duchy."

In 1534 Clement VII. died, and was succeeded by Alexander Farnese, who took the title of Paul III. Pope Paul was a bitter enemy of the Medici, and exerted himself to depress them and advance his own family. He encouraged the Florentines to

30,000 men. In Italy the effort against the emperor was unsuccessful; the Florentines were severely punished, and were obliged to submit to the Medici. After this they made no other effort to rid themselves of their masters. Pope Paul pursued a varying policy, courting the French sometimes, and sometimes leaning towards the emperor, who was the only person with



VIEW OF ROME, SHOWING THE CASTLE OF ST. ANGELO AND ST. PETER'S.

rebel against their lord, and the time seemed favorable for the movement, as a new war had broken out between Francis and Charles. The latter claimed the duchy of Savoy, the reigning duke of which was his uncle, and in 1536 overran the duchy with his troops. Charles by invading France threw his rival on the defensive, but he was unable to accomplish anything, and was forced to retreat with a loss of

the power to advance his family in Italy. As Charles, however, was not willing to do anything more for the Farnesi, the pope was on the whole unfriendly to him, and so incurred his anger. He came to an open rupture with Charles about the duchy of Parma, which the emperor wanted for his son-in-law, Ottaviano, who was also the pope's grandson. In the midst of this quarrel the pope died, in 1549. His suc-

cessor was Cardinal del Monte, who became Julius III. The new pope gave Parma to Ottaviano. Alexander, the son of Ottaviano and Margaret, the daughter of the Emperor Charles, became the most famous of all the generals of Philip II., of Spain. He is known as the Prince of Parma.

In the meantime Francis I. had followed up the withdrawal of Charles from France, by renewing his claims to Savoy and also to Milan, but the war was prevented by a truce in July, 1537, which was finally settled into a definite peace in 1539. Francis was left in possession of Savoy, Bresse, and half of Piedmont; the emperor kept the rest of Piedmont and Milan. The Duke of Savoy, thus unjustly stripped of his territories, was confined to the county of Nice. Geneva, which had been nominally subject to Savoy, now became an independent republic.

In March, 1547, Francis I. died. He was succeeded by Henry II., who, in 1550, became involved in a war with Charles. The chief events of this war occurred beyond the Alps, but it spread to Italy and caused considerable suffering to that country. In 1552 Siena revolted against the Spaniards, and was attacked by the Florentines under Duke Cosmo de' Medici. It was captured after a severe siege of fifteen months, and received an imperialist garrison, but two years later was definitely united to Florence. Many of the Sienese abandoned their homes rather than submit to Florence. On the whole the war in Italy resulted in favor of the Spaniards. The French overran Savoy, but could not obtain a footing in Milan.

In 1555 Charles V. abdicated the throne and retired to a monastery. He was succeeded on the throne of Spain by his son Philip II., and in the empire by his brother Ferdinand. Italy went with the Spanish crown. It had already been ruled for some years by Philip. In the same year Pope Paul III. died, and his successor, Gian Pietro Caraffa, became Pope Paul IV. The latter pope hated the Spaniards cordially, and was anxious to see the French back in Naples. In alliance with Henry II., the Duke of Ferrara, and the Florentine exiles, he brought on a war against Philip II. in the Neapolitan kingdom, and a French army under the Duke of Guise was sent to his assistance. The Spaniards were successful, however; the French were driven away, and the pope was obliged to submit to Philip,

who, however, was too good a son of the church to deprive him of his territory, and restored him all that had been taken from him. The war was decided by the defeat of the French, and Henry was obliged to sign the treaty of Cateau Cambresis, by which he relinquished Savoy and Piedmont, with the exception of Turin and four other towns, and withdrew his troops from Montferrat, Tuscany, and Corsica.

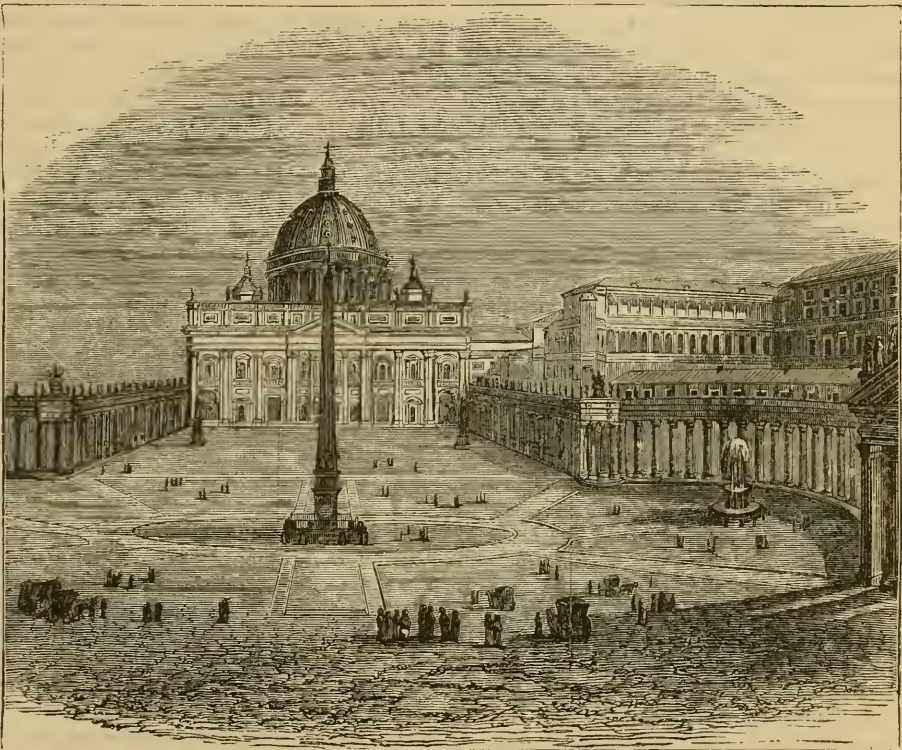
The principles of the Reformation, which had changed the character of northern Europe and influenced France to no slight degree, took no root in Italy. Here and there, throughout the peninsula, and even at Rome itself, were to be found persons who held the views of the reformers, and particularly the great doctrine of justification by faith; but they formed no party, and had no influence upon the course of affairs. Yet some of those who held the reformed opinions without leaving the church, such as the Cardinal Contarini and Bernardo Ochino, one of the generals of the Order of the Capuchins, were so prominent as to make it necessary to do something to check the spread of these doctrines in the church. It was agreed to hold a general council, and this plan was warmly favored by the Emperor Charles V., who hoped it would heal the troubles which the religious differences had caused in the empire. The council met at Trent in 1545, and with some breaks continued its sessions for twenty years. It reformed some abuses; but defined so explicitly and rigidly the doctrines of the Roman Church that those who did not hold the articles put forth by this council were excluded from the church. Thus the council, so far from healing the division of Christendom, only made it wider and deeper.

About the same time several societies were established for the reformation of the evils from which the church had suffered. Ignatius Loyola, a young Spanish soldier, who had borne arms against the French, was wounded at the siege of Pampeluna, and as he lay helpless his thoughts were turned towards religious matters, and he resolved to devote the remainder of his life to the service of the church. He took priest's orders at Venice, and in 1540, with the permission of Pope Paul III., established the *Society of Jesus*. The order grew with great rapidity. Its greatest successes were won in Spain and Italy. Its distinguishing features were absolute devotion to the pope

and unhesitating obedience to its superiors. "Through all varieties of fortune, in exile and imprisonment, and even in dissolution, their oath of uninquiring, unhesitating obedience to the papal command has never been broken. . . No degradation is too servile, no place too far, no action too revolting, for these unreasoning instruments of power. Wilfully surrendering the right of judgment and the feelings of conscience into the hands of their superior, there is no method by law or argument of regulating their conduct. The one principle of sub-

command of his chiefs is venerated as a saint. Against practices and feelings like these you can neither reason nor be on your guard. In all kingdoms, accordingly, at some time or other, the existence of the order has been found inconsistent with the safety of the state, and it has been dissolved by the civil power. The moment, however, the church regains its hold, the Jesuits are sure to be restored."

The Jesuits set themselves to work at once to undo the work of the Reformation, and in Italy they effectually checked it.



ST. PETER'S AND THE VATICAN—ROME.

mission has swallowed up all the rest, and fulfilment of that duty ennobles the iniquitous deeds by which it is shown. Other societies put a clause, either by words or implication, in their promise of obedience, limiting it to things which are just and proper. This limit is ostentatiously abrogated by the followers of Loyola. The merit of obeying an order to slay an enemy of the church more than compensates for the guilt of the murder. In other orders a homicide is looked upon with horror; in this, a Jesuit who kills a heretical king by

Italy remained Romanist, except in a little corner of the duchy of Savoy, where the Vaudois, the descendants of a primitive and pure church, maintained the principles of the gospel of Christ. Against this little band the Jesuits directed their energies. The Vaudois were imprisoned, tortured, put to death with the most horrible cruelties; armies were sent against them, their territory was ravaged with fire and sword, and it often seemed that their destruction was sure; but they survived these trials and maintained their long struggle with Rome

until the middle of the nineteenth century, when they were admitted to an equality with the other subjects of the Sardinian king. Elsewhere the Jesuits were abundantly successful. They reformed the church of many of its abuses, and at length succeeded in imposing their will upon the popes themselves, who thenceforth became very different from their predecessors. The indifference, voluptuousness, and open immorality of the pontifical character, disappeared, and the popes applied themselves zealously to the interests of the church, and were often men of austere piety. "In accordance with the advice of Ignatius Loyola, Paul III. set up in Rome a system of religious courts, spies, police, judges, and executioners, called the Inquisition, somewhat after the model of the institution which had been regulated by St. Dominic. Persecution and terror began to spread throughout Italy. In each different state the ecclesiastics held a court, and called upon the civil power to help them, and in almost every case the commands of the chief court at Rome were readily obeyed. Some of those who were suspected of heresy took shelter in England or Germany, or in the Protestant cities and lands of the Swiss; others suffered the loss of their goods, torture, and death. In Rome, and in most other places, heretics were burned; in Venice they were drowned. Thus throughout Italy the new opinions were stamped out."

During the wars between France and Spain, Italy suffered much at the hands of the Turks, who were the allies of Francis I. The reigning sultan at this time was Solyman I., under whom the power of the Turks reached its highest point. He possessed a powerful navy, commanded by Khaireddin Pasha, whom the Europeans called Barbarossa. This commander captured Algiers from the Spaniards and made it the headquarters of his fleet, which swept the Mediterranean at pleasure. He defeated the Genoese fleet under Andrea Doria, and the imperial and Venetian fleets off Prevesa, and ravaged the coasts of Italy, sacking Friuli, Reggio, and the Venetian possessions in the Adriatic. In alliance with the French he took and burned the city of Nice. In 1570, though at peace with Venice, Selim, who had succeeded his father Solyman, attacked Cyprus, which belonged to the Venetians. The island was bravely defended, but it was conquered with great cruelty by the end of 1571. Pius V., who was now pope, organ-

ized a league of the Mediterranean powers against the Turks, and a fleet was provided by Spain, Savoy, the Knights of St. John, Venice, and the pope. The command was given to Don John, of Austria, a natural son of Charles V. On the 5th of September, 1571, he inflicted a severe defeat upon the Turkish fleet off the Gulf of Lepanto. The Turkish fleet was almost destroyed, and Venice was delivered from the danger of conquest with which it was threatened. Still the Turks were enabled to retain Cyprus, as the allies did not follow up their success. In 1573 the Venetians made peace with the sultan, relinquishing their claims to the island, and paying him a large tribute.

The peace of Cateau Cambresis restored to Emmanuel Filibert, Duke of Savoy, a large portion of his territories, but the French king retained Saluzzo, Turin and four other fortresses. Philip II. by this treaty was given Asti and Vercelli, but he at once restored them to the duke, who was his cousin. At the same time a marriage was arranged between the Duke of Savoy and Margaret, the sister of Henry II., of France. It was celebrated after considerable delay, and in 1574 the French and Spaniards relinquished to the duke all the territory they had retained by the treaty, and the duke became once more master of all his hereditary dominions. He removed his capital from Chambéry to Turin, and Italian became the language of the court and the government. Thus Piedmont, and not Savoy, became the chief state in his dominions, and from this reign the Dukes of Savoy became in all things Italian princes. Savoy was indeed the only independent state left in Italy, for the rest were either subject to or under the influence of Spain. On the death of Emmanuel Filibert, his son Charles Emmanuel succeeded to the duchy. He was ambitious of extending his territories, and in order to secure the support of Spain married the sister of Philip II. In 1588, taking advantage of the religious wars in France, he invaded Saluzzo, and easily conquered it. He also joined the Catholic League against Henry III of France, and invaded Provence and at the same time laid siege to Geneva. Upon the assassination of Henry he even cherished the hope of succeeding to the French crown in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Francis I. The battle of Ivry, however, established the power of Henry IV.,

and the Duke of Savoy was driven out of Provence. A long war followed, which was ended in 1601 by the treaty of Lyons. The Duke of Savoy was allowed to keep Saluzzo, but was obliged to surrender Bresse, Bugey, and the Pays de Gex. This was a great loss to Savoy, but it aided greatly in making her a strictly Italian power.

CHAPTER VI.

FROM THE BATTLE OF LEPANTO TO THE FALL OF NAPOLEON I.

Increase of the Temporal Power of the Pope—He Gains Ferrara and Urbino—Policy of the Papal Government—Venice and Pope Paul V.—Decline of the Power of Venice—Loses Her Eastern Possessions—Decline of the Spanish Power in Italy—Rebellion of Masaniello at Naples—The Outbreak Crushed—The Outbreak in Sicily—Italy During the Eighteenth Century—The War of the Spanish Succession—The Peace of Utrecht—Rise of the Austrian Influence in Italy—The Duke of Savoy Becomes King of Sicily—The Succession to Parma—The King of Sicily Becomes King of Sardinia—The War of the Polish Succession—Re-establishment of the Spanish Influence in Southern Italy—War of the Austrian Succession—The Peace of Aix la Chapelle Leaves the Bourbons Supreme in Italy—Loss of Power by the Popes—The French Revolution—The French Republican Invasion of Italy—Bonaparte's Victories—Treaty of Campo Formio—The Italian Republics—Napoleon King of Italy.

THE history of Italy during the seventeenth century is so closely allied with that of other countries, that we shall be obliged to relate the greater part of it in connection with our accounts of those countries, and shall confine our attention here to those portions relating exclusively or chiefly to the purely Italian history of this period.

The pope had now become a leading Italian prince, and concerned himself more about his temporal than his spiritual possessions. Clement VIII. proved himself one of the most grasping and ambitious of pontiffs. In 1597 Alfonso d'Este, Duke of Ferrara, died without children, and left his dominions, consisting of Ferrara, Modena, and Reggio, to his kinsman Cæsare. The pope at once claimed Ferrara as a fief of the Holy See, and Henry IV. of France, who was anxious to win the favor of the pope, as a means of strengthening himself with his Roman Catholic subjects, sent word to his holiness that in case of resistance, he would help him to enforce his claim. Philip II. was old and feeble, and though he espoused

the cause of Duke Cæsare, he took no active steps to support him, and the pope sent his troops into Ferrara and occupied the city. The new duke submitted to what he could not prevent, and retired to Modena, which he held as a fief of the empire. The family of Este continued to reign in Modena until 1794.

In the reign of Pope Urban VIII., the duchy of Urbino passed into the hands of the Holy See as a lapsed fief, upon the failure of the line of Giovanni della Rovere. "The territory of Urbino," says Ranke, "was at once subjected to the system of government prevailing in other districts belonging to the church, and very soon there might be heard throughout the duchy those complaints that the government of priests invariably called forth."

Had the pope been a less selfish ruler, he might have made the beautiful domain over which he was lord one of the happiest regions upon earth. When the states of the church came into the possession of the pontiff, they were rich and prosperous. From the first the pontiff made himself their absolute master, and step by step deprived their people of every liberty or right they had ever possessed. Taxes were levied on everything from which a revenue could be derived; even alum, salt, flour and meat were taxed; the poor were crushed beneath the heavy burdens laid upon them, enterprise was destroyed, and industry discouraged. The popes regarded their temporal possessions merely as a source of gain, and cared nothing for the inhabitants, whom they oppressed and robbed of their earnings. There was no such thing as personal or political liberty in this part of Italy. The power of the papal government extended to every department of life, and any deviation from the exact line of conduct or of thought prescribed by the court of Rome was severely punished. Education was discouraged, and idleness, poverty and vice increased with fearful rapidity.

The pope endeavored to extend his authority over the Venetians, but met with a determined opposition from them. In their religion they were members of the Roman communion, and their chief ecclesiastical dignitary was a patriarch, who was inferior in rank to the pope alone. He was maintained by the Venetians with great splendor, but they resolutely refused to allow him to interfere with their political affairs, and fixed his residence first at Aquileia,

and subsequently at Grado. After the Jesuits became a power in the church, an effort was begun to establish more firmly the spiritual authority of Rome in Catholic Europe, and as a means of doing this the church began a systematic warfare upon education and freedom of thought. Venice had from the first regarded with disfavor the effort to render her subject to Rome, and the warfare upon knowledge which the Jesuits fomented was a direct blow at one of her most important industries. Since the early part of the sixteenth century Venice had been noted for her printing

In 1605 Cardinal Borghese became pope, with the title of Paul V. He was arrogant and grasping, and soon came in conflict with the Venetians in a dispute concerning the boundaries of their respective dominions. The Venetians were in no mood to submit to his arrogant pretensions, and the pope finding it impossible to get the advantage of them in this controversy, began to interfere in their religious affairs by way of revenge. Until now the state had always managed the payment of tithes, and had claimed to be the highest authority for the settlement of disputes concerning ecclesiastical persons or things.

The pope now asserted his right to manage both of these matters, and his claim was strenuously opposed by the senate. The leader of this opposition was Fra Paolo Sarpi, an eminent theologian and lawyer of Venice. The pope laid the republic under an interdict; but the senate ordered that any priest who should seek to put this measure in force should be hanged. The Jesuits offered to celebrate the ordinary services, but refused to celebrate the mass; but neither the republic nor the pope would accept the compromise, and the Jesuits were expelled from Venice. The republic had sustained the cause of Henry IV. of France in



WATER SCENE—VENICE.

presses. The volumes which were issued from the press of Aldo Manuzio commanded the admiration of the world, and are still dear to the antiquary. As the restrictions by which the church sought to destroy the publication of books multiplied, the Venetian printers began to suffer serious loss, and were at length obliged to leave that city and the territory of the republic altogether. Thus the Venetians were embittered against Rome, which had deprived them of an industry which was not only an object of pride to them, but also a source of great profit.

his quarrel with the league, and hoped that he would now assist it in its hour of need, and aid was also expected from James I. of England. Neither of these sovereigns, however, would render the republic the least support; and the Venetians, left alone, were forced to make terms with the pope. They consented to admit his claim to the management of ecclesiastical affairs, but firmly refused to allow the Jesuits to return to the Venetian territory.

For many years Venice took no part in the general politics of Italy or of Europe. In the earlier years of the seventeenth cen-

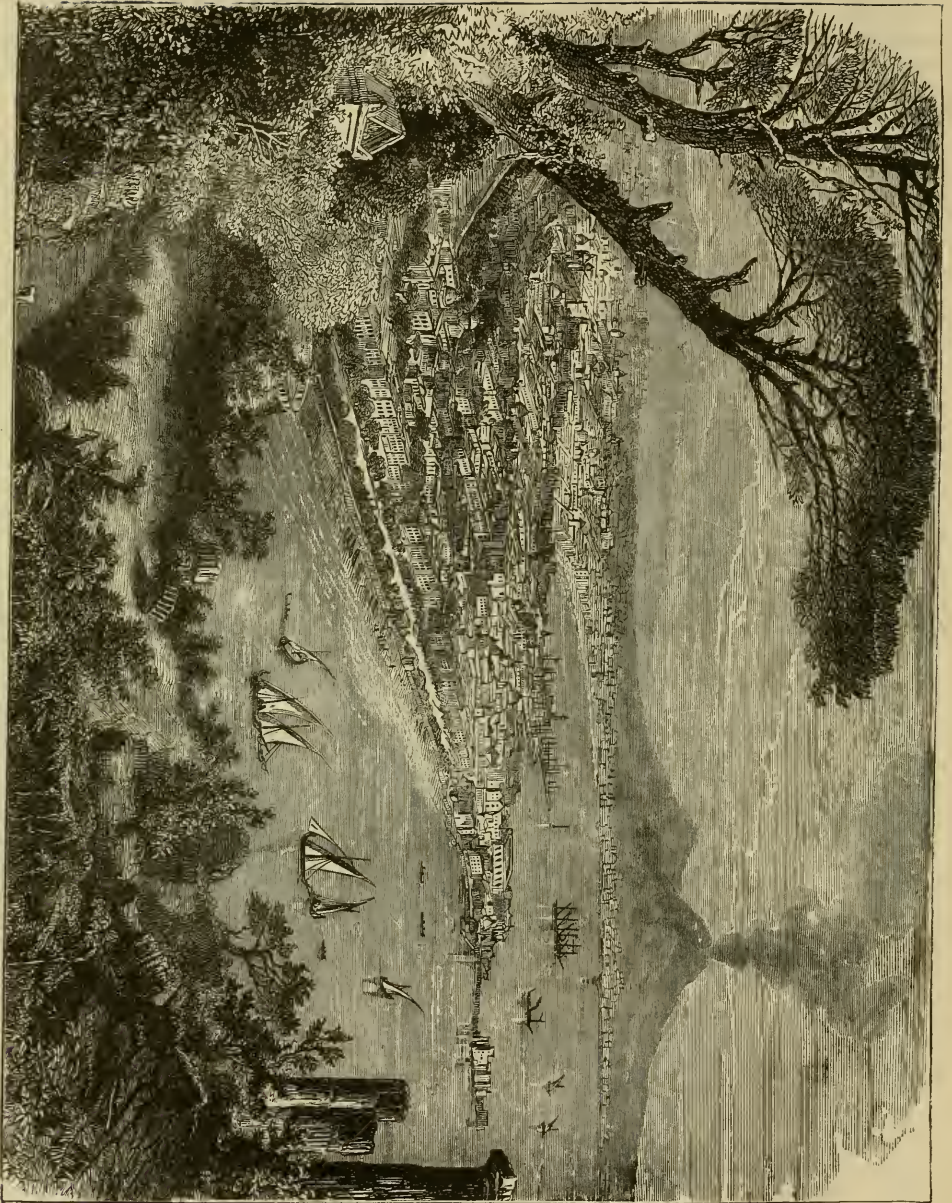
tury her energies were devoted to the task of freeing the Adriatic from the dangerous pirates who infested it, and who were called *Uscoochi*, or "*runaways*." In 1645 the Turks attacked the island of Crete or Candia, which still remained in the possession of the Venetians, and a defensive war of twenty-four years ensued, resulting in the conquest of the island by the Turks in 1669. The successes of John Sobieski against the Turks aroused Venice in 1684 to make a last effort to recover her power in the East. She made an alliance with the Emperor Leopold and the King of Poland, and sent a strong force to the East under Francesco Morosini, who conquered the whole of Peloponnesus, and was subsequently elected doge. The Peloponnesus was confirmed to Venice by the Peace of Carlowitz, in 1699. In 1715, however, after the death of Morosini, the Turks renewed the war and won back Peloponnesus and all the possessions of Venice in the East except the Ionian Islands and a few points along the coast. In 1718 the Peace of Passarowitz closed the struggle which had existed between Venice and the Mohammedans for five hundred years, and the power of the republic in the East came to an end.

From this time Venice steadily declined. The republic "took no share in the great wars of the eighteenth century; it was a period of decline and social disorder in the republic. The success of the Ottoman Turks cut the Venetians off from the trade of the Levant, and hindered their trade through Egypt and the Red Sea; and the discovery of the passage round the Cape of Good Hope, and the maritime greatness of England and Spain, checked the import of the overland wealth of the East. The strict oligarchy of Venice, which had supplied her with leaders and made her famous in old times, failed to meet the needs of modern days. Her public debt rapidly increased, luxury was unchecked, and pleasure was made the chief business of life. The privileged class of nobles lost all nobility save that of birth. Its members became sunk in helpless indolence and vice; some managed public gaming-tables, and some begged in the streets for alms, when their own vices, or those of their fathers, had left them penniless. Nobles and people alike were at the mercy of the Council of Ten, which was valued and preserved as a check on the numerous rulers of the state. The secrecy of this council enabled it to crush

conspiracies, when those who were engaged in them thought that all was secure. In this way it defeated an obscure conspiracy which was made by the Viceroy of Naples, the Governor of Milan, and the Spanish ambassador at Venice, in 1618, which seems to have had for its object the sack of Venice, the overthrow of the power of Spain, and the accession of the viceroy to the throne of Naples. The plot was revealed to the council, and all on whom the slightest suspicion rested and who were in the city, save the ambassador, were quietly put to death without public trial."

The decline of Spain, which went on steadily throughout the seventeenth century, encouraged her Italian dependencies to endeavor to throw off her authority. Ferdinand and Charles V. had promised the people of Naples that no taxes should be levied upon them without the consent of their own parliament. It was the habit of the Kings of Spain to disregard these promises, however, for they looked upon their Italian possessions simply as an inexhaustible source of revenue. The viceroy neglected to summon the parliament, and levied taxes at his own pleasure. All the simplest necessities of life were heavily taxed, and in 1647 an impost was levied upon fruit, which was the only article of food that had escaped this burden. The poor had already suffered severely from the heavy taxes, and they now rose in insurrection under the leadership of Masaniello, a young fisherman of Amalfi. They got possession of the city of Naples, burned the custom-house, and forced the viceroy to take refuge in the Castle of St. Elmo. About the same time the people of Palermo took up arms against the Viceroy of Sicily. The Viceroy of Naples succeeded in winning over a large part of the insurgents by promises which he never meant to keep, and deprived them of their leader by procuring the assassination of Masaniello. Thus the outbreak was quieted for a while; but it burst forth again in August of the same year. The people compelled Don John of Austria, the natural son of Philip IV. of Spain, to draw off his troops after several days of street-fighting, but they seemed utterly helpless now that they were deprived of Masaniello, in whom they had reposed implicit faith. They chose Gennaro Annesi as their leader, and by his advice invited the Duke of Guise to place himself at their head and help them to found a republic. The duke came

NAPLES, SHOWING MOUNT VESUVIUS IN THE DISTANCE.



promptly, as he hoped to regain the possessions of the House of Anjou, from which he was descended; but the Neapolitans quickly saw through his design, and as they had not thrown off one master to set up another, they became discontented. The duke gave mortal offence to Gennaro, who, in revenge, betrayed the city to the Spaniards, and so put an end to the movement. The Spaniards put many of the popular party to death, the traitor Gennaro among the number, and crushed the spirit of the people by a series of barbarous cruelties.

The insurrection in Sicily was put down more readily. The viceroy disarmed the people by a liberal proclamation of pardon, and having thus disarmed their suspicions, shot down large numbers in the street. Messina undertook another rebellion in 1674, and was at first supported by Louis XIV. of France. Louis abandoned her to her fate in the treaty of Nimwegen, in 1678, and upon her refusal to submit to Spain turned his arms against her and assisted in crushing her. At the same time he was very anxious to annoy the Spaniards in Italy, and to that end made an alliance with the Duke of Savoy. He commanded Genoa to join this alliance, and upon her refusal sent his fleet against her, and compelled obedience by a cruel bombardment.

During nearly the whole of the eighteenth century Italy was the battle-ground of Europe. Many of the most prominent questions of the period were fought out on her soil, and her territory was divided at pleasure by foreign sovereigns, who never troubled themselves to regard or consult the wishes of the Italian people as to these arrangements.

The War of the Spanish Succession had a most important bearing upon the destinies of Italy, which was the scene of a part of it. By the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, the Emperor Charles VI. received Milan, Naples, and Sardinia. The Duke of Mantua, having been the ally of France in this war, was deprived of his duchy. The Duke of Savoy, for his assistance to the house of Austria, was given the island of Sicily, with the title of king, and in the same year was crowned at Palermo. Thus Italy passed from under the power of Spain into the hands of Austria; a change for the better, bad as the rule of the Austrians was. Savoy also received Montferrat and Alessandria, and some towns in Lombardy, and

was recognized by the treaty as an independent power, or, in other words, was relieved of all its former obligations to the empire.

Philip V. of Spain was not satisfied with the provisions of the treaty of Utrecht, and was determined to regain a footing in Italy at the earliest opportunity. On the death of his wife, who was the daughter of the Duke of Savoy, he married Elizabeth Farnese, the heiress of the Duke of Parma. This marriage made him the lawful heir to that duchy and to Piacenza, and also gave him a claim to the succession to the grand duchy of Tuscany, the reigning duke of which was childless, as the Queen of Spain claimed to be descended from a daughter of Duke Cosmo II. This marriage greatly displeased the Emperor Charles VI., who was himself a candidate for the succession to the duchy of Tuscany. Philip was not satisfied with what he had done, but, in violation of the terms of the treaty of Utrecht, seized the island of Sardinia, which was held by the Austrians, and prepared to send an army into Sicily. England, France, Holland, and the emperor made a league known as the Quadruple Alliance, and an English fleet under Admiral Byng was despatched to the Mediterranean in the summer of 1718. Byng annihilated the Spanish fleet in a battle off Cape Passaro, and Spain was obliged to relinquish Sardinia. The King of Sicily was believed to have favored the course of Philip, and was obliged to surrender his island kingdom to Austria, who gave him in exchange for it the barren and rocky island of Sardinia. The emperor by this transfer became King of the Two Sicilies, as he was already King of Naples. The Duke of Savoy, of whom we shall hereafter speak as the King of Sardinia, was thus cut off from participation in the disputes between Austria and Spain, and was able to give his whole attention to the development of his kingdom. One of the first acts of Victor Amadæus was to deprive the Jesuits of their control of public education, as the power they enjoyed in consequence of this control had made them dangerous to the welfare of the state. This action was very popular, and did much to strengthen the national feeling in the new kingdom. In 1730 the king abdicated in favor of his son, Charles Emmanuel III., but immediately tried to recover the power he had surrendered. He was imprisoned in the Castle of Rivoli, where he died in 1732.

The war of the Polish succession settled the question of the succession to the duchies of Parma, Piacenza, and Tuscany. Louis XV. of France, Philip V. of Spain, and Charles Emmanuel III. of Sardinia, united in alliance to drive the Austrians out of Italy. Don Carlos, the son of Philip V., was to receive the Two Sicilies and the duchies named above, and the duchy of Milan was to go to Sardinia. Charles Emmanuel soon overran all of Milan but Mantua. The war began in October, 1733, and was closed by the treaty of Vienna in November, 1738. The interests of the King of Sardinia were entirely sacrificed by his allies. Don Carlos was acknowledged King of the Two Sicilies, and abandoned his claim upon the duchies. The grand duchy of Tuscany was bestowed upon Francis of Lorraine, the husband of Maria Theresa, the daughter and heiress of the Emperor Charles VI., and the duchy of Parma was given up to the emperor, who was allowed to retain Milan and Mantua. The King of Sardinia, cheated at every point, received Novara and Tortona, which were cut off from the duchy of Milan.

The war of the Austrian succession overturned all these arrangements, and made Italy the scene of a terrible and destructive conflict. The object of the war was to exclude Maria Theresa from the succession to the dominions of her father, the Emperor Charles VI. Both parties sought the alliance of the King of Sardinia, whose action would control that of Lombardy. He at first embraced the cause of the allies, but after the war began abandoned them and supported Maria Theresa, whose rights were gallantly upheld by her Hungarian subjects. The king was anxious to add the republic of Genoa to his possessions, as he wanted a seaport; and the Genoese, in alarm, gave the French and Spanish forces a free passage through their territory into the dominions of Sardinia. These forces defeated the Sardinian army in 1745, and occupied the duchy of Milan. In the same year Francis of Lorraine, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, and the husband of Maria Theresa, was elected emperor, and the war was ended in Germany. Thus relieved at home, the empress queen sent an army to the assistance of Sardinia. The combined armies of Austria and Sardinia defeated the French and Spaniards in the severe battle of Piacenza in 1746, and the Austrians marched to Genoa, which surrendered at the first

demand, and occupied the city. Their tyranny drove the Genoese into a revolt on the 5th of December. The Austrians were driven out of the city, and withdrew beyond the Apennines. The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, ended the war. By this treaty Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla were erected into a separate state, and given to Don Philip, the son of the King of Spain and the brother of the King of the Two Sicilies. The republic of Genoa, and the duchy of Modena and its dependencies, were placed under the protection of France, to which power Genoa ceded the island of Corsica. During the lifetime of the Emperor Francis I. his grand duchy of Tuscany was almost a province of Austria. In 1765 it was given by the emperor to his third son, Peter Leopold, and became independent once more. Leopold reigned with despotic power; but he was a wise ruler and a benefactor to his people. He reformed the evils which had grown up around the administration of justice, brought the clergy under the control of the state, diminished the number of monks, and abolished the inquisition in his dominions. He drained the unhealthy valley of the Chiana, and converted it into a fertile region, and was engaged in draining the Maremma, when in 1790 he succeeded to the empire. He appointed his second son Ferdinand his successor in Tuscany.

From the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle to the period of the French invasion Italy was at peace. Charles Emmanuel employed this interval in urging on the prosperity of his kingdom. He ruled with despotic power, and kept the church and the Jesuits down with a firm hand. He did this not because these powers were enemies of the freedom of Italy, but because they were rivals to him in his own dominions. While he encouraged agriculture, and did a little for the cause of learning, his reign was destructive of the liberties of his people, who had little cause to regret him at his death, A. D. 1773. He was succeeded by his son, Victor Amadæus III., who formed a close alliance with France, and introduced into his kingdom the Bourbon plan of tyranny.

The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle left the Bourbons supreme in Italy, and greatly weakened the power of the popes, who soon became involved in a series of disputes with the courts of France, Spain and Naples. They claimed the right to nullify every act of the civil powers, and to arrange matters

in Italy to suit their own interests. They were sustained in their most violent pretensions by the Jesuits, whose arrogance threatened to array all Europe against the papacy. In 1769 Pope Clement XIV. was raised to the papal throne, chiefly through the influence of France and Spain. He was a man of liberal principles, and in 1773 dissolved the troublesome order of the Jesuits, to the great joy of all Europe.

The outbreak of the French Revolution did not immediately affect Italy, though it seemed to threaten the despotisms of that country with ruin. In 1792 the French republic was established, and Savoy and Nice were seized and made parts of the French territory. In 1795 France, under a new government, made peace with all the states of Europe that had been opposing her, save England, Austria, and Sardinia. In 1796 the French army, under Napoleon Bonaparte, crossed the Alps and invaded Italy. Bonaparte compelled the King of Sardinia to relinquish his claim to Savoy and Nice, and to surrender Alessandria and Tortona to the French. He next marched against the Austrians, defeated them at Arcola, on the 14th of November, 1796, and at Rivoli on the 14th of January, 1797, and made himself master of Lombardy. He then invaded the dominions of the pope, and compelled him to give up a part of his territory and pay tribute. The Italians believed at first that the French had come to deliver them from their old tyrants, and they everywhere rose against their rulers and drove out the monks and priests. They soon found, however, that the French were not so disinterested, and that they meant to impose their rule upon the peninsula. A growing enmity to the French was now developed in all parts of Italy, and hostilities soon broke out between the Italians and the French. At Verona the garrison left by Napoleon was massacred by the people. Bonaparte at once proceeded to establish his authority more firmly in the peninsula. The Austrian emperor was obliged to make peace, and the French advanced to Venice, which city was surrendered to them by the government without a struggle. The republic was overturned, and all signs of its former greatness destroyed. Bonaparte carried off the famous bronze horses of St. Mark's, and many other splendid works of art, but he also put an end to many of the abuses from which the Venetians had been suffering.

In 1797 the treaty of Campo Formio was concluded between France and Austria. By its terms, Lombardy, Parma, and Modena, the papal states of Bologna, Ferrara, and the Romagna, and the Venetian territory as far as the Adige, were organized into an independent state, called the Cisalpine republic. Venice and all her dependencies in the Adriatic were given to Austria, who occupied them with her troops early in 1798. Napoleon also created the Ligurian republic, with Genoa for its capital; the Cispadane republic, with its capital at Bologna; and the Tiberine republic, whose capital was Rome. Late in 1798 Naples was captured by the French, and made the capital of the Parthenopæan republic. In the same year Charles Emmanuel IV. of Sardinia was deprived of his throne, and Piedmont was occupied by the French. Pope Pius VI. fled from Rome to France, where he died. Napoleon being now absent in Egypt, his work in Italy was rapidly undone by the combination of England, Russia, and Austria, who undertook to restore the old order of affairs in that country. The French were defeated everywhere, and nothing but the sudden return of Napoleon from Egypt enabled them to maintain their conquests.

Italy being from the opening of the nineteenth century to the fall of Napoleon I. entirely under the dominion of France, we shall relate the incidents of this period in the History of France, to which the reader is referred.

On the whole, the period of French rule in Italy was one of order and of observance of law. Much was done for the material and intellectual development of the country. It was during this period that the hope arose that Italy might become once more a united nation. Natives of different parts of Italy were thrown together in the armies of Napoleon, and from this companionship derived a feeling of brotherhood. The idea of unity, once conceived, never died, but grew silently through the long years which intervened between its inception and its fulfilment.

CHAPTER VII.

FROM THE FALL OF NAPOLEON I. TO THE PRESENT TIME.

The Treaty of Vienna—Austrian Influence All-Powerful in Italy—The Italians Kept in Slavery—Reorganization of the Italian States—Restoration of the Jesuits—Rise of the Secret Societies—

The Carbonari—Insurrection at Naples—Victor Emmanuel I. of Sardinia Abdicates—The Revolution of 1830—It is Crushed by the Austrians—Reign of Charles Albert of Sardinia—Joseph Mazzini—"Young Italy"—Troubles in Sardinia—Efforts for Constitutional Government—The Liberal Italian Writers—Massimo d'Azeglio—Manzoni—Pius IX. Becomes Pope—His Liberal Principles—Revolution of 1848—Uprisings in Italy—War Between Sardinia and Austria—Garibaldi—The Pope Deserts the Cause of the People and Sides with Austria—His Flight from Rome—The Roman Republic—Sardinia Forced to Make Peace with Austria—The French Put Down the Roman Republic—Return of the Pope—Rome Garrisoned by the French—Victor Emmanuel II. Becomes King of Sardinia—His Able and Liberal Measures—Count Cavour—Sardinia Joins France, England and Turkey in the War Against Russia—Success of Cavour's Policy—The War of 1859 with Austria—The Peace of Villafranca—Gains of Sardinia—The Italian Revolutions—Annexation of the Italian Duchies to Sardinia—Garibaldi Frees Sicily and Southern Italy—The Kingdom of Italy Formed—Death of Cavour—Difficulties of the Italian Government—Garibaldi's Efforts Against the Papal Territory—The Aspromonte Affair—The September Convention—Florence Made the Capital of Italy—The Austro-Prussian War—Italy the Ally of Prussia—Defeat of the Italians at Custoza and Lissa—Italy Gains Venetia—Garibaldi Again Invades the Papal Territory—Action of the Italian Government—Garibaldi Defeated by the French at Mentenna—Fall of the French Empire—The September Convention Abrogated—Rome Occupied by the Italian Forces—Is Made the Capital of the Kingdom—Subsequent History of Italy.

THE overthrow of Napoleon was the signal for fresh changes in Italy. The Italian people looked with great anxiety to the proceedings of the Congress of Vienna, never doubting that the allies, who had promised so much, would give them liberty. Their hopes were rudely crushed. As a general rule, the Italian states were restored to the princes who had held them previous to the French Revolution. The Sardinian kingdom was re-established, with the Ticino as its eastern boundary. The Genoese had been encouraged to hope for the restoration of their ancient republic, but Genoa and its territory were annexed to the kingdom of Sardinia. In the end this betrayal of the hopes of Genoa proved to her a blessing in disguise, for her connection with the most liberal state of Italy was of immense advantage to her. Venice and her dependencies were handed over to Austria to compensate her for her small share of Polish territory. Milan was also given back to Austria, and the Emperor Francis II. organized his Italian possessions into the kingdom of Lombardo-Venetia, which he governed through a viceroy.

Parma and Piacenza were given to Maria Theresa, the wife of Napoleon, and the daughter of the Emperor of Austria. At her death these duchies were to revert to the Bourbons of Parma, to whom Lucca was given. Upon regaining their ancient possessions the Parmese Bourbons were to resign Lucca to Ferdinand III., who was made Grand Duke of Tuscany once more. Francis IV., the son of the Arch Duke Ferdinand, was made Duke of Modena, his mother being Beatrice, the heiress of the ancient house of Este. The pope regained all the states of the church. The Austrians claimed and exercised the right to place garrisons in Ferrara and Commachio. Upon returning to Rome the pope at once re-established the order of the Jesuits. This step was taken with the full approval of the allies, who wished to reward the Jesuits for the zeal with which they had championed the cause of the Bourbons. The power of this order was greater after its restoration than it had ever been before. The kingdom of Naples was restored to Ferdinand IV. of Sicily, who took the title of King of the Two Sicilies. With these restorations the Austrian influence once more became supreme in Italy.

The treaty of Vienna gave peace to Italy, but it left her divided and utterly subservient to the will of her despotic masters. All the Italian sovereigns were in close alliance with the Emperor of Austria, who encouraged them to keep their people from exerting any political power, and to refuse their demands for constitutional government. The Italians were obliged to submit to the destruction of their hopes, since their rulers were upheld by so powerful a sovereign as the Austrian emperor. It seemed madness to attempt to overthrow them. The result was that Italy was left dissatisfied and unhappy, as well as divided and helpless. Secret societies were organized for the overthrow of the tyrants and the establishment of democratic government. The most prominent of these societies was the Carbonari, which embraced in its membership thousands of the Italian people. It was very strong in Naples, and in 1820 the Neapolitans, under its guidance, rose in insurrection against King Ferdinand, and demanded that the absolute rule of that king should give way to a constitutional monarchy. Ferdinand was taken at a disadvantage, and granted them a constitution, which he meant to revoke at the

first favorable opportunity. A few months later the Emperors of Russia and Austria, and the Kings of Prussia, Sardinia, and Naples, met at Laybach, in Austria, and agreed to crush out the Neapolitan movement for constitutional freedom, as dangerous to the cause of absolutism. In 1821 a force of 60,000 Austrians entered the Neapolitan territories, and with their aid King Ferdinand revoked the constitution, restored the absolute monarchy, and put down the resistance of his people. He celebrated his victory by treating the liberal leaders with great cruelty.

A similar insurrection broke out in Piedmont, or the Sardinian kingdom, in 1821, and the people demanded of King Victor Emmanuel I. a constitution. Rather than comply with this demand, Victor Emmanuel abdicated his crown in favor of his brother Charles Felix, who was at that time absent in Modena. Until the new king could reach Turin, his cousin Charles Albert, Prince of Carignano, was made regent. Charles Albert was the heir to the throne, as the new king had no children. For some reason he granted the demands of the liberals, but immediately upon his arrival at Turin, Charles Felix set aside the regent's concessions, and compelled the submission of his people by threatening to call in the Austrians to assist him in maintaining his power. Anything was better than an Austrian intervention, and for a while the liberals were forced to submit.

The Jesuits and the Austrian party endeavored to induce Charles Felix to name as his heir Francis, Duke of Modena, who had married a daughter of Victor Emmanuel I., but the king remained faithful to his cousin Charles Albert. Duke Francis began to intrigue with the liberals, and gave them to understand that if they would declare him King of Italy he would adopt their principles, head their party, and unite Italy in a constitutional monarch. For some time they believed him sincere.

The French Revolution of 1830 stirred Italy to its profoundest depths, and aroused the hope that the deliverance of that country from the Austrians, the priests, and the princes was at hand. Duke Francis was obliged by the necessities of the time to show his true character, and the liberals found he had deceived them. An insurrection broke out in Parma and Modena, and the duchess and duke of those states were forced to fly for safety. The insurrection

extended to the territories of the pope, who, having no troops of his own, appealed to the Austrians for aid, and received it. An Austrian army restored the Duke of Modena and the Duchess of Parma to their thrones, and crushed the insurrection in the Romagna. Austrian garrisons were stationed in the papal territory to sustain the authority of the pope, and the liberal leaders in Modena were put to death. The French, jealous of the Austrian occupation of the papal states, threw a garrison into Ancona, and retained that city until the Austrian troops were withdrawn from the states of the church, in 1838. At the close of this revolt Charles Felix died, and was succeeded on the Piedmontese throne by his cousin Charles Albert. The new king found his kingdom without an army, entirely subservient to and at the mercy of Austria, whose power in Italy had been greatly strengthened by the failure of the revolt of 1830.

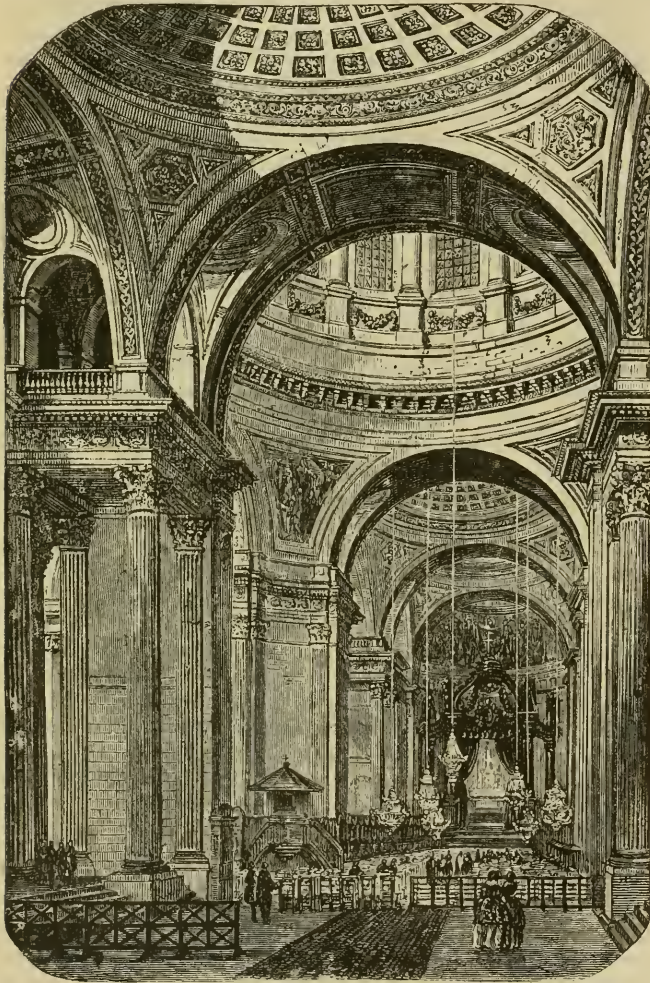
Charles Albert was inclined to pursue a liberal policy towards his people, and was even willing to grant them the same constitution he had given them as regent, but he did not dare do so, as such a step would have brought on a war with Austria, for which the kingdom was in no way prepared. About this time a new party or secret league was organized by Joseph Mazzini. It was called *Young Italy*, and its objects were the expulsion of foreign rulers by a native army, and the union of Italy in one free state. Mazzini was a man of great genius and a brilliant orator, and he deserves to be remembered as the first Italian statesman to scheme and work for the union of all the petty states of Italy in a single free state. He endeavored to induce Charles Albert to throw himself upon the people and drive out the Austrians, but the king drew back in alarm from so bold a step. Mazzini then tried to seduce the soldiers of the Piedmontese army from their allegiance, but was forced to quit the kingdom. He took refuge in Genoa, from which, in January, 1833, he made a foolish expedition into Savoy for the purpose of inaugurating a revolution. The movement failed, and Mazzini was forced to fly to London. This expedition alarmed the king, who now came to regard the liberals as his enemies, and he allied himself more closely with Austria and the Jesuits, as the best means of maintaining his authority. The Piedmontese, indignant at the invasion of their territory by the Polish and other

refugees who followed Mazzini, sustained the king in his new policy, and for the next fourteen years Piedmont submitted to the absolute government of the king.

Still the hope of Italian unity and freedom did not die out. A moderate party sprang up, composed of the best men of

principles in political works, essays, novels, and poems, and sought to rouse in the Italian heart the determination to become once more a free and united nation. The Austrians and the pope were denounced as the chief oppressors of Italy, for the latter was but the tool of the Austrian emperor, to whom he owed his throne. Chief among these patriotic writers were Cesare Balbo, the Abate Gioberti, Massimo d'Azeglio, Giuseppe Giusti, the Marquis Gino Capponi, Baron Bettino Ricasoli, and Alessandro Manzoni.

In the year 1846 Pope Gregory XVI. died, to the great advantage of Italy. He was a bitter enemy of all reform, the mere tool of the Jesuit party, whose power in the church was rapidly overshadowing everything, and took his inspiration in political matters from the Emperor of Austria. The supporters of his authority were called Gregorians. The choice of the cardinals fell upon Cardinal Mastai Feretti, who ascended the papal throne as Pius IX. To the surprise and delight of Italy, he began his reign by reversing the policy of his predecessor. He was to be a constitutional pope, and his first acts were full of promise. All political prisoners were liberated, and a general amnesty was extended to offenders of this class. The people of the states of the church were granted liberty of speech and the right to petition for a redress of grievances. The convents and monasteries were



INTERIOR OF THE CATHEDRAL OF ST. PETER AT ROME, SHOWING THE SIDE CHAPELS AND THE HIGH ALTAR IN THE DISTANCE.

Piedmont, who proposed to accomplish these ends by a peaceful revolution of public opinion, and who looked to Charles Albert as the king under whom they were to succeed in their efforts. This party existed also in Tuscany. Although the Italian press was trammelled by state control, a corps of able writers advocated their prin-

made subject to a rigid inspection, and other reforms were promised. The Gregorians were indignant at such a course on the part of the pope; the extreme republicans were angry because it made the pope the most popular man in Italy; but the great mass of the people of the papal states was delighted. In the autumn of 1846 and the

spring of 1847 there were a number of disturbances in the streets of Rome, and the papal troops and the municipal police were found inadequate to the task of preserving the peace. The liberal party demanded of the pope the formation of a national guard; and though the plan was strongly opposed by the Austrian government, the pope, in July, 1847, consented to the formation of a national guard, not only in Rome, but in all his states. The Austrian government, in order to punish the pope for yielding to the popular demand, sent a strong force of Croats into the papal territory. Ferrara was occupied in spite of the protests of the papal legate.

The success of the Roman movement encouraged the other Italian states to compel their rulers to grant them constitutions. The princes looked to Austria to aid them in putting down the popular movement, but for the present were obliged to submit to the people. Early in 1848 an insurrection occurred at Palermo, and the Sicilians made the Duke of Genoa king, and for more than a year opposed a determined resistance to the efforts of Ferdinand V., of Naples, to subdue them. The King of Sardinia took advantage of the occasion to place himself at the head of the Italian movement, and declared his readiness to go to war with Austria if the troops of that power advanced farther into the papal territory.

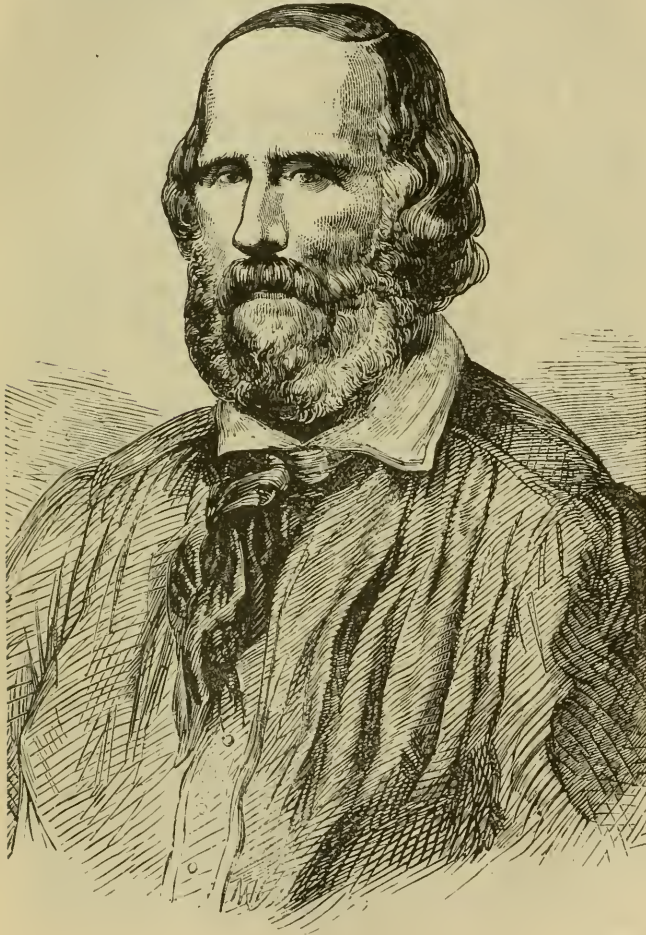
The Revolution of 1848 in France affected the rest of Europe profoundly. The revolutionary spirit spread even into the Austrian dominions, and resulted in an open revolt, and the Hungarians about the same time rose in arms to win back their national independence. The Italians at once took advantage of the embarrassments of Austria to endeavor to throw off her yoke. On the 18th of March, 1848, the Milanese rose against the Hungarian garrison, under Marshal Radetzky, and, after a five days' struggle, drove it from the city. Vicenza, Padua, Brescia, Bergamo, and other places joined the Milanese, and on the 22d of March Venice drove out her Austrian garrison and set up a provisional government under the leadership of Daniel Manin, a Venetian of Jewish descent. The King of Sardinia at once declared war against Austria and marched to the assistance of the insurgents. He failed to declare himself the champion of Italian independence, and so laid himself open to the

suspicion that he was seeking to aggrandize Piedmont at the expense of the rest of Italy. Thus, in the gallant struggle which ensued, there was no point of union for the Italians. Charles Albert had no fixed plan, and was without military skill. He defeated the Austrians at Goito, and in June and July both Lombardy and Venice declared themselves annexed to Sardinia. Radetzky, having been reinforced, attacked the King of Sardinia at Custozza on the 25th of July, and inflicted such a crushing defeat upon him that he fell back behind the Ticino, and the Austrians recovered Milan and proclaimed Lombardy under martial law, which they enforced with great cruelty. Women were whipped in public for the crime of preferring their countrymen to the Austrians. In the mountains of northern Italy a gallant resistance was maintained under the leadership of Giuseppe Garibaldi, but this brave band was at length dispersed. Venice was compelled to surrender on the 22d of August, 1849, after a siege of more than a year, in which the Austrians lost over 20,000 men by disease. The pope and the King of the Two Sicilies, brought face to face with a war with Austria, deserted the popular cause. The former issued an encyclical, in which he declared that his troops had taken part in the war against Austria without his leave. Ferdinand V. deprived his people of the liberties he had granted them, and crushed out their resistance by a brutal massacre in the streets of Naples on the 15th of May.

The pope's encyclical produced great excitement in Rome. The moderate party disappeared, and the pope was left to fight the matter out with the extreme republicans. The papal minister, Count Rossi, was assassinated, and the palace of the Quirinal, in which the pope had taken refuge, was attacked and carried by storm by the citizens. The pope escaped in the disguise of a priest, and fled to Gaeta in the Neapolitan territory. Garibaldi entered Rome with an army of Italian volunteers, and in February, 1849, a Constituent Assembly met in Rome, which deposed the pope and proclaimed the Roman republic. Mazzini, Armellini and Saffi were intrusted with the executive power of the new republic. A revolution broke out in Tuscany in February, 1849, the grand duke fled from his dominions, and a provisional government was set up by the Florentines. Sar-

dinia, though utterly unprepared for such a step, endeavored to take advantage of this new uprising to drive out the foreigner, and declared war against Austria. Marshal Radetzky at once crossed the Ticino, and inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Piedmontese army at Novara on the 23d of March. Charles Albert was so much disheartened by this defeat that he abdicated his throne in favor of his son, Victor Em-

army into the papal territory to drive out the republicans. It was defeated on the 11th of May, 1849, by the republican army under Garibaldi at Palestrina. The pope found another champion in the French republic. France had long watched, with ill-concealed jealousy, the Austrian supremacy in Italy, and eagerly seized this occasion to intervene in Italian affairs. An army was sent to Rome under General



GARIBALDI.

manuel II., and left Italy. He died four months later, broken-hearted. Victor Emmanuel made a truce with the Austrians, which was soon converted into a peace, as England and France persuaded the Austrian emperor to withdraw his troops from Piedmont.

The cause of the pope was espoused by the King of the Two Sicilies, who sent an

army into the papal territory to drive out the republicans. It was defeated on the 11th of May, 1849, by the republican army under Garibaldi at Palestrina. The pope found another champion in the French republic. France had long watched, with ill-concealed jealousy, the Austrian supremacy in Italy, and eagerly seized this occasion to intervene in Italian affairs. An army was sent to Rome under General Oudinot, which captured the city on the 3d of July, 1849, after a siege of nearly three months. The republican leaders escaped from Rome, and the papal government was re-established, but the pope himself did not return until April, 1850. A French garrison was now permanently established at Rome. Pius IX. returned to Rome a changed man. He no longer trusted his people, but relied for protection upon the French garrison, and submitted himself to the guidance of the Jesuits and assisted them to bring the Roman Church throughout the world into subjection to their order. He kept Rome under martial law for seven years. The Austrians aided the Grand Duke of Tuscany and the Dukes of Modena and Parma to recover their dominions, and by the close of the summer of 1849 the Italian outbreak was entirely quelled. One great result had been accomplished—the Italian people had been convinced that freedom and unity could be gained and were worth working for.

The hopes of the best men of Italy were now fixed upon Sardinia, and the young King Victor Emmanuel II. did not disappoint them. He inaugurated a wise and liberal system in his kingdom, and while the rest of Italy was kept in abject subjection, the Piedmontese enjoyed a constitutional government, a free press, and religious toleration. The king was faithful to his promises to his people, and they grate-

fully called him *Il Re Galantuomo*—"The Honest King." At the outset of his reign the Genoese attempted to rebel, but were compelled to submit. It was greatly to the interest of Victor Emmanuel to ally himself with Austria and embrace the cause of absolutism, but he was a sincere patriot, and was true to his people, and bided his time to take up the work of deliverance which had failed in his father's hands.

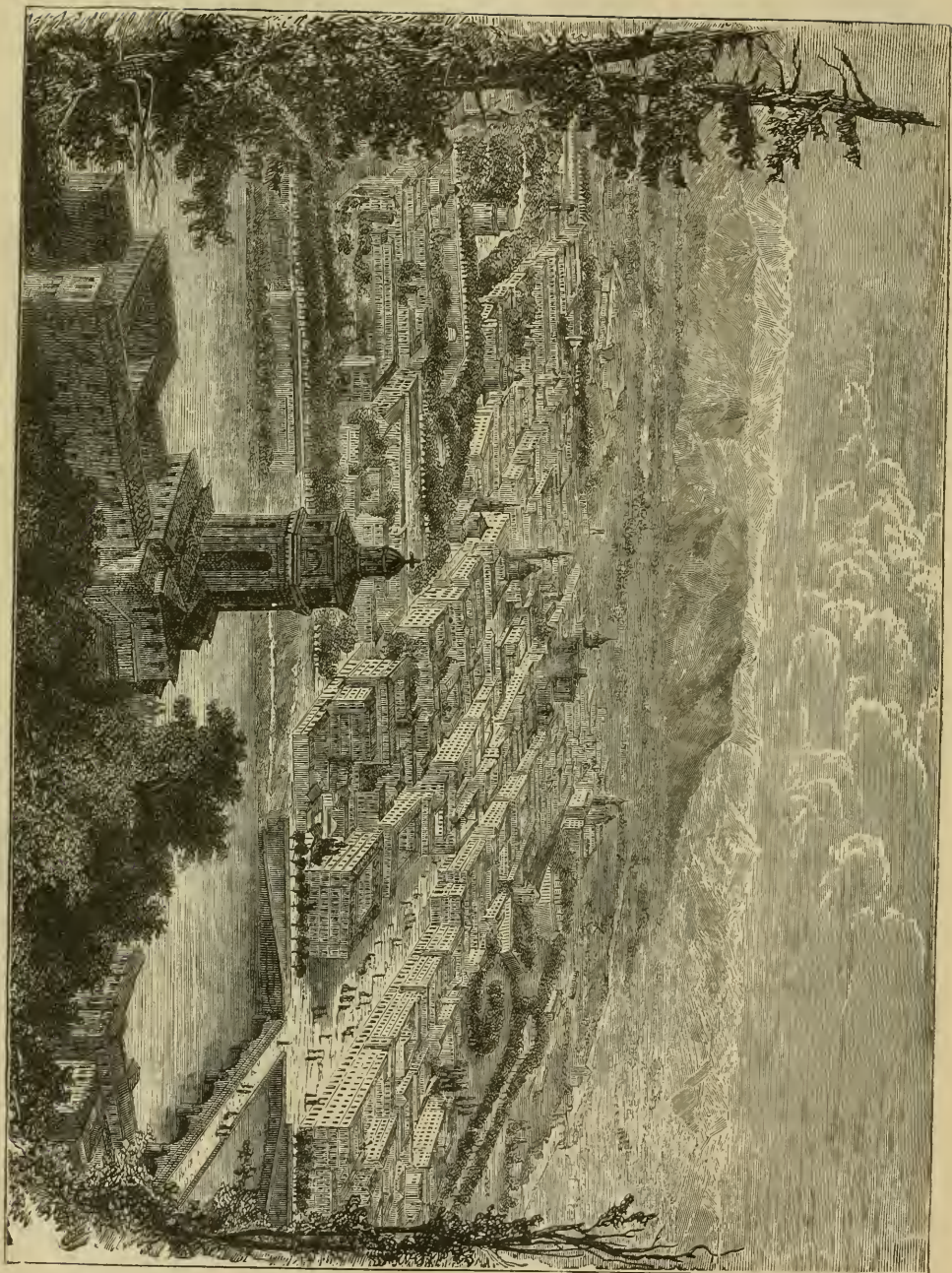
In 1853 Camillo Benso di Cavour, who had been minister of commerce since the beginning of the reign, became prime minister and the chief counsellor of the king. He at once began to exert his great genius not only for the advancement of Sardinia, but for the good of all Italy. He made an alliance with the democratic party of Piedmont, which was led by Urbano Rattazzi, and won its support for the government. He enlisted the gratitude of the people of Lombardy for Sardinia by addressing an indignant remonstrance to Radetzky for his cruel measures in the government of that province; and of Naples by protesting, though in vain, against the tyranny of Ferdinand.

For long years Italy had taken no part in European politics. Count Cavour determined to regain for her her true place in the continental system. He could only do this through Sardinia. The Piedmontese army had been brought to a high state of efficiency by General Della Marmora, and was ready for action. Cavour believed that if he could convince the European powers that Italy was a valuable ally, her deliverance would be hastened by foreign intervention in her affairs. Fortunately for her, England, France and Turkey were at war with Russia, and Cavour exerted himself to bring about an alliance of Sardinia with those powers. He regarded Russia as the mainstay of despotism in Europe, and as such desired her humiliation. He found a ready sympathizer in the emperor of the French, Napoleon III., through whose exertions Sardinia was admitted to the Anglo-French alliance against Russia. A Sardinian contingent was despatched to the Crimea, and won considerable distinction at the battle of the Tchernaya. At the assembling of the Congress of Paris to arrange a treaty of peace, the representatives of Sardinia were admitted to its deliberations on an equality with those of France and England. This was a great gain for the Piedmontese kingdom. Cavour took advantage of this

opportunity to lay before the representatives of the great powers of Europe a statement of the unhappy condition of his countrymen under the rule of the pope and the King of the Two Sicilies. England and France remonstrated energetically with the Neapolitan king, but all to no purpose.

Napoleon III. warmly embraced the Italian cause, for which he had fought in the Revolution of 1830, when a boy. The course upon which he determined was due not only to the old French policy of crippling Austria, but to his sincere desire to aid Italy in becoming free and united. He brought about the marriage of his cousin, Prince Napoleon Joseph, the son of Jerome Bonaparte, with the Princess Clotilda, the daughter of Victor Emmanuel. Private assurances were given to Sardinia that France would sustain her in her quarrel with Austria, and matters were brought to a crisis. Cavour declared that Sardinia would make war upon Austria, if that power did not grant a separate and national government to Lombardy and Venetia, and pledge herself not to interfere again in Italian affairs. Austria, on the other hand, demanded that Sardinia should disarm. The Austrian minister at Turin, on the 23d of April, 1859, made a formal demand for the reduction of the Sardinian army to a peace footing. It was refused, and on the same day the Austrian army crossed the Ticino and entered the Piedmontese territory. A French army was immediately despatched from Marseilles to Genoa to the assistance of Sardinia, under the personal command of the Emperor Napoleon III., and another promptly crossed the Alps to Susa. The French and Italian armies moved forward towards the Ticino. At the same time Tuscany, Modena, and Parma rose in revolt, and their dukes fled to the Austrian territory. Victor Emmanuel was proclaimed Dictator of Tuscany. He declined the title, but took command of the Tuscan army, which was united to his own forces. The declaration with which Napoleon III. had begun the war, "Italy must be free from the Alps to the Adriatic," became the watchword of the Italians.

On the 20th of May, 1859, the Austrians were defeated by the French and Sardinians at Montebello, after a hard fight of five hours' duration. On the 30th and 31st of May the allies were again victorious at Palestro. On the 4th of June the Austrians were decisively defeated in the great



TURIN.

battle of Magenta, which was won mainly by the exertions of General MacMahon, who was created by the emperor Marshal of France and Duke of Magenta. This battle settled the fate of Lombardy, which was abandoned by the Austrians, who retreated beyond the Adda. On the 8th of June, Victor Emmanuel and Napoleon III. entered Milan in triumph. After a short halt there, the allies resumed their advance, and on the 24th of June attacked the Austrians at Solferino. A terrible battle ensued, and resulted in the defeat of the Austrians, who withdrew within the "Quadrilateral" formed by the almost impregnable fortresses of Cremona, Peschiera, Verona, and Mantua.

Prussia now avowed her determination to take part in the war as the ally of Austria. The Emperor Napoleon found himself thus brought face to face with a serious difficulty. He had entered into the war with the sincere determination to rid all Italy of the Austrian yoke, but the threatened intervention of Prussia compelled him to modify his plans. The participation of that power in the war, as the enemy of France, would compel him to make extraordinary efforts to protect his eastern frontier, and would oblige him to leave Italy at the mercy of Austria, which was more than a match for her. Other powers might be drawn into the struggle, and there was a very decided probability that in a general European war Italy might lose all that had been won. It seemed best to him therefore, as the disinterested friend of Italy, to bring the war to a close and to rest satisfied with what had been gained. When therefore the allied army arrived before Verona, a meeting was arranged between the two emperors. It took place at Villafranca on the 8th of July, and there Napoleon, without consulting his ally, the King of Sardinia, entered into a treaty of peace with the Emperor Francis Joseph, of Austria. Austria surrendered to France all of Lombardy save the fortresses of Mantua and Peschiera, which territory was to be transferred by France to Sardinia. The Italian states were advised to organize themselves into a federal league under the honorary presidency of the pope. Venetia, which remained a possession of Austria, might become a member of this league. This was very different from the union of Italy in one nation that had been hoped for at the outset of the war; but it was the best that

could be gained under the circumstances. One of the worst features of the arrangement, and one that subjected the French emperor to considerable adverse criticism, was the provision that the Grand Duke of Tuscany and the Duke of Modena were to return to their states. Peace was made on these conditions, and the French army withdrew from Italy.

Victor Emmanuel refused to enter into the scheme of an Italian confederation, and Tuscany, Modena, Parma, and the papal state of Romagna petitioned the King of Sardinia to annex them to his dominions. The king proceeded with great caution in acceding to this request. In March, 1860, a popular vote was taken in Tuscany, Modena, Parma, and Romagna, and resulted in an overwhelming majority in favor of annexation to Sardinia. The pope, upon the annexation of Romagna, excommunicated the invaders of his dominions, but without mentioning any one by name. It was understood, however, that this measure was directed against Victor Emmanuel and his supporters. Austria beheld these changes without making any opposition. It was well understood that France, while anxious for peace, would join Italy against any European power that should seek to interfere with a free expression of the will of the Italian people. France was the sincere friend of Italy, but she had an eye to her own interests, and demanded the cession of Savoy and Nice by Sardinia as a return for her support. The cession was submitted to the vote of the people of these provinces, and was ratified by them in April, 1860.

In 1859 Ferdinand of Naples died, and was succeeded by his son Francis II., a pupil of the Jesuits, who proved himself capable of becoming as cruel a despot as his father. In March, 1860, the people of Sicily, maddened by their sufferings and encouraged by the success of their brethren of the peninsula, rose in revolt at Palermo, Messina, and Catania. It was hoped that Sardinia would favor the movement, but both Victor Emmanuel and Cavour deemed it most prudent not to interfere. Aid came from an unexpected quarter. On the 5th of May General Garibaldi eluded the vigilance of the Sardinian government, and sailed from Genoa with a force of 2,000 volunteers. He landed at Marsala and proclaimed himself Dictator of Sicily, "in the name of Victor Emmanuel of Italy." He captured Palermo with his little band,

and defeated the troops of King Francis at Melazzo. This victory made Garibaldi master of all Sicily save Messina, which was held by the Neapolitan troops.

Francis II. now appealed to Victor Emmanuel to put a stop to Garibaldi's attack upon his kingdom. The King of Sardinia,

decide by their votes whether they would become a part of the Sardinian kingdom. Garibaldi refused to obey this order, and on the night of the 20th of August crossed his force from Sicily to the mainland at Spartivento. Pushing on, he defeated the Neapolitan troops at Reggio and San Giovanni,



VICTOR EMMANUEL II.

who had secretly connived at the expedition, declared that he was not responsible for the attack upon the King of Naples. A little later, fearing the tendency of Garibaldi's republican sympathies, Victor Emmanuel ordered him to take no steps against Naples until the people of Sicily should

and moved forward towards the capital. Francis II. fled from Naples to Gaeta in a Spanish man-of-war, on the 7th of September, and the next day Garibaldi entered Naples in triumph.

A number of Neapolitan patriots had taken advantage of the troubles of King

Francis to return to their country, and Garibaldi, upon his entry into Naples, found a provisional government in existence. Great efforts were made to induce the dictator to withhold his conquests from the King of Sardinia, and the democrats hoped to be able to organize a southern republic. Their schemes caused Count Cavour no little anxiety. The papal states were also becoming troublesome by reason of the partisan warfare which the pope's irregular troops maintained against Sardinia, and Count Cavour warned the pope that unless these outrages should cease at once the Piedmontese army would invade his territory. The French emperor entered a protest against this threat, but that was a mere formality. Napoleon, as has been stated, was a sincere friend to the union of Italy, and he stood ready to aid her in case she was attacked by any other power. The Sardinian threat being unheeded by the papal government, an army under General Cialdini entered the papal states, and captured Urbino, Perugia, and a number of other places. In the meantime Garibaldi was joined by a large number of volunteers in Naples, and in October inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Neapolitan army in a battle on the Garigliano. Victor Emmanuel now entered the Neapolitan territory to secure the fruits of Garibaldi's successes, and was met by the dictator, who hailed him as *King of Italy*. The people of Naples and Sicily by an overwhelming vote declared themselves in favor of annexation to Sardinia, and their wishes were complied with. Several of the European states expressed their displeasure at these changes, but none cared to make them a cause of war, especially as a war with Italy on this question meant a war with France also. The English government openly declared its sympathy with the Italian people.

Italy was now united, with the exception of Venetia and the papal territory. In February, 1861, the first Italian Parliament met at Turin and proclaimed Victor Emmanuel KING OF ITALY. So far all had been attended with enthusiasm, and there had been no trouble as far as the people were concerned in forming the Italian kingdom. Difficulties now thickened around the king. Cavour and Garibaldi could not agree, and the latter retired to his island home of Caprera, and his army of volunteers was disbanded. Messina in Sicily and Gaeta on the mainland held out against

Victor Emmanuel; the latter fortress being defended by Francis II. in person, or rather by his young queen, for Francis himself was an imbecile. The people were discontented, for they believed that Garibaldi, who was their idol, had not been fairly treated by the king. The policy which had been pursued in Sardinia towards the convents and other religious bodies was now applied to the Neapolitan provinces, and gave great offence to the superstitious people of that region. Brigandage was rife in the Abruzzi districts, and was encouraged by the priests, as the brigands declared they fought for King Francis. When defeated, these bands would take refuge in the papal territory, and it was charged that they were supplied with arms by the papal authorities. In the fall of 1860 they became so bold and active that Naples itself was not safe, and the whole country was kept in a state of terror. In February, 1861, Francis II. fled from Gaeta to Rome, and the town surrendered to the Italian forces. About the same time Generals Cialdini and La Marmora broke the power of the brigands of southern Italy. The wisdom of the measures of the Italian government was becoming apparent to the Neapolitans, and the happy reforms introduced by Cavour were beginning to conciliate all classes. Confidence in the "honest king" returned, and matters began to wear a hopeful aspect once more.

At this juncture, in the summer of 1861, Count Cavour died. In him the king and country suffered an irreparable loss. He had been the originator of the greater part of the measures that had given freedom and union to Italy, and he left behind him no one really capable of filling his place. He was succeeded in office by Baron Ricasoli.

All parties now looked forward to the time when Rome and the remnant of the papal territory and Venetia should become parts of the kingdom of Italy. Garibaldi was determined to take Rome by main force, and Rattazzi, who had succeeded Ricasoli as prime minister, hoped he might be able to profit by Garibaldi's efforts and secure Rome as the capital of the kingdom. Cavour would have begun by arranging the matter with the Emperor Napoleon, who was the nominal protector of the Holy See. Rattazzi, however, was blind to the necessity of conciliating France, whose troops constituted the garrison of Rome, and to his astonishment found that the French emperor

was determined to put down Garibaldi's movement unless Italy would do so. Rattazzi was therefore obliged to take sides against the very scheme he had encouraged. Garibaldi raised a force of volunteers in Sicily, and landed in Italy. He was met at Reggio by an Italian force under General Cialdini, and defeated it on the 28th of September, 1862. On the 29th Garibaldi was attacked and defeated at Aspromonte by an Italian army under General Pallavicini, and was wounded and taken prisoner. He was conveyed to Spezzia. He declared, in his defence, that he had attacked the soldiers of Italy against his will; that he had been betrayed by Rattazzi, to whose incompetence it was due that a French garrison was still at Rome. This declaration aroused a storm of indignation which drove Rattazzi from office. Garibaldi was conveyed to his home at Caprera, and a general amnesty was extended to his followers. Though his expedition was a failure, it made the Italians more than ever determined to free Rome and Venetia and unite all Italy.

In September, 1864, a convention was entered into by Italy and France, by which the latter power agreed to withdraw her garrison gradually from Rome, in order to give the pope time to form a force for his own defence. The evacuation was to be completed at the end of two years, and with it was to end the interference of France in Italian affairs. The King of Italy, in consideration of this agreement, pledged himself to allow no attack to be made on the pope's government. The papal power was evidently falling to pieces, and would sink into ruin as soon as the protection of France was withdrawn. Italy would then be free to profit by this fall, which she bound herself not to hasten. The Italian capital was at the same time removed from Turin to Florence. This was a wise measure; it was not only one step nearer Rome, but it placed the seat of government in a more central position and where it was safer from the attacks of Austria than at Turin.

In 1866 war broke out between Prussia and Austria. An alliance was made between Italy and Prussia, and the Prussian king bound himself to continue the war against Austria until she surrendered to Italy all Venetia save the city of Venice and the Quadrilateral. We shall relate the events of this war in Germany elsewhere. War began between Italy and Austria on the 20th of June. The Italians

responded with enthusiasm to the king's call for troops. The Italian army crossed the Mincio, and was defeated by the Austrians at Custoza on the 24th of June. The great victory of Prussia at Königgrätz, or Sadowa, on the 3d of July, reduced Austria to such extremities that she was obliged to concentrate all her energies for the defence of her home territory. Unable to hold Venetia, she relinquished it to the Emperor of the French, by whom it was to be transferred to Italy. On the 20th of July the Austrian fleet inflicted a terrible defeat upon the Italian fleet off Lissa. The war was now brought to a close by the Peace of Nicholsburg on the 30th of August. In spite of her reverses, Italy gained the objects for which she fought, thanks to the vigor and success with which Prussia conducted the campaign in Germany. All of Venetia, including the city of Venice, and the fortresses of the Quadrilateral, were united to Italy. Austria retained Istria, Aquileia, and the former possessions of Venice on the Dalmatian coast.

At the close of the year 1866 the French troops were withdrawn from Rome, in accordance with the terms of the September convention. Garibaldi now avowed his determination to wrest Rome from the pope. Rattazzi, who had returned to office, secretly encouraged the movement, hoping to find in it a chance of winning Rome for Italy, without incurring the risk of a war with France. He managed the affair badly. Garibaldi raised a force of volunteers, and while preparing for the invasion of the papal territory was arrested by order of the Italian government, and conveyed to his home at Caprera. In the meantime his volunteers crossed the Roman frontier without being checked by the Italian government, and on the 14th of October, 1867, Garibaldi was allowed to escape from Caprera and rejoin his forces. The sympathy of the Italian government was so open that he hoped to be supported by the royal troops. This open sympathy, however, had induced the Emperor Napoleon to inform the Italian government that he should regard any further action against the papal dominions as a declaration of war against France. In the meantime Garibaldi had defeated the papal forces at Monte Rotundo, and disturbances had occurred among the people of Rome. The King of Italy issued a proclamation declaring his intention to oppose the further advance of the Garibaldi-

ans. The Emperor Napoleon, however, declared the September convention broken, and threw a fresh garrison into Rome. Garibaldi, believing that Italy would be compelled to resent this action of France, prepared to disband his volunteers. His garrison at Mentenna surrendered to the French and papal army on the 4th of November, 1867, after a gallant resistance. Garibaldi himself was arrested on his way to Caprera, by the Italian government, but the indignation of the people was so great that he was released, and allowed to retire to his home. The popular indignation at the failure of the scheme for securing Rome drove Rattazzi from office once more. The disapproval of the re-occupation of Rome by the French was so marked on the part of the great powers, that the Emperor of the French declared it would be terminated as soon as a definite arrangement could be made with Italy.

In July, 1870, war broke out between France and Germany, and the necessities of the former country required the withdrawal of the French army from Rome. On the 8th of August the French troops evacuated Rome, and sailed from Civita Vecchia for their own country. The Roman people were greatly excited, and the ultra republicans, with Mazzini at their head, threatened to wrest Rome from the pope. The king would not allow this, as he considered himself still bound by the September convention with France; and Mazzini was arrested to keep him quiet. On the 2d of September the Emperor Napoleon and the French army surrendered

to the German forces at Sedan. This act was soon followed by the overthrow of the empire and the establishment of the French republic, which declared the September convention no longer binding upon France.

Victor Emmanuel was now free to act, and at once notified the pope that he had taken upon himself the task of preserving order in Italy—a plain intimation that he meant to make himself master of Rome. The pope appealed to King William of Prussia to protect him, but that sovereign



POPE PIUS IX.

declined to interfere in Italian affairs. The Italian troops entered the papal territory, which readily submitted to the king, and in a few days took position before Rome. The pope refused to allow the city to be defended, but caused only sufficient resistance to be made to show that he yielded to force. A small breach was made in the wall, near the Porta Pia, and through this the Italian army entered Rome on the 20th of September, 1870. Rome and its territory were declared parts of the Italian kingdom. On

the 31st of December, 1870, Victor Emmanuel made his public entry into Rome, which now became the capital of free and united Italy.

Thus fell the temporal power of the pope, who was now reduced to his true position of a spiritual ruler. The king carefully respected and consulted the personal comfort, dignity, and independence of the pontiff. The Vatican Quarter, or Leonine City, was confirmed to him, and exempted from the law of the state, that the pope might be free in fact, as well as in theory, from the interference of the Italian government.

Since 1870 the progress of Italy has been marked. She has fairly entered upon her great career of prosperity as a united nation, and is already experiencing the good effects of personal liberty and constitutional government. Her resources are being rapidly developed, and she has taken her true position as one of the great powers of the world.

On the 26th of December, 1870, the tunnel through Mont Cenis was completed. This splendid work pierces the great barrier of the Alps, and gives to Italy direct and uninterrupted railway communication with France and the rest of Europe.

In October, 1872, the Jesuits, who had given considerable trouble to the Italian

government, were expelled from Rome. It is worthy of remark that, on the same day, the first scientific congress ever assembled within the walls of Rome met in the capitol under the presidency of Count Mamiani.

In spite of his fallen fortunes as a civil ruler, the spiritual power of the pope had been greatly increased during these years. On the 8th of December, 1869, an Œcumenical Council met at the Vatican. It was a body which fairly represented the Roman Catholic Church throughout the world. Its sessions were long and elaborate, and on the 18th of July, 1870, resulted in the solemn announcement of the infallibility of the pope in matters of faith and morals. All members of the Romish communion were required to accept this doctrine as an article of faith on pain of eternal damnation. The doctrine was accepted by the church without hesitation.

The contest between the pope and the king became even more bitter after the occupation of the city of Rome by the Italian government. It is still in progress. The Italian government has been driven by the papal party into stern measures for the maintenance of its authority; but on the whole the just rights of the pope have been respected.

BOOK XVIII.

THE HISTORY OF GERMANY.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE REIGN OF CHARLEMAGNE.

Geographical Position of Germany—The German Race—Tacitus the Principal Authority Concerning the Primitive Germans—Organization and Characteristics of the Germanic Tribes—Family Ties—The Wergeld—Ancient Germany—Political Constitution—Religion—Ariovistus—Efforts of Rome to Conquer the Germans—Defeat of Varus by Arminius—Migrations of the German Tribes—The Franks—The Salian Franks—Their Kingdom—Clovis—Conquers Syagrius—Battle of Tolbiac—Clovis Embraces Christianity—Conquest of the Burgundians—The Visigothic Kingdom Subdued—Relations of Clovis with the Empire—His Death—Division of his Kingdom among his Sons—Quarrels of the Descendants of Clovis—Brun-

haut—The "Do-Nothing Kings"—The Mayors of the Palace—Pepin of Heristal—Spread of Christianity among the Germans—St. Willibrord—Charles Martel—Defeats the Saracens—The Pope Entreats him to Defend the Holy See—Fall of the Merovingian Dynasty—Pepin the Short Becomes King of the Franks—Protects the Pope against the Lombards—Drives the Saracens from France—Death of Pepin.

GERMANY, or *Deutschland*, occupies a considerable part of central Europe. Its limits have varied at different times, owing to the fact that it has no clearly defined boundaries, and also because, lying in the central portion of Europe, and being surrounded by most of the leading nations

of the continent, the Germans have been more intimately involved than any other people in the general history of Europe. Roughly stated, Germany now extends from the Baltic to the Alps, and from the Rhine valley on the west to the Danube. In the south of Germany the country is mountainous; in the centre it is hilly; but in the north it forms a part of the great plain of northeastern Europe, and is flat.

The Germans are a branch of the great Aryan family. The settlement of the Germanic or Teutonic nations of Europe at the fall of the Roman empire has been related at the close of our history of Rome. It remains but to describe the leading characteristic of the tribes which constituted the ancestors of the modern Germans. Our principal authority respecting them is the Roman historian Tacitus, whose "*Germania*" was written in A. D. 98.

The greater part of Germany was originally covered with forests in which wild animals and game abounded. The climate was damp and foggy, and the winters were colder and longer than at present. The soil was generally fertile, but was marshy in many places. The Germans were distinguished from the southern races by their huge and robust frames, their greater daring and activity, their respect for the honor of their women, and by "a sense they called honor, which led them to sacrifice their life rather than their word." They were divided into a number of tribes, which were grouped at the period of which we write into the confederations or nations we have already enumerated. The various tribes, except the Saxons, who had no kings save in time of war, when the nobles chose one of their own number as a leader, had each a royal family believed to be descended from Odin. From this family the king was chosen by the free votes of his comrades.

The Germans were an agricultural people, but their favorite occupations were war and hunting. They left the tilling of the soil and other peaceful pursuits to men unable to bear arms and to women. Though brave, simple, hospitable and truthful as a rule, they were often fierce and cruel, and were excessively addicted to gambling, drunkenness, and indolence. They celebrated the great deeds of their ancestors in their songs, and were ever ready to die in defence of their freedom. They were divided into two classes—the nobles and the common freemen. The

nobles were generally richer than the freemen, but owed their influence to their personal qualities rather than to their wealth. They were the acknowledged leaders of the people in peace and war. The freemen were all equals, and constituted the great bulk of the nation. Both nobles and freemen held slaves, which class consisted of prisoners taken in war and their children, and persons condemned to slavery for crime. They were the absolute property of their masters, and had no redress against their injustice; but as a rule were well treated. The laws were few. Nearly all crimes committed by freemen or nobles were punished by fines, the amounts of which differed in the various tribes.

Family ties were very strong among the ancient Germans. Marriages did not take place until the contracting parties had fully developed their mental and physical powers. Though the wife was in a certain sense purchased by her husband and was subject to him, her position was one of honor and influence. She was her husband's companion and friend, and accompanied him on distant military expeditions. She was trained to the use of arms, and was brave and virtuous. The father had supreme authority over his children. The orphan children of a freeman were protected by their relatives until able to defend themselves. A freeman's quarrels were espoused by his relatives, and in case of his murder they were bound to see that the *Wergeld*, or price of blood, which was divided amongst his family, was exacted and paid.

Ancient Germany contained no cities. As a general rule the free inhabitants lived in villages, in which each hut or family dwelling stood apart from the rest, surrounded by a piece of ground. At first the lands around the villages were held in common, but in course of time they were divided among individual owners. An undefined number of villages formed what was called a *Hundred*. Each village and hundred had its own chief, elected by the votes of the freemen. Above the chiefs of the hundreds were the chiefs of the tribes. Some of the tribes had kings, elected, as has been said, from certain noble families believed to have sprung from the gods. The chiefs of the hundreds were the princes of the tribes, and constituted the council of the king or principal chief. The princes vied with each other in the number of their

followers, each of whom swore to be faithful to his lord. To violate this oath was regarded as the worst possible crime. In return for their services, the chief supplied his men with war-horses, armor and food.

“Important as was the position of the chiefs in ancient Germany, their power was comparatively limited. Above all chiefs were *meetings of the people*. Even the village had its meeting; but the really important meetings were those of the hundred and the tribe. These meetings were not, like modern parliaments, representative. All freemen had a right to attend them. The meetings of the village and of the hundred did not concern themselves with the affairs of the tribe. These came before the meeting of the whole people. It was in this general meeting that the chiefs were elected—not only the king or other chief of the tribe, but the chiefs of the various hundreds. Here also the young freeman received from his father, or some prince, the arms which were the symbol that he had attained to a position of independence in the tribe. All difficult cases of justice were decided by the meeting of the tribe; it also declared war and concluded peace, and sanctioned the occasional distant expeditions of the chiefs with their followers. When questions of unusual difficulty were to come before the meeting, they were discussed beforehand by the king or other chief and the princes of the tribe; but the ultimate decision lay with the people themselves. The common freemen rarely took a leading part in the deliberations. The chiefs laid their proposals before the people in plain terms, stating the arguments on each side. If the freemen did not agree with their chiefs, they expressed their opinion by cries of dissent; they signified their approval of a proposition by clashing their armor.”

The religion of the Germans was in keeping with their habits. Their supreme god was Wodan, or Odin, whose wife was Freya. Donar, or Thor, their son, the god of thunder, was a very powerful deity. Baldur, the sun god, was also important. The gods had no temples erected to their honor, but were worshipped in sacred groves. Sacrifices, sometimes of human beings, were offered to them. Their will was ascertained by means of lots, the flight of birds, and the neighing of sacred horses. The Germans believed that the gods took a direct interest in human affairs, and they acknowl-

edged a future state, in which the brave lived with Odin in Valhalla, feasting on beer and the flesh of the wild boar, and engaging in fierce combats for pastime. From this abode cowards and those who died peacefully were excluded.

In the *History of Rome* we have related the steps by which Germany emerged from her primitive darkness into the light of history. It will not be necessary to repeat the narrative here at length. A quarrel having broken out between the Sequani and Ædui, two Gallic tribes, the former invited Ariovistus, King of the Suevi, a powerful German tribe, to come to their assistance. He did so, but by the year B. C. 60 extended his authority over both tribes, and thus added all of Gaul between the upper Rhine and the Loire to his dominions. Ariovistus at first maintained friendly relations with the Romans, but in B. C. 58 the Gauls appealed to Julius Cæsar for help, and the Roman commander marched against the German king, defeated him, and conquered him. He subdued the Germans on the left bank of the Rhine as thoroughly as he did the Celtic inhabitants of Gaul, and his estimation of the warlike qualities of the Germans was increased to such an extent that he induced many of them to enter his army.

After this we hear but little of Germany until the reign of Augustus, who endeavored to convert the country into a Roman province. Drusus, the stepson of the emperor, won great successes over the German tribes, and in three successive expeditions into their country advanced as far as the Elbe. He erected fifty fortresses along the Rhine to hold the line of that river, and would have conquered a large part of Germany had not his death, in B. C. 9, put a stop to his plans. The Romans continued the war, and Tiberius, the successor of Drusus, conquered the Teucteri and Usipetes in B. C. 8. By treachery he overcame the gallant resistance of the Sicambri, and settled about 40,000 of them in Gaul. It seemed for a while that Germany would be brought under the dominion of Rome; but the advantages won by Tiberius were thrown away by Quinctilius Varus. His tyranny drove the freeborn Germans into rebellion, and they took arms against Varus. The revolt was led by Arminius, or Herman, a young Cheruscan chief. Varus was lured by Arminius into the depths of the Teutoburg wood, where he was attacked, and

his army annihilated, as we have related in the *History of Rome*.

The victory of Arminius destroyed the Roman power in Germany. In the reign of the Emperor Tiberius the Roman army under Germanicus, the son of Drusus, endeavored to regain what Varus had lost; but the Germans, led by Arminius, offered such a stout resistance that the invaders withdrew from the country.

Arminius was then called upon to defend his country against the efforts of the Marcomanni, who had occupied the region now known as Bohemia, from which they endeavored to conquer Germany. The German hero defeated Maroboduus, the Marcomannic king, broke up his kingdom, and compelled him to seek safety at Rome, and so, a second time, preserved the independence of Germany. Arminius was murdered in A. D. 21, at the age of thirty-seven. To this day his memory is deservedly cherished by the German people as the earliest of their heroes.

In the second century the German tribes, encouraged by the apparent weakness of the Roman empire, ventured to invade its dominions. In the reign of Marcus Aurelius the Marcomanni and the Quadi, aided by several non-German tribes, maintained a war of thirteen years against Rome, and compelled the empire to put forth extraordinary exertions to protect its frontiers from them.

Between the third and the sixth centuries occurred the migrations of the German tribes, which determined the geographical position of the nations of modern Europe. Their settlement is related at the close of our *History of Rome*, and need not be repeated here.

The most important of these tribes were the Franks. For several centuries the history of these people is the history of Germany. They conquered Gaul and their own kinsmen, and laid the foundations of the future kingdoms of Germany and France. They began their attacks upon the Roman dominions on the left bank of the Rhine in the third century, and though often repulsed, they persisted in their efforts, which were finally crowned with success. By the latter part of the fifth century they had conquered the whole country between the middle Rhine and the Meuse, and had fixed their capital at Cologne. They were called the Riparian Franks.

The lower Rhine country was held by a

Frankish tribe descended for the most part from the Sicambri, who had been settled there by Tiberius. These people were known as the Salian Franks. They were never willing subjects of Rome, and were always on the watch for an opportunity to regain their freedom. They were severely worsted by the Emperor Julian, but he allowed them to retain the lands they had seized beyond the Rhine, and which extended west of the Meuse. By the opening of the fifth century they had grown so powerful that they no longer recognized the supremacy of Rome, though they still furnished mercenary soldiers to the Roman army.

The Salians were governed at this time by their own kings. The first of these of whom we have any account was Chlodio, who advanced the boundaries of his kingdom as far west as the Somme. He became the ally of Rome, and rendered important aid to the Romans in their efforts against Attila, A. D. 451. The institutions of this kingdom were similar to those of the German tribes. His successor is said to have been Merowig, but nothing is known with certainty of this monarch, who, however, may have existed, as his successors from this time are known as the Merovingian kings. The next king of whom we have any certain knowledge was Childeric. He reigned during the latter half of the fifth century, and had his capital at Tournay. He was a great king, and aided the Romans against the Visigoths. This connection with the Romans paved the way for the events now to be related.

Theodoric II., the monarch of the Visigothic kingdom of Gaul, the establishment and early history of which we have related in connection with that of Rome, was assassinated by his brother Euric, who succeeded him. Euric subdued the greater part of Spain, and compelled the Suevi to hold the kingdom of Gallicia as a tributary of the Gothic crown. He died prematurely in the midst of his conquests, leaving his kingdom to Alaric, his son, a mere child.

In the meantime Childeric had been succeeded on the Salian throne by his son Chlodwig or Clovis, a youth of fifteen. His kingdom consisted of the island of the Batavians and the ancient dioceses of Tournay and Arras, and his warriors did not exceed 5,000 in number. His great abilities soon spread his influence over the kin-

dred tribes of the Franks, who were settled along the Scheldt, the Meuse, the Moselle, and the lower Rhine, and who were governed by independent kings, and drew large numbers of warriors to his standard.

The first exploit of Clovis was the conquest and annexation to his dominions of the kingdom of Syagrius, who ruled over the second Belgic and the adjoining districts. He next defeated the Alemanni, who held the territory on each side of the Rhine from its source to the mouths of the Main and Moselle, and who had spread themselves over that portion of Gaul which afterwards comprised the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. Their king was slain and their possessions became a part of the kingdom of Clovis, A. D. 496. In A. D. 493 Clovis had espoused Clotilda, a Burgundian princess, who, though reared in an Arian court, had been trained in the orthodox Catholic faith. Clotilda labored diligently to convert her husband to Christianity, but for a long time he refused to embrace her faith, though he permitted their eldest child to be baptized. The decisive battle of the war against the Alemanni was fought at Tolbiac, near Cologne. It was stubbornly contested, and for a long time the issue was doubtful. In this emergency, Clovis, raising his hands to heaven, invoked "the God of Clotilda," and vowed that if victory should declare for him, he would embrace the Christian faith, and be baptized. He was victorious, and at the conclusion of the struggle he was baptized with great pomp and splendor, together with 3,000 of his subjects, in the cathedral at Rheims.

By his adoption of Christianity and of the Catholic faith, Clovis gained the firm support of that church, "and the alliance was eminently serviceable to the interests of both parties. The church found in the advancing power of Clovis an instrument which might humble the persecuting power of the Visigoths and Burgundians, and unite the whole country in dutiful submission to the See of St. Peter; while Clovis acquired in the church an ally possessing the full confidence of the people whose land he aimed to conquer, and ready to proclaim him as the chosen of Heaven, whose sceptre would prove the surest guarantee of a nation's prosperity and greatness. Either without the other must have failed, but together they were irresistible."

The results of this alliance were soon ap-

parent. In A. D. 497 the Armorican states made a treaty with Clovis, by which they became his tributaries. By this treaty the frontiers of the Frankish dominions were advanced to the Loire. In A. D. 500 Clovis gained a great victory over the Burgundians, and compelled Gondebald, their king, to hold his crown as his tributary. This success destroyed the greatness and glory of the Burgundian kingdom, but it was not definitely united to the Frankish monarchy until the next generation.

The conquest of the Burgundians encouraged Clovis to attempt that of the Visigothic kingdom south of the Loire. The civil government of this region was chiefly in the hands of the clergy, and these now rallied to the support of Clovis as the champion of the orthodox faith. The Gallo-Roman subjects of Alaric longed for the success of the Franks, and offered but little resistance to them. The decisive battle of the war was fought near Poitiers in A. D. 507, and the Visigoths were defeated. Clovis slew Alaric with his own hand, and overran the country from the Loire to the Garonne, spending the winter at Bordeaux. The next spring he attempted to drive the Visigoths beyond the Pyrenees, but Theodoric, the Ostrogothic king, sent an army to the assistance of his kinsman, and obliged the Frankish monarch to pause. Clovis, being decisively repulsed before Arles, left the Goths in possession of a small portion of their territory known as the province of the Septimania, the capital of which was Narbonne. The remainder of their territory in Gaul was permanently united with the Frankish kingdom. Upon his return to Tours, Clovis received a congratulatory embassy from the Emperor Anastasius, who invested him with the titles and insignia of Consul and Patrician. In actual fact this was not much of a gain, as the King of the Franks was absolute master of his territory; but the moral effect was considerable, for this action of the emperor made Clovis in the eyes of his Gallo-Roman subjects the legitimate successor to all the rights and privileges of the Roman Cæsars. During his last years, Clovis extended his power by less honorable means than he had hitherto used. By a series of deliberate murders he removed the other Merovingian chiefs, some of whom were his relatives, and made himself sole monarch of the Franks. He died at Paris in A. D. 511, leaving his dominions to his four sons.

All the sons of Clovis fixed their capitals north of the Loire, a fact significant of the insecurity of the tenure by which their conquests south of that river were yet held. Theodoric, the eldest, took for his share the eastern provinces, from the Meuse to the Rhine, and the districts of Auvergne, Limousin, and Quercy. His capital was Metz. Chlodonier reigned in the Orlennais, Maine, Anjou, and Touraine, with his capital at Orleans. Childebert was King of Paris and its neighborhood, with the Armorican district, stretching from Rouen to Rennes, Nantes, and Vannes. Clotaire, the youngest, was King of Soissons, and ruled the ancient country of the Salians, together with the maritime tract between the Somme and the mouth of the Meuse. He also possessed some territory in the Cevennes and on the upper Garonne. The dominions of the brothers thus intersected each other in the most bewildering manner, and for one sovereign to reach the distant parts of his dominions it was often necessary to cross the possessions of another. Quarrels were consequently multiplied, and neither of the brothers was disposed to live peaceably with the others. Theodoric, while a fierce and violent ruler, gave to his subjects a wise and admirable code of laws, and exerted himself to introduce Christianity wherever paganism had formerly prevailed. Theodobert, his son, attempted to intervene in the affairs of Italy at the request of Justinian and the Gothic King Vitiges; with what success has been related, A. D. 539. To avert such invasions in future Justinian resigned to the Frankish kings his claims to sovereignty in Gaul, and from that time those monarchs stamped their coins with their own instead of the imperial image.

The fierce quarrels of the descendants of Clovis constitute a dark page in the history of their country, and it is needless to relate them here. His grandsons Sigebert and Chilperic, sons of Clotaire, married sisters, the daughters of Athanagild, King of the Visigoths. Sigebert, King of Austrasia, married Brunehaut, a woman of rare beauty and great accomplishments, but of violent passions. Chilperic, King of Neustria, married Galeswintha, the younger sister, but soon afterwards murdered her at the instigation of his low-born mistress Fredegonda, whom he made his wife. Brunehaut became the bitter enemy of Fredegonda, and though she accepted a settlement of the quarrel, never abandoned

her resolve to be avenged on the murderers of her sister. This personal quarrel was greatly aggravated by the rivalry between the kingdoms of Neustria and Austrasia, in the former of which the Gallo-Roman population was most numerous, while in the latter the population was almost wholly Frankish or German. Fredegonda gave herself up to a life of crime, and to avoid punishment caused the murder of her husband. Previous to this she had caused the assassination of Sigebert. The widowed Brunehaut, though scarcely less guilty than Fredegonda, contrived to maintain her hold upon Austrasia as the guardian of her son. She enjoyed the friendship and was the correspondent of Gregory the Great and other learned and good men, and, notwithstanding her crimes, was the patroness and defender of Christianity and learning. She arrayed the Austrasian nobles against her in the end by her efforts to crush them, and was finally defeated by them and by the combined forces of Neustria and Burgundy. She was made prisoner and turned over to Clotaire, the son of Fredegonda, who subjected her to three days of torture and indignity, and then put her to death in the most barbarous manner.

All the Frankish dominions were now united under Clotaire II., who reigned as sole king from A. D. 613 to 628. His son Dagobert carried the power of the Merovingian race to its highest point. He fixed his court at Paris, and his authority was acknowledged from the Weser to the Pyrenees, and from the ocean to the Bohemian border. Dagobert died in A. D. 638. His successors were weak and insignificant. They were termed "Rois-fainéants"—"do-nothing kings"—a title which fully expresses their character for the next century. The real power was exercised by the bishops and nobles, and especially by the officials known as "Mayors of the Palace." The mayor was a noble chosen by his order to be the adviser of the king in peace and the commander of the royal army in war, in order to aid the nobles in their efforts to limit the royal power. The office, at first elective, became hereditary. Under the feeble Merovingian kings who succeeded Dagobert, the mayors were the real sovereigns. One of the most vigorous of these rulers, Pepin of Heristal, after suffering some reverses, defeated the Neustrian nobility at Testry in A. D. 687, and having thus given the death-blow to Merovingian roy-

alty, made himself master of all the kingdom of Clovis, and for twenty-seven years governed it with vigor, prudence, and success. His victory was also important in another sense. It established the supremacy of the Teutonic over the Roman element in Gaul. Pepin took the title of Prince or Duke of the Franks. The poor phantom Merovingian king, "the long-haired shadow of royalty," was exhibited once a year to the people at the Field of March; but at other times was held in a sort of mild captivity. The remainder of the seventh century and the first years of the next were passed by Pepin in re-establishing the ancient supremacy of the Franks in Germany. The Frisians, Saxons, Alemanni, Suabians, Thuringians, and Bavarians were forced to acknowledge the Frankish power. These successes were followed by the introduction and spread of Christianity among the German tribes. In the rear of the armies of Pepin followed a band of monks, chiefly Anglo-Saxon, by whose efforts multitudes of their pagan countrymen were converted to Christianity. One of these monks, St. Willibrord, was consecrated by Pope Sergius, in A. D. 696, Archbishop of the Frisians.

Pepin of Heristal died in December, A. D. 714. Plectrude, his widow, attempted to govern the kingdom as regent for her infant grandson, Dagobert III., but was opposed by Austrasian nobles led by Charles Martel, an illegitimate son of Pepin, and was ultimately compelled to yield. Charles then came into possession of the authority and dominions of his father without further resistance, A. D. 719. He ruled wisely and vigorously for twenty-two years.

One of the greatest exploits of Charles was his defeat of the Saracens of Spain. Aquitaine and the Septimania had already suffered severely from them, as we shall see in the account of their history during this century. In pursuance of a deliberate plan of conquest, they passed the Pyrenees and overran the Frankish kingdom as far north as the Loire. Charles Martel took the field against them, and inflicted upon them such a crushing defeat near Tours that the remnants of their host fled southward, and Europe was freed from the danger of Mohammedan conquest, A. D. 732. Charles followed up his success by several expeditions to the south; but, though repeatedly victorious, was unable to expel the Saracens altogether from the soil of France. They

were not driven from Septimania, their last refuge, until A. D. 759, by Pepin, the son of Charles. One result of the victory of Charles was the acquisition of Aquitaine, under its own rulers, to the Frankish kingdom. Charles, following the example of his father, did not assume the royal title, but governed as Duke of the Franks. In A. D. 737, upon the death of the Merovingian King Thierry IV., Charles felt his power so firmly established that he omitted to appoint a successor to the dead monarch, and the royal dignity remained in abeyance. Towards the close of his reign he was entreated by Pope Gregory III. to take arms for the defence of the Catholic Church against the Lombards, who had seized the Exarchate of Ravenna, and were threatening Rome. In return for this service the pope promised to invest him with the dignity of Consul and Patrician of Rome. Charles entertained the proposition with favor, but his death in A. D. 741 prevented him from taking any action in behalf of the pontiff. By his will he divided his dominions between his two sons Carloman and Pepin, called "the Short." Carloman received Austrasia and the territories beyond the Rhine; Pepin was given Neustria, Burgundy, and Provence.

The sons of Charles sought out the last descendant of the house of Clovis, and proclaimed him king, by the name of Chilperic III. Assisted by St. Boniface, who was about this time consecrated Archbishop of Mayence, they made many reforms in the church, and by liberal concessions to the priesthood won their hearty support. In A. D. 747 Carloman relinquished his share in the government into the hands of Pepin and took the vows of a Benedictine monk. In A. D. 752 Pepin, having previously obtained the sanction of the pope and the co-operation of the nobles, put aside the feeble Merovingian King Chilperic, condemned him to the seclusion of the cloister, and seated himself upon the throne as King of the Franks. "The elevation of Pepin to the throne was the result of a compact between himself and the Holy See, based on considerations of mutual interest. Pepin needed the sanction of the pope to legitimize his crown; the pontiff needed the assistance of the Frankish arms, by which he was raised eventually to the position of a temporal and territorial sovereign. And this alliance between the Carolingians and the papacy became a principle of regenera-

tion and progress, not only for France, but for all western Europe. . . A strong monarchical government was now established, possessing the power to make itself universally respected; while the papacy became at the same time a fixed predominant authority for the regulation of the affairs of the church."

It was not long before Pepin was able to repay the pontiff for his sanction of his seizure of the throne. Astolph, King of the Lombards, seized Ravenna and the exarchate and threatened Rome. Pope Stephen II. visited the Frankish capital, as has been related, to implore the aid of Pepin, A. D. 753. Pepin swore to cross the Alps to the pope's assistance in the following year, and was crowned at St. Denis by Pope Stephen with great pomp. At the same time he was solemnly invested with the title of Patrician of the Romans. The next year he entered Italy with a large army, defeated the Lombards, and compelled Astolph to agree to cede all the territory he had conquered to the pope. Pepin then returned home, and Astolph immediately broke his promise, ravaged the Romagna, laid siege to Rome, and demanded the surrender of the pontiff. Pepin at once crossed the Alps a second time, and inflicted upon the Lombard king such a punishment that he was obliged to surrender the exarchate and the Pentapolis, as the price of peace. These territories Pepin conferred upon the pope, and thus raised him to the dignity of a temporal as well as a spiritual ruler. The Frankish king retained the sovereignty of these provinces, but their rich revenues went to the pope.

The entire reign of Pepin was filled with warlike enterprises. In A. D. 752 he undertook to expel the Saracens from Septimania. He drove them in succession from all the cities of the province, and finally laid siege to Narbonne, their capital, which was betrayed to him by some Gothic citizens, A. D. 759. This success decided the war in his favor, the Saracens were obliged to evacuate the province, and Septimania became finally united to the Frankish dominions. The great duchy of Aquitaine, which comprised about a fourth of modern France, threw off its allegiance to the King of the Franks. Pepin reduced it to obedience. The war began in A. D. 760 and lasted eight years. The Duke of Aquitaine made a stubborn and brave resistance, but he was put to death by his own people in A. D. 768, and the au-

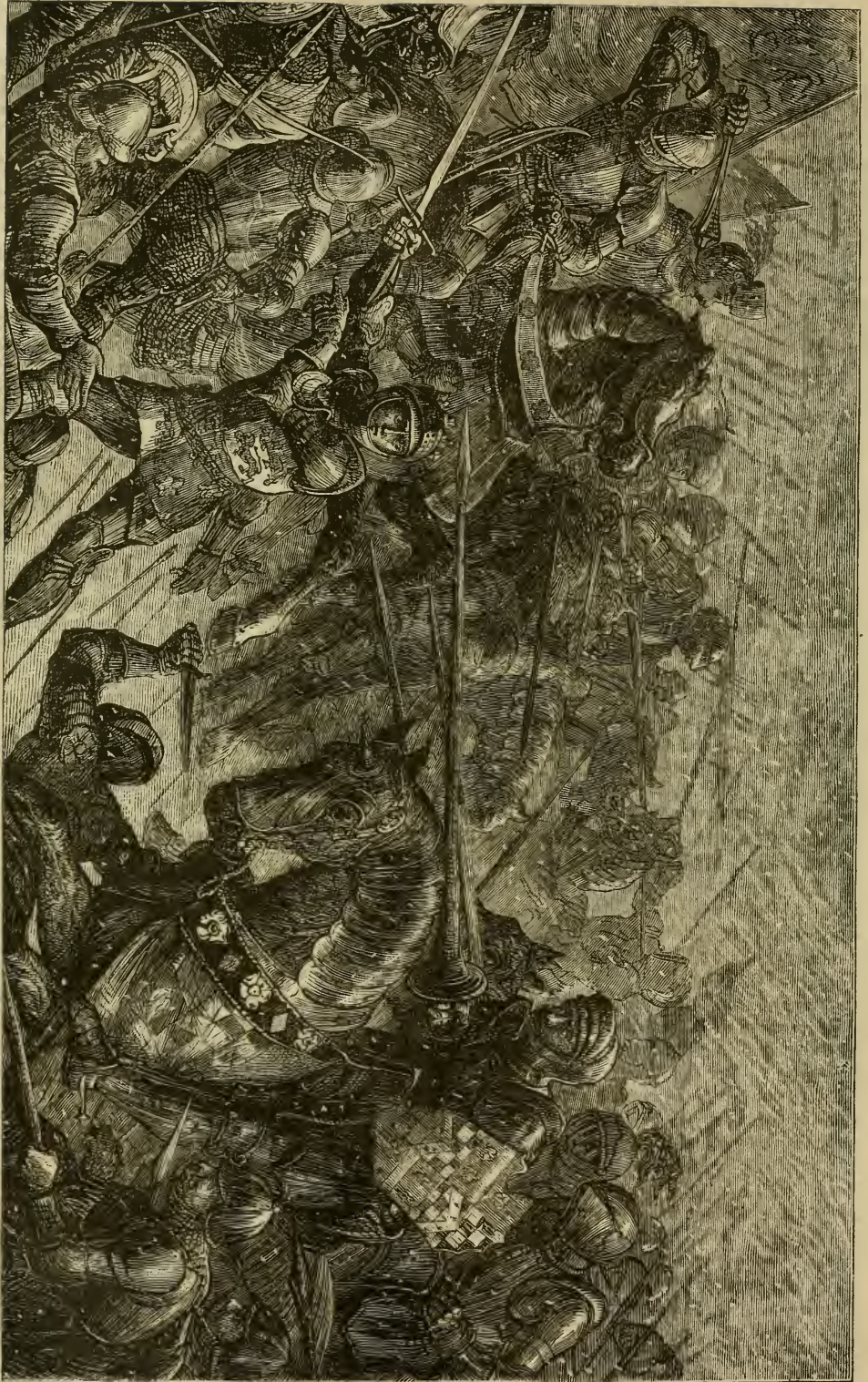
thority of Pepin was restored. This success closed the career of the conqueror. On his return from Aquitaine, Pepin was seized with a dangerous fever at Saintes. He was removed with difficulty to St. Denis, where he died on the 24th of September, A. D. 768, at the age of fifty-four, having reigned nearly twenty-seven years—eleven as Mayor of the Palace, and nearly sixteen as King of the Franks. By his will his dominions were divided between his sons Charles and Carloman. Carloman died in 771, and his brother Charles, who is better known as Charlemagne, or "Charles the Great," was left sole King of the Franks.

CHAPTER II.

THE EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

Significance of the Accession of Pepin to the Frankish Throne—Charlemagne King—Wars with the Saxons—Cruelty of Charlemagne—The Pope Appeals to the Frankish King for Aid against the Lombards—Charlemagne Crosses the Alps and Subdues Northern Italy—Enters Spain—Battle of Roncesvalles—Death of Roland—Charlemagne Subdues Bavaria—Conquers the Huns—Goes to Italy—Is Crowned Emperor by the Pope—Character of Charlemagne's Empire—Treaty with the Eastern Emperor—Power of Charlemagne—His Government and Laws—His Policy towards the Church—His Protection and Encouragement of Learning—Alcuin—The Schools—Personal Appearance and Characteristics of Charlemagne—His Death—Louis the Gentle becomes Emperor—Division of Charlemagne's Dominions among his Sons—Death of Louis—Lothaire Emperor—The Treaty of Verdun—Rise of the German and French Kingdoms—The Feudal System—Its Characteristic Features.

IT should be borne in mind that the accession of Pepin to the Frankish throne was the triumph of the Teutonic element in Gaul. The predominance of this element was more marked in the reign of Charlemagne, who proved himself one of the greatest sovereigns of any time. When he mounted the throne, the only German people who had never submitted to the rule of the Franks were the Saxons, who were still heathens. Their country stretched from the mouths of the Elbe southwards to Thuringia, and westward almost to the Rhine. Charlemagne began his sole reign by an attempt to conquer them. In A. D. 772 he invaded their territory, took their principal stronghold, Eresburg, and compelled them to submit. His success was so complete that he believed he had conquered them; but he had won only a temporary success.



BATTLE OF RONGESVAILLES.

The war, thus begun, continued for thirty years, and so taxed the energy and resources of Charles that he at times almost despaired of substantial success. In his anger at the obstinate resistance of the Saxons, he put 4,500 of his prisoners to death; but this barbarous act only increased the determination of their countrymen. In the end, however, the Saxons were obliged to submit and to accept Christianity. During the war large numbers of Saxons were transported to other parts of Charlemagne's dominions, and their places filled with colonies of Franks.

In the early part of the war with the Saxons, Charlemagne was appealed to by the pope for aid against the Lombards, who had again threatened Rome. He promptly crossed the Alps in aid of the pontiff, and in A. D. 774 conquered Lombardy and annexed that country to his own dominions as a separate kingdom. From this time his full title was *King of the Franks and Lombards and Patrician of the Romans*. Charlemagne deposed Desiderius and himself assumed the iron crown. The Lombard nobles were allowed to retain their estates and titles as his vassals. Two years later they conspired against him, aided by the Greek emperor. Charlemagne passed the Alps in midwinter, crushed the revolt, and placed Frankish officers in all places of trust in Lombardy.

In A. D. 777 the Saracen Emir of Saragossa asked aid of Charlemagne in his struggle with the Khalif of Cordova, promising to become tributary to the Frankish king in return for this assistance. Charlemagne promised to help him, and in A. D. 778 made an expedition into Spain, and gained such substantial successes that he extended his boundary across the Pyrenees, as far south as the Ebro. On his return he was not so fortunate. His rear-guard was attacked by the Basques, in the pass of Roncesvalles, and almost annihilated. Among the slain was the famous knight Roland, whose exploits have been sung by the poets of succeeding ages. The Emir of Saragossa having violated his promise to do homage to Charlemagne, the king erected the conquered territory into a province known as the "Spanish March." The authority of the governor of this province extended over Roussillon, Catalonia, and the infant kingdoms of Aragon and Navarre. His residence was at Barcelona.

During the reign of Pepin the Short,

Bavaria had been made tributary to the Frankish crown. After his death, Thasilo, the Bavarian duke, threw off his allegiance. Charlemagne marched against him in A. D. 785, and compelled him to submit. He rebelled again the next year, and was again conquered. Charles spared his life, but deposed him, and in future governed Bavaria by means of counts.

The Avars, the descendants of the Huns who had desolated Europe under Attila, held the forests and morasses of Pannonia. They were thus in such close proximity to Bavaria that Charlemagne resolved to attempt their conquest. In 791 he invaded their country in overwhelming force and subdued them. By this success he became master of western Pannonia. Five years later (796) Pepin, King of Italy, the son of Charlemagne, stormed the remaining defences of the Huns, and after inflicting terrible slaughter upon them, compelled them to submit. Nearly all of the treasure carried away from Europe by Attila was recovered by Pepin. The Hunnish chieftain, Thudan, and his principal warriors, embraced Christianity and were baptized at Aix-la-Chapelle. The entire kingdom of the Huns was thus added to the empire of Charlemagne.

The visit of Charlemagne to Rome in A. D. 800, to investigate the charges against Pope Leo III., resulted, as has been related, in the acquittal of the pope and the punishment of his enemies. The grateful pontiff could not do less than reward the king for his friendly aid, and promptly put in execution a design which he had no doubt arranged with the monarch. On Christmas day Charlemagne visited St. Peter's Cathedral, and while kneeling on the steps of the great altar, was suddenly approached by the pope, who placed a golden crown upon his head, and at the same moment hailed him with the ancient imperial titles: "Long life and victory to Charles Augustus, crowned of God, great and peace-giving Emperor of the Romans." The vast throng of clergy, warriors, and citizens which filled the church echoed the words of the pontiff with an enthusiastic shout, joyfully acknowledging the King of the Franks as the lawful successor of the Cæsars.

The empire of Charlemagne was not a new creation, but was regarded as a revival of the Roman empire of the West, which it was held had not been abolished at the fall of Romulus Augustulus, but had been



CHARLEMAGNE AND HIS NOBLES.

simply merged in the Eastern empire. In the West the imperial authority had been represented by the Exarch of Ravenna, and the right of the Greek emperor to supreme rule had not been disputed, at least in theory. On the contrary, the most powerful of the barbarian kings had been proud to govern with titles assigned them by the Eastern Cæsar. The Iconoclastic war had rendered the West bitterly hostile to the court of Constantinople, and had brought about a state of feeling which made any actual reunion impossible. Events had followed rapidly, each tending to widen the breach thus opened. Besides, the throne of the East was occupied by a woman, the Empress Irene, whom the Romans regarded as a usurper. They claimed that she could not be Cæsar and Augustus, and that they had as good a right as the East to choose the new Cæsar. They insisted that Rome was of right the capital of the empire; and so it was held that in choosing Charlemagne they were exercising an inalienable right, and merely resuming the privileges which had so long been in abeyance without having been lost. Charlemagne was declared the successor of Constantine VI. as temporal head of Christendom, and, disregarding the insignificant successors of Theodosius in the West, he was numbered as sixty-eighth in order through the Eastern line from Augustus, the founder of the empire. Of course this claim was in direct conflict with that of the Greek emperors, and was not admitted at Constantinople. The empire was thus finally divided, and we shall see for a long period two emperors reigning, one in the East and the other in the West, and each claiming to be the only true Cæsar. In A. D. 803 a treaty was negotiated between the two emperors, fixing the boundaries of their dominions in Italy. The Eastern emperor surrendered his claim to Rome and the exarchate, but retained Venice, Istria, the Dalmatian coast, and the Calabrian cities.

Charlemagne was now the most powerful monarch in the world, and his greatness was recognized by all nations. The English and the little Gothic kingdom in Spain sought his protection, and from the far-off banks of the Tigris came an embassy from the great Khalif Haroun al Raschid seeking his friendship and bringing rich presents, among which were the keys of Jerusalem and the Holy Sepulchre. During the remaining fourteen years of the life of

Charlemagne his efforts were given to the internal organization of his dominions—a task of almost superhuman difficulty, considering the number and dissimilarity of the nations subject to his rule. The success which attended his efforts is a far more enduring monument to his fame than his great exploits as a conqueror. His constant effort was for the civilization and Christianization of Europe, and it will be interesting to inquire how he sought to accomplish this.

The empire of Charlemagne extended from the Baltic to the Ebro, from the North Sea and the Eider to central Italy, and from the Atlantic to the Save, the Theiss, the Oder and the lower Vistula. The centre of this immense region was the Rhineland, the home of the East Franks. Rome and Aachen were the capitals of the empire. In the former the emperor resided but little, and only when occasions of state demanded his presence. Aachen was his favorite residence, and he adorned it not only with a palace but with a fine basilica, from which it derived the name of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which it is usually known in history.

The government of Charlemagne was strictly personal. It was an absolute monarchy disguised under aristocratic, and at the same time, to some extent, popular forms and institutions. The emperor originated and proposed all laws, which were discussed in the assemblies of the nation, one of which met in May and the other in the autumn, and which were attended by the dukes, counts, prelates, and other leading men of the empire. These assemblies could only deliberate and advise. The emperor alone decided what should become law. The laws of Charlemagne which remain to us show the wide range over which the care and wisdom of the emperor extended. They embrace "every conceivable topic of legislation, from matters of the highest moral, ecclesiastical, and political importance, down to the minutest details of domestic economy." One of his chief objects was to lessen the power of the dukes and counts, who were almost independent sovereigns, and who were the chief obstacles in the way of the emperor's efforts to administer justice among his people. He entirely abolished the title of duke in Germany. For the defence of his long and exposed frontier he organized the border districts of Germany into *Marks*, and over these placed margraves or marquesses,

whose chief duty was to drive back or conquer the neighboring tribes. Carinthia, which extended from the Adriatic to the Danube, was one of the principal of these marks. Another, which lay to the east of Bavaria and was designed for the defence of that country against the Huns or Avars, was afterwards known as Oesterreich or Austria.

The administration of justice in the several districts of the empire was lodged principally in the hands of the counts, who were assisted by deputies of various grades. Besides these Charlemagne appointed a peculiar class of officials called *missi dominici*, whose duty it was to visit all parts of the empire four times a year, to hear appeals from the lower tribunals, and to report to the emperor the general state of the country. An appeal might be made from their judgments to the royal tribunal, which was presided over by the *palsgrave*.

Charlemagne was a firm and liberal friend to the church, but was by no means its slave. He recognized readily and fully the benefits conferred upon the country by Christianity, and in his earnest desire to protect the poor and humble class of his people against the rich and powerful, made use of the means which the church furnished him. A lover of learning and learned men, he naturally sought the society of ecclesiastics, who alone in this age of darkness were possessed of education, but he was always their master, kind and generous, but never their tool. He founded many bishoprics and monasteries and conferred rich estates upon them, and made the payment of tithes for the support of the clergy compulsory throughout the empire. Everywhere, especially in Germany, he gave the bishops, abbots, and higher clergy a more important position in the state than they had ever held before, in order that they might serve as a counterpoise to the secular nobility.

The world owes a rich debt of gratitude to Charlemagne for the enlightened protection and encouragement which he unvaryingly gave to learning and the diffusion of knowledge. He was himself an ardent student, and he did not disdain to set a bright example to the world by his patient and arduous efforts to enrich his mind with stores of knowledge. Learned men were encouraged to settle in his dominions, and the emperor delighted to gather them about him and converse with them upon the

topics which interested him. His moments of relaxation, even in the midst of his most important campaigns, were spent in their society. His most trusted friend and counsellor was an Anglo-Saxon monk named Alcuin, by far the most commanding genius of the age. He took up his residence at the court of Charlemagne in A. D. 781, and died in A. D. 804. He was the preceptor of the emperor during this period, and was the instigator of many of the most useful acts of the monarch. "History presents to us few more striking spectacles than that of the great monarch of the West, surrounded by the princes and princesses of his family and the chief personages of his brilliant court, all content to sit as learners at the feet of their Anglo-Saxon preceptor Alcuin in the 'school of the palace' at Aix-la-Chapelle. The course of study pursued by these august academicians embraced the seven liberal arts, as they were called—the *trivium* and *quadrivium*—with a special attention to grammar, psalmody, and the theory of music; and since Alcuin excelled in the exposition of Scripture, we may be sure that the mysteries of theological science were not forgotten in his lectures."

As his best gift to his people Charlemagne established a system of education throughout his dominions. As early as A. D. 789, by the advice of Alcuin, he addressed a circular letter to the bishops, commanding them to establish in their cathedral cities elementary schools for the free instruction of the children of free men and the laboring classes. Each monastery was required to maintain a school for the study of the higher branches of learning. Accordingly many seminaries were established in various parts of Germany and France, of which a number are still in existence. Learned men from all parts of Europe were encouraged by the monarch to settle in these as professors. These schools became so many refuges for them, and the wise plan of their founder made them sources of permanent and great blessings to the world, and especially to the districts in which they were situated.

In person Charlemagne was of heroic stature—tall, broad-chested and of majestic presence. He was gracious and graceful in his manner, and spoke with clearness and precision. He conversed fluently in Latin and understood Greek thoroughly. He was plain and simple in his habits. He dined off four dishes, and his favorite dish

was newly killed venison roasted on the spit. He was temperate in his drinking, and hated drunkenness. During his meals, his favorite works of history, and Augustine's "City of God" were often read aloud to him. A German by birth he was a German in all things to the day of his death. He was proud of his Teutonic blood, and exerted himself to preserve the ancient German customs, and especially the old heroic ballads, of his ancestors. He always wore the national Frankish dress, and never appeared in the Roman garb except upon rare occasions of state.

In A. D. 813 the emperor caused his only surviving son Louis to be crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle as his successor. Early in 814 Charlemagne himself died at the age of seventy-two, and was buried under the basilica at Aix-la-Chapelle. The great empire which he had built up needed a great man like himself to preserve it, and it fell to pieces for want of such a sovereign almost immediately after his death. Louis, known as "Le Débonnaire," or "the Gentle," was utterly unsuited to the government of so warlike an empire in such troubled times. Feeling his own incompetence, and hoping to preserve peace among his turbulent sons, he gave to each of them in A. D. 817 a share in his dominions. To Lothaire he gave the Rhineland and Italy, and associated him in the empire, Pepin received Aquitaine, and Louis Bavaria and the adjoining districts. A fourth son, named Charles, was born to the emperor by a second marriage. In 829 he made a separate kingdom for this son. The other three, thinking themselves wronged by this act, rebelled against their father, and so filled the remainder of his life with sorrow and disaster that the emperor, after suffering many reverses of fortune, retired to an island in the Rhine near Ingelheim, and died there in A. D. 840.

Upon the death of Louis, Lothaire took the imperial title. Pepin being dead, his surviving brothers Louis and Charles, called "the Bald," made war against him, and in 841 inflicted a severe defeat upon him at Fontenay. The war was brought to a close in A. D. 843 by the *Treaty of Verdun*, by which the brothers divided the dominions of their grandfather between them. Lothaire kept the imperial title, and received Italy and a long narrow strip of territory reaching from the Mediterranean to the North Sea. This kingdom was called

Lotharingia after him. The name was subsequently restricted to the country north of Burgundy. The region to the west of Lothaire's kingdom was given to Charles the Bald, and Louis received the Teutonic kingdom or Germany, stretching eastward from the Rhine to the Elbe, the Saal, and the Bohemian forest, and from the North Sea to the Alps. All three of the brothers were called Kings of the Franks. The emperor was accorded a certain pre-eminence by his younger brothers, but in reality they were independent of him.

The treaty of Verdun marks an important point in the history of Europe. With it the history of the Franks closes, and France and Germany take their places in the world as distinct and separate nations. The history of Lothaire's kingdom has already been related in connection with that of Italy.

In closing our account of the formation and disruption of Charlemagne's empire, we may properly devote our attention to the consideration of the general adjustment of European society which grew out of it, and which is known as *The Feudal System*.

The effort of Charlemagne was to form a strong centralized monarchy, and during his lifetime he was able to conduct his government upon this plan; but upon his death the whole system he had built up fell to pieces.

The entire empire was covered with the dominions of powerful nobles, who had been compelled to yield to the superior genius of the great emperor, but who rendered merely a nominal obedience to his weaker successors. Nor was this unnatural, for the nobles, and especially those in the more distant portions of the empire, found themselves obliged to depend upon their own exertions for the defence of their possessions against the enemies which threatened them—the Magyars, Saracens, and Northmen. They made war and peace upon their own responsibility, and thus there gradually grew up among them a spirit of independence, which rendered them dependent upon and loyal to the sovereign only in name. Many of the great princes—such as the Dukes of Saxony, Thuringia, Franconia, Bavaria, and Swabia, in the East; the Dukes of Aquitaine and Brittany, and Counts of Anjou and Paris, in the West; and the Marquises of Friuli, Ivrea, Spoleto, and Tuscany, in Italy—were wealthier and more powerful than their nominal sovereigns. They were the actual lords

of the cities and castles within their dominions. Still, as a common head was necessary, the sovereign was obeyed when he was strong enough to compel obedience, and the relations between the monarch and his nobles gradually adjusted themselves upon the plan now to be described.

In the Teutonic nations there were originally, as we have seen, three classes of people—the nobles, the common freemen, and the slaves. The nobles and the common freemen alone possessed the right to own lands or other property. Every free German who had helped his chief to conquer a country received as his share of the spoil a specified portion of the land, which was called his *allodium* or freehold, and which was absolutely his own property. The chief or king received a proportionately larger share than any of his followers. In the course of time the chief began to grant portions of his estate to his most trusted followers on condition of their being faithful to him in peace, and serving him in war. This grant was called a *feudum*, or *fief*, and land so held was said to be held by a *feudal tenure*. Unlike the freehold, which was a man's absolute property, the fief was not the holder's property by right, and could be held only so long as the conditions of the grant were faithfully complied with. The real owner was called the lord, suzerain, or liege, and the person to whom he granted the land was termed his vassal, liegeman, or retainer, or simply his man. Each year the vassal, kneeling before his lord, placed his hands between his, and swore to be his true man, to serve him faithfully, with life and limb, in peace and war, in consideration of the lands conferred. The lord, on his part, swore to grant protection to his vassal. As the great princes held their lands from the sovereign, as his vassals, so the lesser nobles and knights held theirs from the dukes, marquises, counts, and bishops, and these divided their fiefs among still humbler vassals. In course of time all the land became subject to feudal tenures. The owners of freeholds, unable to defend themselves against their more powerful neighbors, secured the protection of some powerful lord by resigning their lands to him and receiving them back as fiefs. By the close of the eleventh century the feudal system had spread over the whole of Western Europe, and there were scarcely any freeholds in existence. At first the feudal grants were made for a term of years or during the life

of the vassal, but in course of time they became hereditary. Upon the extinction of the family the estate reverted to the suzerain, who, in the case of the great vassals, was the king.

The vassal was bound to attend his lord in war and to fight under his banner. If the king were the suzerain, the vassal was obliged to attend his court upon occasions of ceremony. In time of war the king summoned the great vassals to take arms in his defence. These required their own vassals to assemble under their banners. The smaller nobles and knights made a similar demand upon the farmers and yeomen subject to them, each of whom was obliged to arm and equip himself at his own cost. Sometimes the feudal superior bore the cost of such equipment.

"The general introduction of these feudal or military tenures," says Freeman, "caused some important changes both in political and social matters. The change was made gradually, and it was slower in England than in most parts of the continent; but its general effect was to raise those men who held their lands by these new tenures above all others, and to thrust the poorer freemen lower down. In many countries they gradually sank into the state of serfs or villains; that is, men who are not actually slaves to be bought and sold man by man, but who are bound to the land and pass with it. Meanwhile the class of actual slaves was dying out, and the serf-class was increased both by the freemen who fell down to it, and by the slaves who were raised into it. Again the smaller freemen lost power in another way. The old Teutonic constitution, by which each freeman had a right to appear in the national assembly, could no longer be fully carried out when the Franks or any other people had got possession of a large country. All men could not come in their own persons, and it was not for a long time, not till the twelfth or thirteenth century, that any one thought of choosing a smaller number of men to speak and act on behalf of all, as is now done in the English parliament, and in most of the countries of Europe and America. From all these causes working together two chief results happened. First, in most parts of Europe the old national assemblies either quite died out, or were attended only by the chief men who could come in their own persons. Secondly, each province or district had a tendency to set up for itself."

The great mass of the people during the middle ages were serfs, not, as has been said, actually slaves, but attached to the land, and passed with it from owner to owner. Practically their condition was little better than that of slaves. They were at the mercy of their feudal lord, and as he was also the magistrate of his district, they had no redress against his tyranny. They were kept in ignorance, and had no incentive to strive for material prosperity, as their possessions might at any moment be taken from them by their feudal lord. The latter, secure in his strong castle, was usually a tyrant, and used his power to enrich himself at the expense of his helpless serfs.

Another evil of the feudal system was that it retarded the growth of nationality and of good government. A state was merely a confederation of distinct powers under a common head, the emperor or king, who could only enforce the law against disobedient vassals by making war upon them. The sovereign dealt only with the great nobles. The allegiance of the lesser vassals was due, not to the king as the representative of the state, but to the feudal lords, who stood between them and the state. Consequently the system resulted in the reign of lawlessness, or "fist law," as it was called, and the three centuries succeeding Charlemagne were a period of the deepest ignorance and misery throughout Europe.

As the royal power increased in the various countries of Europe, the power of the nobles was weakened, and the feudal began to give place to the modern system. The kings were the first to conceive the ennobling idea of nationality. By degrees they concentrated power in their own hands, and using it for the good of the whole country, drew to their support the mass of the people, whose champions they became against the nobles. Their decrees were enforced throughout their entire dominion, and a settled and definitely arranged *law*, proceeding from a common source, took the place of the mere *will* of the feudal chiefs.

The growth of the cities also contributed in a great degree to the destruction of feudalism. As these grew up they were endowed with certain important and exactly defined privileges, which secured and perpetuated their freedom. They thus attracted numerous inhabitants, and became in time the bulwarks of freedom against the power of the nobles. They became also the nurseries of the free middle class or com-

mons of Europe, the true soldiers of liberty, who finally destroyed the feudal system with its attendant and inherent evils, and by checking even the power of the kings, won for Europe its best system of government, limited representative monarchy.

The efforts of the church to obtain supreme power in spiritual affairs also contributed to break down feudalism. The clergy naturally allied themselves with the king against the nobles. They were the only protectors of the weak and poor against the great and powerful, and the spirit of their religion, as well as an appreciation of their true policy, prompted them to espouse the popular cause. Their own lands were free from molestation, and were, as we have shown, refuges for the oppressed, which were secure against even the most daring. They exerted themselves nobly to check the violence and brutality of the nobles. In A. D. 1033 the French clergy were able to impose a partial barrier to the private wars which caused so much suffering to all Europe. It was decreed that no armed expedition or warlike act should be engaged in between sunset on Wednesday and sunrise on Monday of each week, or on any holy festival which might occur during the remaining days. This respite was termed "the Truce of God," and was supported by the influence of the Catholic Church throughout Europe, the general expectation of the near approach of the end of the world inclining all classes to unite in obedience to the exhortations of the clergy.

CHAPTER III.

FROM THE TREATY OF VERDUN TO THE ACCESSION OF THE HOUSE OF HOHENSTAUFEN.

Reign of Louis the German—Contests with the Northmen—Hamburg Taken by them—Rise of the Archbishopric of Bremen—Charles the Fat Emperor—His Dominions—Arnulf King of Germany—Becomes Master of Italy and is Crowned Emperor—Louis the Child—Germany Ravaged by the Hungarians—Henry the Fowler Becomes the German King—Buys a Peace of the Hungarians—The War Renewed—Henry Defeats the Hungarians—Conquers the Wends—Reorganizes the German Army—Fortifies the Towns—Rapid Growth of the Towns in Population and Importance—Otto I. King—His Coronation—Rebellion of Prince Henry—Wars of Otto—The Mark of Schleswig—Spread of Christianity in North Germany—Marriage of Otto and Queen Adelaide of Lombardy—Otto Conquers Lombardy—Destroys the Power of the Hungarians—Otto Crowned Emperor—The Holy Roman Empire—Otto II. Emperor—Subdues the Revolts of his Vassals—Otto

III.—His Character—Makes Gerbert Pope—Henry of Bavaria Made King—Is Succeeded by Conrad of Franconia—Conrad's Able Reign—His Wars—Makes the Fiefs of the Empire Hereditary—Henry III.—Henry IV. Becomes King—Troubles of the Regency—Henry of age—Oppresses the Saxons—Revolt of the Saxons—It is Subdued—Quarrel of Henry with Gregory VII.—The War of Investitures Begun—Henry Excommunicated—His Reverses—Henry's Visit to Canossa—His Humiliation by the Pope—Rudolph of Suabia a Rival Emperor—Henry Sets Up an Antipope—Is Crowned Emperor—Death of Gregory and Rudolph—Rebellion of Prince Henry—Death of Henry IV.—Henry V. is Crowned Emperor.

THE first years of the reign of "Louis the German," as he is called in consequence of his being given Germany as his kingdom by the treaty of Verdun, were marked by frequent contests with the Northmen, a race of Scandinavian pirates who now began to inflict great suffering upon the European coasts. The fame of Charlemagne had kept them from molesting his territories, but after his death they assailed the exposed points of the coast with impunity, sailed up the navigable rivers, and ravaged the country along their shores. Louis exerted himself actively to protect his kingdom against their depredations, but could not prevent them from inflicting great suffering upon it. About A. D. 847 Hamburg was attacked and nearly destroyed by them. The archbishop fled to Bremen, which town became the seat of the northern archbishopric of Germany. Louis also made war against the Slavonians, over whom he claimed supremacy, and was frequently involved in hostilities with Charles the Bald, who was constantly seeking to extend his territory. He died at Frankfort in A. D. 876.

Louis was succeeded by his sons Charles, called the Fat, Carloman, and Louis. The latter two dying, left Charles the Fat sole King of Germany. He became King of Italy a little later, and was crowned emperor by the pope. In A. D. 884 he was also chosen King of the West Franks. With the exception of Burgundy, almost the whole of Charlemagne's empire was reunited in the hands of Charles the Fat. He had great trouble with the Northmen, who swarmed into his dominions, and especially into France. In A. D. 885 they laid siege to Paris, and were bravely resisted. The emperor, instead of marching to the relief of Paris, was weak enough to bribe them to withdraw; thus offering them a powerful incentive to return again. The imbecility

of Charles disgusted his people, and in A. D. 887 they deposed him. He died the next year. With his death the Carolingian empire fell to pieces, never to be reunited again. Italy and Burgundy were also separated from Germany, and remained so for a time. The usual title of the German sovereign was "King of the East Franks." East Francia, or Franconia, it must be remembered, was at this time only a part, although the principal part, of Germany. It embraced the basins of the Main, the Neckar, and the Lahn. Saxony and Thuringia lay north of it, and south and south-east were Alemannia, occupying what is now Suabia and Bavaria.

Charles the Fat was succeeded in Germany by Arnulf, the illegitimate son of his brother Carloman. Arnulf was a brave and active sovereign, and soon after he began his reign inflicted such a severe defeat upon the Northmen at Löwen, in A. D. 891, that they gave Germany but little trouble afterwards. In A. D. 894 Arnulf entered Italy to settle the quarrel between the claimants of the Italian crown. He made himself master of Italy, took Rome, and was crowned emperor by the pope. His power in Italy was merely nominal, and he soon returned to Germany, where he died, A. D. 899.

Arnulf was succeeded by his son, Louis the Child, whose short reign was full of misfortune. The Magyars, or Hungarians, a Turanian race, who had begun to settle the country formerly occupied by the Avars, and who had acted as the allies of Arnulf in his war against the Moravians, invaded Germany soon after the death of that king, and came back each year during the reign of Louis. Their army consisted of huge masses of cavalry, and as the Germans fought chiefly on foot, the Hungarians were victorious in nearly every battle. In addition to this, as Germany was an open country without fortresses or towns in which the people could take refuge, large numbers of them were slain, and many more were carried away captive by the Hungarians. Louis was powerless to resist these fierce enemies, who ravaged the country so thoroughly that they reduced it to almost a desert.

Louis died in A. D. 911, and the nobles of Germany conferred the crown upon Conrad of Franconia, a prince well suited to the government of a great people. His authority was disputed by some of the more powerful nobles, and especially by Henry,

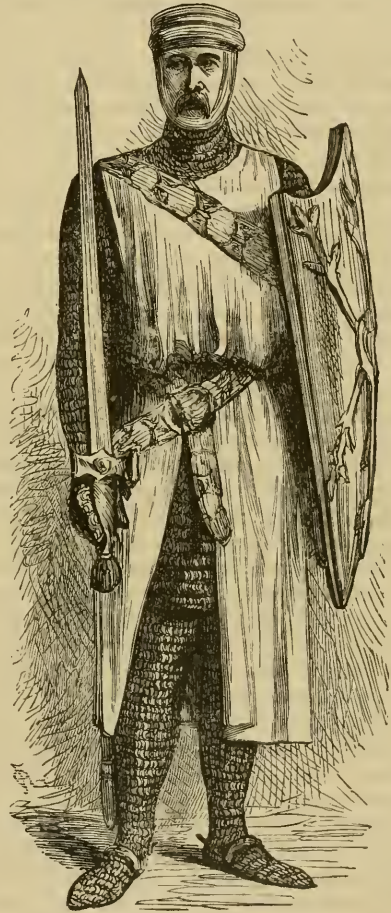
Duke of Saxony. In A. D. 918 Conrad received a mortal wound in a war with the Bavarians, and on his death-bed advised the nobles to bestow the crown upon his old adversary, Henry of Saxony, whom he esteemed the one most worthy of it.

In accordance with Conrad's wish the nobles made Henry king. He is usually called "the Fowler," from a tradition that the messengers who brought him the news of his election found him hunting among the Hartz mountains with his falcons. His elevation was at first opposed by the Dukes of Bavaria and Suabia, but they were at length obliged to submit. Henry proved himself the wisest and most vigorous sovereign who had reigned in Germany since the days of Charlemagne. Soon after he began his reign the invasions of the Hungarians were renewed. In 924 he captured one of their principal chieftains, and in order to ransom this prince, the Hungarians agreed to cease their invasions for nine years on condition that Henry should pay them tribute. At the expiration of this time they renewed the war, but Henry had spent the interval in preparing to meet them, and he inflicted upon them such a severe defeat that they did not again invade Germany during his reign. The grateful Germans bestowed upon their king the title of "Father of the Fatherland."

In the meantime, however, Henry had seized Lotharingia, which had formed a part of the western kingdom, and had given it to a duke who held it as a fief of the German crown. As such it remained for many centuries a portion of the German kingdom. Henry also carried on several wars with the Slaves. He compelled the Duke of Bohemia to become his vassal, and conquered the Wends, who occupied the country to the northeast of Germany. After his great victory over the Hungarians, Henry turned his arms against the Danes, who had begun the war by invading Saxony and Friesland. He drove them back into their own country, and wrested from them the region between the Eider and the Schlei, which in more modern times constituted the duchy of Holstein.

The internal administration of Henry was as successful as his wars. He reorganized the German armies, and, by training the nobles and their followers to fight as cavalry, placed his army in a condition to meet the Hungarians on terms of equality and to defeat them. Appreciating the importance

of towns as places of defence and refuge for his people against such an enemy as the Hungarians, Henry fortified the towns which already existed with strong walls, and built new towns which were provided with a similar protection. Many fortresses were also constructed by his order at important points, and around these towns gradually grew up. The king compelled every ninth freeman to reside in the nearest



HENRY THE FOWLER.

of towns as a builder or defender. The remaining eight freemen provided for his support and furnished the fortress with stores, by contributing one-third of their produce. All public meetings and festivities were required to be held in the towns, and they were made the seats of the courts of justice. In short, the king endeavored in many ways to encourage the growth of the towns, and the effect of his efforts con-

tinued long after his death. He thus became the founder of a new class—the *Burghers*—among the German people. The towns were naturally the centres of commerce, and the burghers became the trading class, and the natural opponents of the lawless nobles. Consequently in the struggles which afterwards took place between the nobles and the king, the burghers were the firm and useful friends of the sovereign, and thus rewarded the fostering care of Henry the Fowler.

Having established his power in Germany, Henry began to consider the propriety of making himself emperor, but his death, which occurred in A. D. 936, prevented this.

Otto I. succeeded his father. He was twenty-four years old, and had been married for several years to Edith, the daughter of the English King Edward, and granddaughter of Alfred the Great. The firmness of the royal power in Germany was well shown at the time of Otto's accession, by the part which the great dukes played in the coronation ceremonies. The Duke of Lotharingia acted as chamberlain; the Duke of Franconia as carver; the Duke of Suabia as cupbearer; and the Duke of Bavaria as master of the horse. Soon afterwards Thankmar, the half-brother of the king, aided by the Dukes of Franconia and Lotharingia, rebelled against him. Thankmar was slain in the early stages of the conflict, but his place was taken by Henry, the king's full brother, who aspired to the crown. Otto fought manfully for his throne, and at length succeeded in crushing the rebellion. Both of the rebel dukes were slain, and Prince Henry submitted, and was forgiven. In A. D. 945 the duchy of Bavaria became vacant, and was bestowed by the king upon Henry, who atoned for his past misconduct by his gallant attacks upon the Hungarians. Otto bestowed the duchy of Lotharingia upon Count Conrad, who afterwards married Luitgard, the king's only daughter. The king kept the duchy of Franconia in his own hands, and when Duke Hermann, of Suabia, died, in A. D. 949, Otto conferred that duchy upon his own son Ludolph, who had married Hermann's daughter. In this way all the great duchies passed into the hands of the king and those who were immediately dependent on him, and he thus became more powerful than his ancestors had been. Nor was Otto content to be king only in name. He was

the real ruler of his dominions, and had both the power and ability to compel his vassals to discharge their duties towards him.

Otto was a great warrior as well as a vigorous ruler. He gave aid to his brother-in-law, King Louis, of France, against the Dukes of France and Normandy. The Danes, who had won back the territory taken from them by Henry I., were driven to the north again, and Otto reoccupied the lands between the Eider and the Schlei, and erected the Mark of Schlesweig for the defence of that portion of the German border. The Duke of Poland was compelled to become the vassal of the German crown, as was also the Danish king or chieftain Harold Blue Tooth, and these countries were for the next two centuries regarded as fiefs of the German crown. The German border was advanced along the shores of the Baltic and between the middle Elbe and the Oder by the conquests wrested from the Slaves by the lieutenants of Otto. The king was careful to plant all the territories conquered by or for him with German colonies, and exerted himself to extend Christianity among the pagan tribes which were forced to submit to him. He founded many bishoprics for this purpose, among others the archbishopric of Magdeburg in A. D. 968.

In A. D. 951 the attention of Otto was suddenly called to another quarter. The beautiful widowed Queen Adelaide of Lombardy, being cruelly persecuted by Beranger II., because of her refusal to marry his son, appealed to Otto for protection. The German king, who was a chivalrous knight, at once went to her assistance, and, having been a widower for six years, married her. He defeated Beranger and took the title of "King of the Lombards," but allowed Beranger to retain Lombardy as his vassal.

A new rebellion now broke out, headed by Otto's son, Ludolf of Suabia, who was aided by Conrad of Lotharingia, the Archbishop of Mayence, and others. It cost Otto a sharp struggle to quell it, but he succeeded in doing so. He then made his brother Bruno, Archbishop of Cologne, Duke of Lotharingia, and Burchard, the son-in-law of Henry of Bavaria, Duke of Suabia. His eldest son, William, being already a priest, was made Archbishop of Mayence.

These troubles encouraged the Hunga-

rians to attempt once more the invasion of Germany. They entered Bavaria in strong force in A. D. 955. Otto took the field against them, and inflicted upon them a crushing defeat near Augsburg. This victory finally broke their power and put an end to their invasions of Germany; but it was dearly purchased, for among the slain were the bravest of the German leaders, including Conrad, who had sought by his gallant deeds to wipe out the disgrace of his treason. Until the thirteenth century the Hungarian kings were at least nominally subject to the German sovereigns.

The troubles in Italy grew greater during each succeeding year of Beranger's reign, and at length Pope John XII. urged Otto to put an end to the confusion by assuming the imperial crown. Otto went to Italy towards the close of 961, having first secured the succession of his young son Otto by causing him to be crowned King of Germany at Aachen. He caused himself to be crowned King of Lombardy at Pavia, and was crowned emperor by the pope at Rome, February 2d, 962. The three German kings who preceded him had been neither kings of Lombardy nor emperors, but from this time the German sovereigns claimed both the Lombard and imperial crowns as their right. As the emperor was regarded as occupying a much higher position and entitled to a more perfect allegiance than a mere feudal sovereign, the German kings naturally attached a much greater value to their imperial than to their royal dignity.

Thus was revived the "Holy Roman Empire," the name of which shows the hold which it had upon the imaginations and affections of the people of the time. "The connection of the German kingdom with the empire had many important results in Germany. Up to Otto's time there had been very little truly national feeling among the Germans. They thought of themselves as Franks, Saxons, Suabians, and so forth; hardly at all as a united people. But when their kings acquired the right to be crowned Roman emperors, they themselves became the imperial race. They began therefore to take pride in the common German name. A feeling of nationality was thus aroused, which never afterwards quite left the Germans even in their darkest periods. On the whole, however, Germany was not the better for its connec-

tion with the empire. By being emperors the German kings became involved in struggles with which their native kingdom had nothing to do. They thus wasted much German blood and treasure; and they lost almost all real power. Whilst they were absent, sometimes for years at a time, carrying on distant wars, their great vassals at home ruled as sovereign princes within their own dominions. When the emperors returned and tried to assert their rights as feudal kings, they too often found that they had spent nearly all their strength, and could do very little against a united and powerful aristocracy. Germany was thus kept from growing up, like France and England, into a firm monarchy, and was in the end divided into many practically independent small states."

Otto the Great spent the last years of his life almost entirely in Italy. In A. D. 967 he caused his son, Otto II., to be crowned emperor, and associated him in the government. In 972 the younger Otto was married to Theophano, the daughter of the Eastern Emperor Nicephorus. Otto I. then returned to Germany, where he died in A. D. 973.

Otto II. was now the sole emperor. He was nineteen years old, and as he had many of his father's best traits, especially his decision of character, he gave promise of being a sovereign of unusual merit, a promise which was blasted by his early death. Soon after he began his reign, Henry the Wrangler, Duke of Bavaria, and son of the Henry who had given Otto I. so much trouble, rebelled against him. The revolt was easily quelled, and Henry was deprived of his duchy and imprisoned. Harold, King of Denmark, then endeavored to throw off his allegiance, and after him the Duke of Poland did likewise, but both were obliged to submit. In A. D. 978 the French king tried to seize Lotharingia. Otto was at Aachen at the time, and barely escaped capture when that city was taken. He invaded France at the head of a large army and encamped on the heights of Montmartre before Paris, but the approach of winter compelled him to retrace his steps without having taken the city. Lothaire finally surrendered all claim to Lotharingia, and the matter was settled. Otto was always more an Italian than a German in sympathy, and in 980 went to Rome, never to return to his native land. He at-

tempted the conquest of southern Italy, but failed, as has been related. He died in A. D. 982.

The Empress Theophano was left regent for her son, Otto III., an infant, who had been solemnly proclaimed his father's successor by a diet at Verona before his father's death. Henry of Bavaria attempted a revolution, but the other great nobles all remained faithful to their allegiance, and Henry was glad to submit upon being allowed to retain his duchy. The regency of Theophano was able and popular. The frontiers were firmly maintained, and the internal affairs of the empire wisely administered. The empress bestowed the Mark of Austria upon Leopold I. of Babenberg, and that prince extended his possessions by conquering a portion of the Hungarian territory, and settling it with German colonists. The Babenberg family continued to rule Austria until its extinction in the thirteenth century.

Otto III. was carefully educated by tutors chosen by his mother. The most famous of these was Gerbert, Archbishop of Rheims, the most learned man of his day, under whom the young king made such marked progress that he was called "The Wonder of the World" by the courtiers. In A. D. 996, though scarcely sixteen at the time, Otto repaired to Rome with a large army, and was there crowned emperor by the pope. A little later, the reigning pontiff being dead, he made his tutor, Gerbert, pope, and he ascended the papal throne as Sylvester II. Otto was a German in name only. In feelings and tastes he was an Italian, and he dreamed a splendid dream of reviving the ancient glories of the Roman empire, and reigning with Rome as his capital. He died too soon to accomplish anything. He was poisoned in A. D. 1002 by Stephania, the widow of Crescentius, who had been shamefully treated by the Germans. He was buried, in accordance with his request, in the same tomb with Charlemagne, at Aix-la-Chapelle; and when the tomb was opened the body of the great emperor, clad in the imperial robes, was seen still sitting on its marble throne.

Henry, Duke of Bavaria, son of Henry the Wrangler, was made king in place of Otto III., A. D. 1003. The great nobles had acquired a state of semi-independence, and Henry II. had great difficulty in making them acknowledge his accession, but he at length succeeded in doing so. The

Duke of Poland had thrown off his allegiance and had conquered Bohemia and Silesia. After a struggle of fourteen years Henry compelled the Polish duke to do homage for his crown, and to surrender Bohemia and Meissen. Still the dependence of Poland upon Germany was simply nominal, and after Henry's death the Duke Boleslaw made himself King of Poland. In 1004 Henry became King of Italy, and in 1014 was crowned Emperor of the Romans. He was a generous friend to the church, and was afterwards canonized by the pope. He died in 1024. During his reign the title of the German kings, which had been that of "King of the East Franks," or "King of the Franks and Saxons," was changed to "King of the Romans." The German sovereigns did not become emperors till crowned by the pope, but Henry chose the new title in order to establish the principle that the German king, and no other, had the right to the imperial crown. The condition of Germany had also been greatly changed by this time by the rapid growth of towns which had sprung up chiefly around cathedrals, monasteries, fortresses, and the castles of the great nobles.

Upon the death of Henry II., Count Conrad, a Franconian noble, was chosen king by the nobles. He was descended from the Conrad who had married a daughter of Otto the Great, and was thus related to the Saxon dynasty. Conrad II. was forty years old, and his reign was marked by firmness and wisdom. He endeavored to increase the royal authority by diminishing that of the dukes, and in this was very successful. He made his son Henry, who gave promise of great ability, Duke of Bavaria, Suabia, and Carinthia, thus drawing these powerful duchies into an active support of the crown. Conrad was also the friend of the burgher class, and by favoring the cities won the support of the citizens, who regarded him as their natural protector against the nobles. In A. D. 1026 Conrad was crowned King of Italy, and emperor the next year. In 1032 he became King of Burgundy, the crown of which kingdom had been bequeathed to him by Rudolph III., whose niece, Gisela, was Conrad's wife. The crown of Burgundy after Conrad's death was thus a legitimate possession of the German kings, but owing to their weakness they were unable to assert their claim, and the greater part of the kingdom passed

into the hands of France. Conrad's title was disputed by Duke Ernst of Suabia, who believed himself the rightful heir of Burgundy, as he was the son of Gisela by a former marriage, but the nobles refused to follow him, and he was imprisoned by Conrad, but was afterwards set free. Conrad's reign was marked by many wars. He put down several rebellions of the Duke of Bohemia, repulsed an invasion of the Poles, and compelled the Polish King Miesko to do homage for his crown, and to surrender Lusatia, which Henry II. had granted to Boleslaw. He also conquered the Slavic tribes on the Oder and lower Elbe. King Stephen of Hungary attempted to invade Germany, but was defeated by Henry, the son of Conrad, A. D. 1031, and compelled to make peace. In 1037 Conrad made all fiefs in his dominions hereditary, by an edict, in which he decreed that no holder of a fief should be deprived of his lands except by the judgment of his peers. At first this law was enforced only in Lombardy, but at length it was extended to Germany also. It was a great gain for the minor vassals, as it freed them to a great extent from the power of their immediate lords, and made them dependent upon the king for protection. In A. D. 1039 Conrad died, and was buried at Spire.

Henry III., the son of Conrad, had been crowned German king and King of Burgundy during the life of his father. He inherited many of his father's best qualities, and by pursuing his policy of depressing the great princes and protecting the lower vassals in their rights, made himself the most powerful ruler that had reigned in Germany since Charlemagne. He bestowed the duchies of Bavaria, Suabia, and Carinthia, which he had received from his father, upon men who were willing to hold them as his dependent vassals. He pursued the same course with the duchy of Upper Lotharingia, and being opposed by Gottfried, the Duke of Lower Lotharingia, he defeated him, and forced him to retire into Italy. He exerted himself earnestly to maintain peace and the reign of law in his kingdom, and in A. D. 1043 proclaimed a general peace throughout Germany. He enforced this decree, and succeeded in almost abolishing the private wars of the nobles. He was a liberal friend of learning, and sought to reform the abuses of the church, in order that it might be fit for its great mission. He treated the pope as his

dependent, and deposed several of the pontiffs whom he considered unfit for their august station, and set up others in their place. He appointed Germans only to the papal throne, and had his life been prolonged would doubtless have made it impossible for the pontiff to pursue such a course as that of Gregory VII. towards Henry IV.. In 1046 he was crowned emperor by Clement II., a German pope of his own creation. Henry conducted several wars against the Hungarians, and compelled their king to do him homage for his crown. He died in 1056, in the fortieth year of his age.

Henry left his crown to his son, Henry IV., a child of six years. Agnes, the mother of the young king, became regent, and her weak government enabled the great nobles to regain nearly all the power of which Conrad II. and Henry III. had deprived them. In 1062 Hanno, Archbishop of Cologne, compelled Queen Agnes to resign the regency, and obtained possession of the young king's person, intending to make himself his guardian and the real ruler of the kingdom. Adalbert, Archbishop of Bremen, a powerful prelate, jealous of Hanno, sought to take Henry from him, and finally succeeded, as Henry thoroughly disliked the stern Hanno and preferred the gay and lively Adalbert, who, however, proved a bad preceptor, for under him Henry's education was neglected, and he became imbued with low tastes, and grew to be wayward and passionate. Adalbert taught him to regard the German dukes as his natural enemies, and implanted in him a bitter hatred of the Saxons.

In 1065 Henry was declared of age, having reached the age of fifteen. He made Goslar his capital, and retained Adalbert as his most trusted adviser. He began his reign by treating the Saxons with great and needless harshness, and acted as if he intended to add the Saxon duchy to the royal lands. The next year the princes compelled Adalbert to leave the court, but Henry persisted in the mistaken course he had begun. Otto of Nordheim, a powerful Saxon count, had been made by Queen Agnes Duke of Bavaria. Henry, without just cause, deprived Otto of his duchy, and bestowed it upon Guelph, son of the Margrave Azzo of Este, who had married a descendant of the ancient Bavarian house of Guelph. Otto thereupon began to plot with Magnus, the son and heir of the Duke

of Saxony. Their plot being defeated, both were imprisoned. Otto was soon set free, but Henry kept Maguus a captive. Upon the death of the Saxon duke, the nobles of that duchy repaired to Goslar, and demanded that Henry should set their young duke free. The king's refusal to grant this demand brought on a war, in which he was at first worsted and obliged to take refuge in Worms, which city remained faithful to him. The Saxons, elated by their easy success, allowed themselves to be led into a series of outrages which shocked the entire nation, and produced such a reaction that Henry was soon able to take the field against them with a large army, and to defeat them in a bloody battle near Langensalza, A. D. 1075. Promises were made the Saxons in the king's name, which induced them to submit. Henry soon broke faith with them, displaced many of their nobles, and gave their lands to vassals of his own. In strange contrast with this conduct, he restored to Otto of Nordheim his Saxon lands, and made him administrator of the duchy of Saxony, notwithstanding Otto was his most determined enemy.

The king was greatly mistaken in supposing that he had quieted the disturbances in his kingdom by this arrangement. A feeling of profound discontent pervaded the whole of Germany. Rudolph of Suabia, Otto of Nordheim, and a host of other enemies were only watching an opportunity to throw off the royal authority, and Henry's tyranny had left him few friends in any class of the people. Gregory VII., who now filled the chair of St. Peter, had been watching for an opportunity to humble the German king and advance the papal authority, and he sagely availed himself of this crisis as the time best suited to his purpose. During the war with the Saxons he had addressed a letter to Henry, commanding him to abstain from bestowing ecclesiastical offices, which practice the pope termed simony. Henry, unable to engage in any new quarrel, promised compliance with this demand, but upon the settlement of the Saxon rebellion he refused to be bound by his promise. This brought matters to a crisis, and the pope resolved to strike a decisive blow. The promise of Henry had been wrung from him at a moment when he was engaged in a life and death struggle for his crown, and it was quite natural that he should disregard it,

not only for this reason, but because the greater part of the lands in Germany was held by churchmen, and had Gregory's wishes been carried out these spiritual princes would have owed allegiance to none save the pope. Gregory, on the other hand, had an equally great interest at stake. By humbling Henry he would not only settle the question of investitures, but would establish the principle upon which he meant the future policy of the Roman see should rest—that the pope, as the vicar of Christ, was above all earthly rulers and entitled to give laws to them. In 1075, upon Henry's refusal to comply with his demand concerning investitures, Gregory summoned the king to appear before him at Rome to answer to charges brought against him by the Saxons and others. Henry regarded this as an act of priestly interference, and refused to comply with the order. He summoned a synod of the German bishops at Worms, in 1076, and caused Gregory to be deposed. The pope met this step by a sentence of excommunication against Henry. He declared him no longer king, and absolved his subjects from their allegiance to him. This was a bolder move than Henry had looked for. Had he been a popular king, strong in the support of his people, he might have defied the pope, and it is doubtful whether Gregory would have ventured upon such an assumption of power. But, as has been said, the discontent of the Germans was widespread and deep, and the pope well knew that the nobles would eagerly seize upon any pretext to rebel against their unpopular king. The result justified his expectation. A few remained faithful to Henry, but the larger party sided with his enemies, who openly accepted the papal sentence, and Germany was thus divided into two hostile factions. The struggle which ensued is known as the "War of the Investitures." It had a deeper significance, and was really a contest between the papacy and the empire for supremacy.

The princes opposed to Henry met at Tribur to elect a new king. Henry, realizing the extent of his danger, endeavored to influence the assembly, and succeeded so far that it was agreed that Henry should be given a year to make his peace with the pope, but that if at the end of that time the sentence of excommunication was not removed a new king should be chosen. In this emergency Henry resolved to throw

himself upon the generosity of Gregory, ignorant that no such quality existed in the breast of the stern pontiff. His journey to Italy, his humiliation, and the refusal of Gregory to do more than remove the sen-

proclaimed Rudolph of Suabia king in the place of Henry. Henry immediately returned to Germany, where he was joined by a large party who had been exasperated by the shameful treatment inflicted upon



HENRY IV. AT THE CASTLE OF CANOSSA.

tence of excommunication on condition of his submitting to be tried for his crimes, have been related. Gregory also insisted that Henry should not resume the exercise of his authority as king in the interim.

In March, 1077, the discontented nobles

their sovereign by the pope. The cities were especially loyal to him. He drove Rudolph out of Suabia into Saxony, where he was bravely defended against the king by Otto of Nordheim. In 1080 Gregory recognized Rudolph as king, and Henry

retaliated by summoning a council of German bishops, who set up Guibert, Archbishop of Ravenna, as pope, with the title of Clement III. In the same year Rudolph was killed in a great battle near Zeitz, and Henry's cause gained ground so rapidly that the struggle was soon decided in Germany in his favor. In 1081 he found himself strong enough to leave the direction of the war to Frederick of Suabia, his son-in-law, to whom he had given Rudolph's duchy, and who thus became the founder of the great house of Hohenstaufen, while he himself entered Italy and attacked the pope, the fomenter of the strife. The events of his Italian campaign have been related. He was crowned emperor at Rome by Clement III., and succeeded in driving Gregory into exile, where he died. Henry returned to Germany in 1085, and gave his personal supervision to the struggle with the Saxons, who, after attempting to set up two other kings after Rudolph's death, became weary of the war, and in 1087 submitted. Henry had learned wisdom from experience, and as he treated them with leniency, peace was restored for a while in Germany.

The successors of Gregory VII. diligently pursued the course he had begun, and Henry found that the death of his old antagonist did not end the struggle with Rome. They stooped to the shameful task of inciting his own children to rebel against him. In 1091 Pope Urban II. and the Countess Matilda induced Henry's eldest son Conrad to take arms against his father. Conrad was supported by the cities of Lombardy, and was crowned King of Italy, first at Monza, and then at Milan. He did not live long to enjoy the fruits of his rebellion. In 1099 the emperor caused his second son Henry to be crowned German king, and the younger monarch swore a solemn oath not to attempt to seize the government during the life of his father. In 1104 the younger Henry, influenced by the evil counsels of Pope Paschal II., violated his solemn oath and rebelled against his father. Gaining the advantage of the emperor, the younger Henry treated him with great cruelty, and forced him to sign his abdication at Engelheim, in 1105. The Duke of Lotharingia endeavored to restore the emperor, but Henry IV., broken down by his reverses, died in 1106. Even after death the hostility of the popes followed him. His body was refused Christian

burial, and lay in a stone coffin in an unconsecrated chapel at Spire for five years. It was only in A. D. 1111, when the sentence of excommunication was removed, that it was properly buried.

Henry V., though he had profited by the assistance of the church during his rebellion, had no sooner become king than he became as determined a champion of the right of investiture as his father had been. Proceeding to Rome, he compelled Pope Paschal II. to crown him emperor in 1111. Upon the return of the emperor to Germany the pope renewed all his former demands, and the war of investitures broke out afresh. It was settled, as has been related, by the Concordat of Worms, the details of which have been given in the Italian history of this period. This settlement produced a peace between the emperor and the church, but during the remainder of his life he was constantly engaged in contests with his rebellious nobles, especially in northern Germany. He died in A. D. 1125, and, as he left no children, the Franconian dynasty ended with him.

CHAPTER IV.

FROM THE REIGN OF CONRAD III. TO THE ACCESSION OF CHARLES V.

Lothaire King—Revolt of the Nobles—Conrad of Suabia Made King—His Quarrel with the Duke of Saxony—Establishment of the Margravate of Brandenburg—Berlin Founded—Conrad takes Weinsberg—Devotion of the Women—The Guelfs and Ghibellines—The Crusades—Conrad Joins the Second Crusade—His Death—Frederick Barbarossa—Settles the Affairs of Germany—The Duchy of Austria Established—Frederick Goes to Italy—Is Crowned Emperor—His Great Reign—Revolt of Henry the Lion—He is Conquered and Deprived of his Dominions—Asks Pardon of the Emperor and is Forgiven—Barbarossa Joins the Crusade—His Death—The Legend Concerning him—Reigns of Henry VI. and Otto IV.—Frederick II. Becomes German King—Frederick II.—Evils Caused by his Absence from Germany—He Puts a Stop to Private Wars—The Moguls—Quarrel of Frederick with the Pope—Anarchy in Germany—William of Holland—The Interregnum—Rudolph of Hapsburg Chosen Emperor—Restores the Royal Authority—Albert of Austria King—Christianization of Prussia—Conquests of the Teutonic Knights and Knights of the Sword—Königsberg Founded—Loss of Power by the German Kings—The Choice of Emperor Confided to Electors—Growth of the Towns—The Free Towns—The Femgerichte—Progress of Germany in the Arts—The Minnesänger—Albert I. Murdered—Henry VII.—His Reign and Character—Reign of Louis IV.—His Quarrel with the Pope—His Errors—Revolt of his Subjects—Death of Louis—Rise of the Swiss Cantons—The Oath of Rütli—Victory of the Swiss over the Austrians

at Morgarten—Reign of Charles IV.—Persecutions of the Jews—The Golden Bull—Reign of Wenceslaus—An Era of Disorder—Austria Renews her Efforts to Conquer the Swiss—Battle of Sempach—Siegsmund Emperor—Council of Constance—The Reformation in Bohemia—John Huss—His Martyrdom—The Religious War—The Elector of Brandenburg—Reigns of Albert II. and Frederick III.—Rapid Decline of the Royal Power—Victories of the Swiss over the Burgundians—Maximilian I. Marries Mary of Burgundy—The “Imperial Chamber”—Wars with the Swiss—Germany Divided into Circles—The Aulic Council.

LOTHAIRE, Duke of Saxony, was chosen German king at the death of Henry, but his accession was resisted by Conrad and Frederick of Hohenstaufen, and in order to oppose them successfully, Lothaire made such concessions to the pope that Innocent II., who crowned him emperor, ventured to declare him a vassal of the Holy See. Lothaire was supported by Henry, Duke of Bavaria, surnamed “the Proud,” who married the emperor’s daughter, and was given the duchy of Saxony and the Italian lands of the Countess Matilda. He was thus the most powerful noble of Germany. In 1134 Frederick and Conrad of Suabia yielded to Lothaire, and in 1138 the emperor died.

The crown was claimed by Henry the Proud, the emperor’s son-in-law, but the nobles conferred it upon Conrad of Franconia, the head of the Hohenstaufen family. Conrad’s first act was to strike a blow at the power of his rival, Henry the Proud. He ordered him to resign Saxony, claiming that it was unlawful for him to hold two duchies at one time. Henry refused, and both Bavaria and Saxony were taken from him. The king gave Bavaria to Leopold, Margrave of Austria, and Saxony to Albert of Anhalt, called “the Bear,” to whom Lothaire had granted the Northern Mark of Saxony. Henry took up arms to maintain his position, and he and his partisans gathered to themselves the Guelfic or papal party. The cities, which dreaded the interference of the pope in German affairs, sustained the king. Henry the Proud died during the contest, and left his quarrel to his son Henry the Lion. Conrad, in the interests of peace, induced Albert the Bear to relinquish the Saxon duchy, which he conferred upon Henry the Lion. To reward Albert the king erected his mark into a separate government, which subsequently took the name of the Margravate of Bran-

denburg, from the town of that name captured from the Wends by Albert. Albert’s territories embraced northern Saxony, Lusatia, Salzwedel and Brandenburg. In the last-named district he laid the foundations of a city called Berlin, and about the same time Leopold of Austria founded Vienna. Count Welf, the brother of Henry the Proud, refused to accept this settlement, and continued the war in Bavaria. In 1140 he was defeated by Conrad, and obliged to take refuge in the town of Weinsberg, which yielded to the king after a long siege. According to the tradition, Conrad determined to destroy the town and put the garrison to the sword, but agreed to allow the women to leave and gave each permission to carry away what she could. The next morning the gates were opened, and a long line of women passed out, each carrying her lover or her husband on her back. Conrad was so touched by this sight, that he spared both the town and its inhabitants.

During this siege were heard for the first time the war cries which were destined to resound throughout Europe. The royal army took for their battle shout “Waiblingen,” the name of a village which had been the home of the Hohenstaufen. The rebels shouted “Welf,” the name of their leader. These terms were afterwards applied to the two great parties which divided the empire and are best known to us in their Italian form of Guelf and Ghibelline, the former being applied to the partisans of the pope, the latter to the imperial party.

There was now a lull in German affairs, and the people of that country were free to give their attention to the great subject which was eliciting the efforts of all Christendom—the Crusades. Conrad III. joined the Second Crusade in 1147 with an army of 70,000 men. He was accompanied by his nephew Frederick, Duke of Suabia, his old enemy Count Welf, and the flower of the German chivalry. He won a name for bravery and daring in the East, but accomplished nothing definite. He returned home in two years broken down in health. Soon after his return Count Welf headed a new rebellion, but was defeated. Conrad then prepared to go to Rome to be crowned emperor, but died before he could begin his journey, A. D. 1152.

In accordance with the advice of Conrad, the nobles conferred the crown upon his nephew, the Duke of Suabia, who became

king as Frederick I. He was subsequently known as "Frederick Barbarossa," from his red beard. He was thirty-one years old at the time of his election to the throne. He was a man of generous and noble nature, and of strong and imperious will, so that though he was devotedly loved by his friends, he was bitterly hated by his enemies, for he could be harsh and stern in asserting his rights. He was sincerely anxious to put an end to the quarrel between the Guelfs and the Ghibellines, and he was fortunately in a position to do so. His mother was a sister of Henry the Proud, and Henry the Lion was his cousin and personal friend. He bestowed upon Henry, who was already Duke of Saxony, the duchy of Bavaria, and thus made him the most powerful prince in Germany. To compensate Henry, Margrave of Austria, for relinquishing Bavaria, Frederick erected the Austrian territory into a separate and independent duchy, to be held as a fief of the crown, and made it hereditary in the female as well as in the male line.

Having thus settled the affairs of Germany, Frederick went into Italy, where the imperial power was almost dead. He was crowned emperor in 1154 by Pope Adrian IV. The events of his career in Italy, the struggle between the emperor and the cities, and the settlement of the quarrel, have already been related in the Italian history of this period. The first successes of Frederick in Italy made him the most powerful ruler in Europe. The Kings of Poland and Hungary did him homage for their crowns, and the emperor rewarded the faithful services of the Duke of Bohemia by erecting his duchy into a kingdom. Frederick married Beatrice, the heiress of the Free County of Burgundy, and thus added this part of Burgundy to the German dominions.

As a German ruler Frederick I. was great and wise. He did not entirely succeed in putting down private war, the great curse of his country, but imposed a check upon it by requiring those who engaged in it to give three days notice to their enemies. All who refused to do this were to be treated as robbers. Frederick also encouraged the growth of the cities by granting them important privileges, and making some of them free. So judicious and popular were his acts that he drew to himself the support of all Germany. Even the prelates were loyal to him. Strong in the love and sup-

port of his people, the emperor was able to bid defiance to the popes in Germany. There was no opposition for the pontiff to intrigue with. A papal legate once ventured to assert in the diet that the empire was dependent upon the Holy See, and raised such a storm of fury that his life was saved only by the personal interposition of the emperor. Had Henry IV. been such a sovereign, the sad story of his reign would have remained unwritten.

Henry the Lion for a long time enjoyed the friendship and favor of the emperor, and grew in prosperity. He founded several new cities, one of which was Munich, and greatly assisted the growth in wealth and power of Hamburg, Lübeck, and others. His success made him haughty and arrogant, and his overbearing manner at length aroused the jealousy of the other princes. In 1175, having become angry with the emperor for his refusal to bestow upon him the city of Goslar, Henry took a mean advantage of him. He abandoned Frederick in the most trying period of his struggle with the Lombard cities, and returned home with his troops. This defection led to the defeat of the imperial army at Legnano, from which field Frederick escaped with difficulty. The emperor is said to have begged Henry on his knees not to desert him. He returned to Germany in 1178, resolved to punish Henry for his defection. He therefore summoned him to appear before the Diet at Worms. Henry refused, and with the sanction of the diet, was put by Frederick to the ban of the empire, and his lands were declared forfeited. A portion of East Saxony was given to Bernard of Anhalt, the son of Albert the Bear; a part of West Saxony was given to Philip, Archbishop of Cologne, who was also granted ducal rights in these possessions; and the duchy of Bavaria, greatly weakened by the separation of Styria, was conferred upon Otto of Wittelsbach. Henry, who vainly sought to retain his possessions by force of arms, was at length obliged to submit, and in 1181 he came to Erfurt, where Frederick was holding a diet, and humbly asked pardon of the emperor. Frederick, greatly moved by the sight of his old friend so humbled, frankly forgave him. He could not restore his duchies, but allowed him to retain Brunswick and Lüneburg. Henry agreed to live for three years at the court of the King of England, Henry II., whose daughter he had married. Dur-

ing his sojourn in England his wife gave birth to a son, from whom the present reigning family of England is descended.

Frederick Barbarossa was now an old man, but his martial ardor was unquenched. In 1189, at the head of a large army, he embarked in the Third Crusade. He did not live to reach Palestine, but was drowned in crossing the Calicadnus, or Cydnus, in Cilicia, in June, 1190. So strong was the affection which the German people bore him that the news of his death was received at first with incredulity, and then with an outburst of profound sorrow. In after years the people looked back to him as their greatest champion, and there arose a tradition that Barbarossa was not dead, but was merely plunged with his knights into an enchanted sleep in a cavern of the Kyffhauser Berg (or hill) in Thuringia. There, armed *cap-a-pie*, they would remain until the ravens should cease to fly around the mountain, when they would wake and restore Germany to her ancient greatness.

Frederick was succeeded by his son, Henry VI., who, at the time of his father's death, was engaged in attempting to quell another rebellion of Henry the Lion, who had returned from England. Peace was made soon after Barbarossa's death, and Henry VI. hastened to Italy, where he was crowned emperor. As he had married Constance, heiress of the King of Sicily, a few years before his father's death, he became King of Sicily in 1194. He was obliged to engage in a sharp struggle for the establishment of his claim. His cruelties plunged southern Italy into great commotion, as has been related. He endeavored to make the German crown hereditary, and made flattering offers to the princes to win their consent to the change, but the majority refused to sanction the innovation. Henry died suddenly in Sicily in 1197, leaving a young son named Frederick. The claims of the young prince were set aside, and two kings were chosen by the rival parties, which again divided Germany. The Ghibellines elected Philip, the brother of Henry VI., while the Guelfs put forward Otto, the second son of Henry the Lion. But for the interference of the pope, who threw the support of the church on the side of Otto, Philip would have been successful. As it was, the remainder of the century and the first years of the next were spent in the struggle between the rivals.

The murder of Philip, in 1203, by a private enemy, removed every obstacle from the path of Otto IV., who was generally recognized as king throughout Germany. The next year Otto was crowned emperor by Pope Innocent III., who, however, finding that Otto was not disposed to be his tool, turned against him, and called upon the German princes to elect the young King Frederick of Sicily as his successor. The papal order was obeyed, and Otto, after an ineffectual struggle, retired to a private station, in which he remained until his death. In 1215 Frederick II. was crowned king at Aix-la-Chapelle, and in 1220 emperor at Rome.

For the next fifteen years Frederick was absent from Germany, and the story of this period properly belongs to Italian history, in which connection we have related it. Upon leaving Germany he induced the princes to elect his young son, Henry, King of the Romans, and made him regent of the kingdom under the guardianship of Engelbert, Archbishop of Cologne. The absence of the emperor encouraged the nobles to make the authority of the regent merely nominal, and at the same time to increase their own power to such an extent that they became almost independent of the crown. Private wars sprang up once more in all parts of Germany, and robbery and violence again settled down upon the country. As Henry grew up to manhood he gave constant evidence that he did not inherit the noble qualities of his father. He was mean, rash, and violent, and, encouraged by the long absence of his father, openly declared to the princes assembled at Boppard in 1234, his intention to seize the throne of Germany. Frederick came back to Germany the next year, and easily put down the rebellion. Henry tried to poison his father, and was imprisoned in Apulia, where he remained for the balance of his life.

During this visit to Germany the emperor married the Princess Isabella, the sister of Henry III. of England. He held a great diet at Mayence, and there attempted to put a stop to private wars by declaring all such strifes unlawful except in cases where justice could not be obtained. He also established an "imperial tribunal" for the trial of all causes not affecting princes of the empire. This was a good beginning, but he did not remain in Germany long enough to complete his work. In 1236 he

returned to Italy, where the struggle with the pope needed his presence, and left his son Conrad in charge of the German kingdom.

A few years later Germany narrowly escaped a great struggle for existence. Vast hordes of the Moguls, of whom more hereafter, had burst into Europe from Asia. Upon their entrance into Germany in 1241, they were met in Silesia by Henry of Liegnitz with a very inferior force. Henry was slain and the Silesian army was cut to pieces; but so terrible were the losses which their resistance inflicted upon the victors that the latter were appalled, and, abandoning their project of invasion, turned southward and passed into Hungary.

The events of Frederick's struggle with the popes have been related. The true cause of the hostility of the latter was, as we have said, the refusal of Frederick to acknowledge the authority of the pope as superior to that of the emperor. In Germany the spiritual princes sided with the pope, and drew to their aid many secular lords who wished to increase their own power at the cost of the imperial authority. There remained to the emperor, however, a strong following of nobles who loved their country better than their party, and the cities, now growing rapidly in wealth and power, sustained him with scarcely an exception. The pope and his party set up Henry of Thuringia as emperor, but he was never fully acknowledged, and died in A. D. 1247. The pope then, after some trouble in finding a candidate who would accept the place, caused William of Holland, a youth of twenty, to be proclaimed emperor. William's chief strength lay in the north, where he allied himself with the Welfs, but in southern Germany Conrad IV., the son of Frederick II., was supreme. Upon the death of Frederick in 1250, Conrad succeeded him on the German throne; but, owing to the unscrupulous efforts of the pope, Germany was in such a state of anarchy that the new king found it a hard task to accomplish anything. The imperial authority had become merely nominal before Frederick's death, and private wars and the violence of the nobles made both life and property unsafe in all parts of the kingdom. Conrad had a hard fight for his crown, and died in 1254, in the midst of the struggle, and with him ended the Hohenstaufen line in Germany.

The death of Conrad left William of Holland the sole King of Germany. He was

not regarded as of much importance by either party, and his death in 1256, in a war with the Frisians, left the electors free to choose a new sovereign. There was no one who had any especial claim to the crown, but the chief candidates for it were Alfonso, King of Castile, and Richard, Earl of Cornwall, brother of King Henry III. of England. Both bribed the electors, and each was elected by his own party. Alfonso never set foot in Germany, but Richard came and was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, but he visited Germany only three times after this, and took no interest in its affairs. This period is known as the "Interregnum," and constitutes one of the darkest portions of German history. There was no government in the land, the law was dead, and violence prevailed everywhere. The great and petty nobles degenerated into mere marauders and shameless robbers. No traveller was safe unless he journeyed under the protection of a strongly armed escort, and only within the strong walls of the towns did industry venture to engage in its accustomed pursuits. This sad state of affairs was ended by the death of Richard of Cornwall in 1271. Until now the pope had purposely held aloof from German affairs, as the vacancy in the empire increased his own importance and prevented the rise of a rival. It now became evident to his holiness that the state of anarchy which prevailed in Germany was injurious to Rome as well as to that country, inasmuch as the papal revenues could not be collected without the assistance of the royal power. At last Gregory X. notified the electors that if they did not choose a proper king for Germany, he would himself appoint one. The result of this threat was the election of Rudolph, Count of Hapsburg, a district of southern Suabia. The choice was a wise one, for Rudolph was a brave and determined man, fully alive to the evils from which Germany was suffering, and anxious to end them. Being a submissive son of the church, he gained the support of the Holy See by a solemn pledge not to interfere with Charles of Anjou in Sicily or in Tuscany, and somewhat later he recognized the territorial sovereignty of the pope by surrendering to Nicholas III. the claims of the empire over Rome and the bequest of the Countess Matilda. Thus strengthened, he applied himself with vigor to the task of restoring order in Germany.

Ottocar, King of Bohemia, had added to

his native kingdom Austria, Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola, and as he had hoped to be elected German king, he refused to acknowledge or do homage to Rudolph. Rudolph marched against him in 1276, and compelled him to resign Austria and the neighboring lands and do homage for his crown; but upon his withdrawal Ottocar renewed the war, and was beaten and slain in the great battle of Marchfield, on the right bank of the Danube, in 1278. A little later, Rudolph, with the consent of the princes, bestowed Austria, Styria, and Carinthia upon his sons Albert and Rudolph. Later still he gave Carinthia to Count Meinhard of Tyrol, whose daughter Albert had married. The other lands were given to Albert alone. Thus was securely laid the foundation of the future greatness of the house of Hapsburg.

As has been said, Rudolph came to the throne when the royal authority had been almost entirely destroyed. His task was to restore it and re-establish the supremacy of the civil law. He succeeded in this, and proved himself an able and judicious ruler. He won back many of the crown lands which had been unjustly seized by the nobles during the Interregnum, though he had great difficulty in accomplishing this. He revived the laws and judicial system of Frederick II., and at the head of his army visited every part of the kingdom to put down the lawless nobles and to exterminate robbers. In Thuringia alone twenty-nine nobles convicted of robbery were executed, and sixty-nine castles and strongholds were destroyed. The people were warmly attached to the king, who showed himself their best friend by his good government and protection of them. In September, 1291, Rudolph died at the age of seventy-four.

Rudolph had endeavored just before his death to secure the election of his son Albert, but had been unsuccessful, as the nobles regarded the revenues of the kingdom as inadequate to the support of two sovereigns. At his death the electors chose an insignificant noble named Adolph, Count of Nassau, king. This was due to the influence of Gerhard, Archbishop of Mayence, Adolph's cousin, who hoped to make him a mere puppet in his hands. Adolph could accomplish little against the nobles, who opposed him and sought to limit his powers. He formed an alliance with Edward I. of England, who supplied

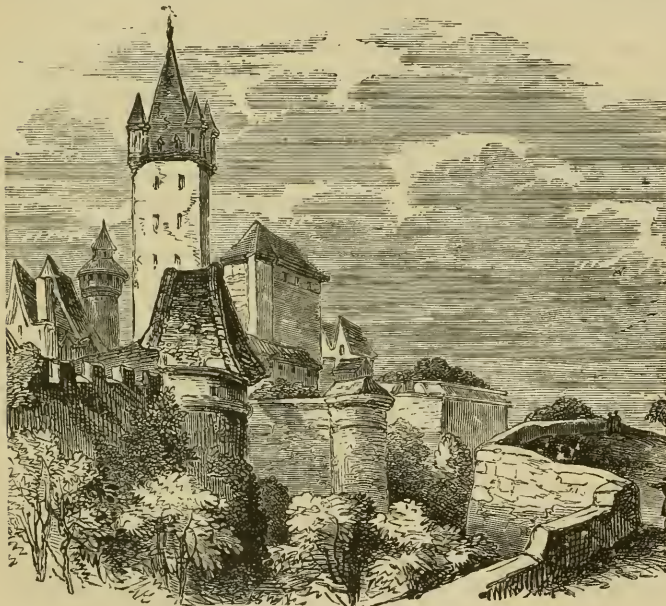
him with a large sum of money on condition that he should go to war with France. Adolph used this money to buy Thuringia from its worthless landgrave, Albert the Degenerate, but Albert's two sons refused to surrender their inheritance, and were sustained in their refusal by their vassals and many of the princes of the empire. Gerhard, finding Adolph less submissive than he had hoped, urged the electors to dethrone him. This they did, and chose as king Albert, Duke of Austria, the son of King Rudolph. Adolph resisted this action and was slain in a battle near Worms in 1298. Albert was then chosen at a second election, and was formally crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle.

The thirteenth century was a period of the deepest importance to Germany. For some time the Germans had been steadily gaining ground to the eastward. Brandenburg had been won in the previous century, and since then lower Silesia, Holstein, Mecklenburg, and Pomerania had been gained and Germanized by the slower process of colonization. A monk named Christian began, about the beginning of the thirteenth century, to preach Christianity in Prussia. The Prussians resisted him by force, as they still clung to their pagan belief, and a crusade was proclaimed against them. About the year 1230 the Teutonic Knights came to Prussia and began its conquest. In 1237 the Knights of the Sword, another German order which had already conquered Livonia, became united with the Teutonic Knights. Many warriors from all parts of Europe joined the Teutonic order to assist in the conquest of Prussia. In 1245 the city of Königsberg was founded, and named in honor of Ottocar, King of Bohemia, who had taken part in the crusade, and by 1260 the greater part of Prussia was conquered. A great revolt of the natives took place in this year, but it was put down after a sharp struggle. Colonies of Germans were settled in the land, and in 1309 the Teutonic order made Marienberg its head-quarters, and held the country in subjection while it became gradually Christianized and Germanized.

The absence of the emperors from Germany, and the long struggle with the popes, resulted in the serious loss of power by the German kings. The emperors, by neglecting their duties as German kings and exerting their chief efforts for the empire, allowed the princes to seize one after another of the

privileges of the crown, and render themselves practically independent. Indeed, the Hohenstaufen kings deliberately parted with many of their most valuable German rights in order to gain some immediate advantage as emperors. Denmark, Poland, and Hungary became independent kingdoms, and Burgundy was slowly absorbed by France. The German princes had always refused to allow the crown to be made hereditary, and this century witnessed a change in the mode of electing the sovereign. This privilege was lodged in the hands of seven electors, three of whom were spiritual and four secular princes. The spiritual electors were the Archbishops of Mayence, Co-

had before been dependent upon them became independent. That is, they managed their affairs in their own way, but acknowledged the supremacy of the emperor. Hence they were called free imperial towns. The deputies of these towns at length formed a third college in the diet, and voted on an equality with the electors and princes. The free towns usually supported the authority of the king, but were almost always at war with the nobles and bishops. For their mutual protection against these enemies they organized confederations or leagues among themselves. The principal of these were the Rhenish League, which embraced about seventy free towns, and the Hanseatic



CASTLE OF NUREMBERG.

logne, and Treves; the secular electors, the Duke of Saxony, the Margrave of Brandenburg, the Rhenish palgrave, and the King of Bohemia. These electors held a rank above all the other princes and formed a separate college in the diet. The pope claimed the right, which was usually acknowledged, to revise the action of the electors and to reject any candidate whom he did not regard as suitable. The German king had the right to the imperial crown, which could be bestowed only by the pope. Hence the claim of the pontiff.

The growth of the towns was also another important feature of this period. As the great duchies fell into decay, the towns that

League, which was organized about 1241 by Lübeck and Hamburg for the protection of their commerce. This confederation eventually embraced about eighty cities, and maintained fleets and armies. It possessed the entire trade of the Baltic and a large part of that of the North Sea. Its forces frequently defeated the northern kings, and the sovereigns of England and France accorded to it a marked degree of respect. For a long time the Hanse towns carried on an active commerce with England, the export trade of that country being entirely in the hands of the Hanseatic merchants. These were called by the English

Easterlings, from which is derived the word *Sterling*.

Germany was without a uniform code of law. In this century the laws of Saxony were codified by Eike of Repgord, and those of Suabia by a Suabian priest. In Westphalia a singular class of courts of justice arose out of the violence of the times. They took the name of *Femgerichte*. "They met in open day, generally under some tree; but the proceedings of the court were kept secret. No case was taken up which was not punishable by death. If an accused person was condemned, he was hanged at once. Any one who did not appear after having been summoned three times was

assumed to be guilty, and sooner or later he was certainly put to death. In those lawless times the oppressed were glad to find a court anywhere which gave them some chance of obtaining justice. Appeals began therefore to be made to the *Femgerichte* from all parts of Germany. In the end men of free birth, to whatever part of the country they belonged, were allowed to become free judges, and many thousands of all classes availed themselves of the privilege. For a considerable time the *Femgerichte* did real good; for nobles who cared nothing for king or emperor trembled when they received the summons of some free judge to appear at a certain date before a secret tribunal. But as the power of the *Femgerichte* increased, they were often reckless and unjust; and many, especially the clergy, cried out loudly against them. They lost nearly all their power in the sixteenth century, but traces of them long afterwards existed among the Westphalian peasantry."

The era of the Hohenstaufen witnessed a marked revival in architecture in Germany, of which the Cathedral of Cologne, though still unfinished, is a noble specimen. It was also the time when the *Minnesänger*, or Love Singers—those noble poets of the Middle Ages—flourished. Several of the Hohenstaufen emperors—Frederick II. in particular—were poets, and the period is splendidly illustrated with the names of Heinrich von Valdeck, Wolfram von Eschenbach, Gottfried von Strassburg, and Walter von der Vogelweide.

King Albert I. was the first of the Austrian kings of Germany. He lacked all the qualities by which Rudolph, his father, had won the affections of the German people, and sought to maintain his power by a rule of exceeding harshness. He was also more selfish than his father, and his chief care was to advance the fortunes of his own house. He attempted to gain possession of Bohemia, and of the county of Holland. His son Rudolph was King of Bohemia for a few months, but it at length passed from his family. He also tried to dispossess Frederick, the Landgrave of Thuringia, of his territory, but was unsuccessful. He succeeded only in arousing the hostility of those whom he sought to beggar for his own benefit. One of these was his nephew John, who, with four other nobles, fell upon him near the Castle of Hapsburg and killed him, May 1st, 1308.

Albert's unpopularity prevented the choice of the electors from falling upon any member of his house, and Henry, Count of Luxemburg, was chosen King of the Romans. With the consent of the Bohemian states, he married his son John to Elizabeth, the granddaughter of King Ottocar, and thus John became King of Bohemia, the crown of which long remained in his family. In 1310 Henry VII. went to Italy, where he was received with joy by all parties. The Ghibellines greeted him as their natural lord, and the Guelfs were favorably inclined to him by the pope, who dreaded the extension of the French influence over all Italy. Still some of the Guelfic cities, led by King Robert of Naples, resisted him. Henry was crowned King of Italy at Milan in 1311. Florence resisted him, and the Neapolitan king threw a garrison into Rome. Henry compelled these to withdraw into the Leonine city, where they held the Church of St. Peter against him. Thus cut off from the cathedral, he was crowned in the Church of St. John Lateran, on the 29th of June, 1312. He now attempted to crush the resistance of the Guelfs, and gathering an army from Germany and Italy, moved upon Siena. The fatal air of Rome had so undermined his strength that he died on the march, August 24th, 1313. His body was carried to Pisa and buried there. He was the last of the emperors who exercised real authority in Italy, and had he lived he would undoubtedly have restored to the empire something of its former power and greatness. He was eminently fitted for such a task, for he was a man of great abilities and of noble character. Dante drew from him the character of his ideal sovereign in his treatise on "Monarchy," and his enemy, the Guelf Villani, wrote of him: "He was a man never depressed by adversity, never in prosperity elated with pride or intoxicated with joy." The successors of Henry were not emperors in the sense in which that title can be used to describe him. They were chiefly the leaders of a faction of the Italians, and some of them were never crowned emperor.

The electors were divided in their choice of a successor to Henry VII., and two kings were set up in Germany—Louis, Duke of Bavaria, being chosen by one party, and Frederick, Duke of Austria, the eldest son of King Albert, by another. Louis was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, and Frederick

at Bonn. Each king appealed to the sword to support his claims, and a bloody civil war ensued, which lasted ten years. The towns as a general rule supported Louis, while the nobles sustained Frederick. The decisive battle of the war was fought near Mühldorf in 1322. The Austrians were defeated, and Frederick was taken prisoner by Louis, who confined him in the Castle of Transnitz, in the upper Palatinate. The troubles of Louis were not yet ended, however, for Duke Leopold, the brother of Frederick, and a number of other princes, continued the war, refusing to accept their defeat as final. They were greatly encouraged by the sanction of their cause by Pope John XXII., who had quarrelled with Louis because he had assumed the title of King of the Romans without the papal sanction. Louis haughtily answered that he owed this dignity to the electors and not to the pope. The pope thereupon excommunicated him, and placed all those parts of Germany that supported him under an interdict. Louis, anxious to restore peace to the country, gave Frederick his liberty in 1325, upon the promise of that prince to resign all claim to the crown. Duke Leopold and the pope refused to be bound by this promise, but Frederick remained faithful to it. In September, 1325, Louis and Frederick agreed to reign conjointly. Frederick took little interest in public affairs, however, and died in 1330, leaving Louis IV. sole king.

In 1327 Louis went to Italy to secure the Italian and imperial crowns. The events of his visit have already been related. He remained there for three years. He was crowned emperor at Rome by two excommunicated bishops, and finally by an anti-pope, called Nicolas V., set up by him in the place of John XXII., whom he declared deposed. Notwithstanding this act, Louis endeavored to effect a reconciliation with Pope John and with Benedict XII., his successor. It was the policy of France to keep the empire weak and divided, and as the popes were, while at Avignon, merely the tools of the French kings, Louis' efforts were unavailing. Had he been a great sovereign, the hostility of the pontiff would not have occasioned him any trouble, for the Germans were prepared to support him in spite of the pope, whose interference in their affairs they had learned to dread. The cities were especially hostile to the pontiff, who was thus deprived of the popular

sympathy and support which had made his predecessors strong in Germany against Henry IV. and Frederick II. At the diet which was held at Frankfort in 1338, the states sustained the cause of the emperor against the pope. The electors met at Rense, on the Rhine, and all, with the exception of King John of Bohemia, who was jealous of the house of Bavaria, and a bitter enemy of Louis, united in a solemn declaration that the Emperor or King of the Romans derived his power and title solely from the choice of the electoral princes, and not in any sense from the pope. This declaration, being accepted by the diet and proclaimed by the emperor, became a part of the law of the land. It was of the highest importance, as it established by law the independence of the empire.

Louis now occupied the most favorable position that an emperor had held for many reigns. The whole nation was ready to sustain him, and the conflict between the empire and the papacy seemed on the point of resulting in favor of the former. The folly of the emperor now cost him all that his prudence had won for him. His desire to increase the wealth and power of his own family led him to disregard the rights of others. He had made his son Louis Margrave of Brandenburg in 1323, and he was anxious to bestow the Tyrol upon him also. He could not legally do this, as the Tyrol belonged to Margaret Maultasch, who was already married to a son of King John of Bohemia. Louis did not hesitate, however, to dissolve this union, and to grant Margaret a dispensation to marry his son Louis. Now marriage in all Catholic countries is regarded as a sacrament, and the pope alone can dissolve it, or grant a dispensation for a second marriage during the life of a first partner. Louis in attacking a right which all regarded as vested solely in the pope, shocked the consciences of his subjects, and alienated many of his best friends. His open efforts to enrich his own family aroused the jealousy of the nobles. This feeling was increased when, upon the death of William IV. of Holland, Louis gave the counties of Holland, Seeland, and Hennegan in fief to his own son William. The electors at their meeting in 1344 gave significant utterance of their discontent. In 1346 Pope Clement VI. pronounced the deposition of the emperor. Louis had so thoroughly alienated his people that the electors gladly seized upon this action of the

pope as a pretext to rid themselves of a distasteful sovereign. They accordingly elected Charles, Margrave of Moravia, a son of King John of Bohemia, to the German throne. Louis refused to submit, and prepared to maintain his claim to the throne, but died suddenly in 1347.

Until the reign of Louis IV. the German kings had usually given up their hereditary lands upon receiving the crown. Louis retained his lands, and his course was adopted by all his successors, for the reason that the revenues of the German kingdom being insufficient to maintain the royal dignity, the kings were obliged to depend upon their private resources. The effect of this change was bad, as it made the king more careful of his own immediate possessions than of the kingdom at large.

In the reign of Louis IV. occurred a series of events which were destined to exercise considerable influence upon the future history of Germany and of Europe. Lying in the Alpine districts on the borders of Germany, Burgundy, and Italy, were three small states called Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden. They were German-speaking members of the empire, but had always maintained their freedom, paying allegiance to none but the emperor or king. Like many other districts of the empire, these three forest states formed a league for their mutual protection. This league doubtless existed from a very early time, but the earliest written compact between them is dated August 1st, 1291. The Counts of Hapsburg held large estates within their limits, and proved themselves dangerous and troublesome neighbors. When these nobles became Dukes of Austria they began to seek to extend their authority over the whole district. Early in the fourteenth century their aggressions became so marked that a more determined resistance was inaugurated by the cantons. In 1308 three of the leading men, one from each canton, met by agreement at Rütli, and swore under the open heaven to live and die for the defence of their country. Each chose ten associates from his own canton, and the thirty-three repeated the oath of freedom, and then began to prepare the people for resistance. Albert, Duke of Austria, was then King of Germany, and had for some years been using his great power to complete the subjection of the cantons to his authority. His oppressive measures now drove the mountaineers to desperation, and they seized all

his bailiffs and officers, and drove them from the country. Albert at once marched against them, but was slain on his march. His son Leopold, who succeeded him as Duke of Austria, marched into the mountains and inflicted a terrible punishment upon the peasants. This aroused the cantons to a determined resistance, and in 1315 Leopold took the field against them. He was overwhelmingly defeated in November of that year by a few hundred mountaineers in the narrow pass of Morgarten. The flower of the Austrian nobility perished in this battle, and the duke himself escaped with difficulty. The forest cantons from this time maintained their position as distinct members of the empire. Henry VII. and Louis IV. showed the league great favor, and secured it against a renewal of the efforts of Austria. During the reign of Louis it was joined by the city of Luzerne; and soon after his death the cities of Zürich, Zug, Glarus, and Berne joined it in the order named. The league, thus strengthened, increased its power by seizing or buying, whenever occasion offered, the lands of the neighboring nobles. The confederacy took the name of the "Old League of High Germany;" and its members were known as *Eidgenossen*, or "Confederates." By degrees the name which properly belonged to the canton of Schwyz spread over the whole country, which came in course of time to be called *Switzerland*, the people being known as *Swiss*.

The election of Charles IV. to the German throne was not accepted at first by Bavaria, but after some ineffectual efforts to set up another king, the Bavarians ceased their opposition, and in 1349 Charles was left without a rival. He was then crowned king a second time, at Aix-la-Chapelle, and in 1355 went to Rome and was crowned emperor. Ten years later he was crowned King of Burgundy, at Arles, 1365. Soon after his reign began Germany was afflicted with the terrible plague which we have seen ravaging Italy. It broke out in 1349, and swept away hundreds of thousands in a short time. The Jews were popularly believed to have caused it by poisoning the springs and rivers, and were butchered in great numbers by the ignorant and fanatical people. The king and the church were obliged to take severe measures to compel the multitude to cease their persecution of the unoffending Jews.

As King of Bohemia, Charles was a good

sovereign to his own people. He greatly increased the territories of that crown. His wife brought him the upper Palatinate as her dowry, and he united all Silesia and lower Lusatia to Bohemia, together with the mark of Brandenburg, which he gained from the house of Bavaria. Under his vigorous rule Bohemia flourished as she had never done before. He made Prague, the capital of the kingdom, a splendid city, and founded a university there which soon became famous throughout Europe. As a German king and emperor, he deserves no praise. He neglected the empire and lowered the imperial authority in both Germany and Italy in order to further his private interests. He sold the few remaining lands of the crown, and sold honors, titles, and privileges of all kinds for money to the highest bidder. In 1356 he granted a charter known as the *Golden Bull*, which definitely fixed the manner of electing the German king. He made the number of electors seven. Of these the King of Bohemia was declared the first secular elector. The Archbishop of Mayence was made convener of the electoral college, which was to meet at Frankfort. The king was to be chosen by a majority of the electoral votes, and was to be crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle. The electors were placed beyond the authority of the German crown by being declared absolute sovereigns within their own territories. Unless they refused to dispense justice, there was to be no appeal from their courts. Their persons were declared sacred. Thus the authority of the German crown was almost entirely destroyed; in future the German sovereign was to be little more than a mere figure-head of the state, the princes of the empire being thus made more powerful than the sovereign himself.

In 1378 Charles IV. died, and was succeeded by his son Wenceslaus, who had been chosen King of the Romans by the electors, in 1376. Wenceslaus was a bad sovereign to both Bohemia and Germany. His nature was coarse, his temper savagely cruel, and he was addicted to low pleasures. He neglected Germany to such an extent that the country fell into a confusion nearly equal to that which prevailed during the Interregnum. The nobles became utterly lawless, and the towns, in order to defend themselves against them, were compelled to form leagues similar to those of the Swiss confederates and the Rhenish and Hanse towns. Sometimes nobles were found among

the members of these leagues, but as a rule they formed societies hostile to the towns. Prominent among these were the societies of St. George, St. William, the Lion, and the Panther. Had Wenceslaus been a great king he might, by placing himself at the head of the leagues of the towns, have won back many of the lost privileges of the German crown, and have re-established the royal authority upon a more enduring basis; but he cared nothing for Germany, and was too indolent to make the attempt.

During this time Austria had been growing rapidly in strength and importance. In 1335 Carinthia was added to it, and in 1369 the Tyrol, which had been bequeathed to him by Margaret Maultasch, passed into the hands of the Austrian duke. These countries were always after this a part of the Austrian dominions. The reigning duke, Leopold, the nephew of him who had fought at Morgarten, now resolved to take advantage of the confusion prevailing in Germany to conquer the Swiss, who had received into their league some towns which owed him allegiance. He was joined by a number of princes and nobles who were jealous of the growing power of the league. Leopold marched into Switzerland at the head of several thousand splendidly armed troops, many of whom were knights. The confederates, 1,400 in number, were posted on the heights of Sempach. Finding it impossible for his horsemen to force the narrow mountain pass, the Austrian duke ordered his knights to dismount and storm it on foot. They were rapidly enclosing the confederates with a living wall of steel, when one of the Swiss leaders, Arnold von Winkelreid, resolved by the sacrifice of his own life to save his country. Throwing himself upon the Austrian line with all his force, and crying, "I will open a way to liberty," he seized as many spears as he could gather within his arms, and received them in his breast, and fell dead. This bold action shook the Austrian front at this point, and the Swiss made an impetuous charge upon the gap opened by their heroic countryman. The movement was successful. The Austrian line was broken and thrown into confusion, and a glorious victory followed for the patriots. Upwards of 650 nobles, and several thousand men-at-arms lay dead upon the field, Leopold himself being among the slain, A. D. 1386. Two years later, the people of Glarus won another victory over the Austrians at Nä-

fels. These victories compelled Austria to respect the independence of the Swiss states, which were also allowed to retain the towns that had voluntarily joined their league.

Wenceslaus proved so bad a king that in 1400 the electors deposed him. They were instigated to this action by Boniface IX., one of the two rival popes who at this time divided Christendom. Wenceslaus wished to depose both pontiffs, and Boniface struck this decisive blow at him in retaliation.

The electors chose as the successor of Wenceslaus, Rupert of the Palatinate, a prince in every way worthy of the honor. Wenceslaus was still supported by a strong party, and the friends of Rupert failed to render him proper assistance, consequently he was king in but little more than name. He died in 1410.

The electors were now divided between two candidates for the throne. One party chose Jobst, Margrave of Moravia, and the other Siegmund, or Sigismund, Margrave of Brandenburg and King of Hungary. Siegmund was also a brother of Wenceslaus. Jobst died soon after, and at a new election, Siegmund was unanimously chosen. He had shown some good qualities, and great hopes were entertained of him by the Germans, but as we shall see, he disappointed all these expectations. When Siegmund came to the throne the schism in the Roman Church was at its height. Three popes divided the allegiance of Christendom, and as a natural consequence in the struggle between them many abuses and a great deal of corruption crept into the church. The practice of simony was revived, and the moral character of the priests was at the lowest ebb. A general council had met at Pisa in 1409, but had failed to accomplish anything, and Siegmund induced Pope John XXIII. to assist him in summoning another, which he meant should put an end to the divisions in the church.

This council met at Constance, in 1414, and remained in session until 1418, and put an end to the schism by deposing all three of the rival popes and electing another, Martin V., who was universally acknowledged pope. Siegmund took an important part in the labors of the council. When Pope John XXIII., after promising to resign, fled from Constance to Schaffhausen in Switzerland, and took refuge in the castle of the Duke of Austria, Siegmund put the Duke



JOHN HUSS LECTURING IN THE UNIVERSITY OF PRAGUE.

Frederick to the ban of the empire, and ordered the Swiss confederates to make war on him. Berne at once attacked her old enemy, and was soon joined by the other cantons. Frederick was obliged to make peace, and Siegmund restored the bulk of his estates to him. The Swiss refused to surrender what they had conquered. Among their conquests was Aargau, in which was located the Castle of Hapsburg, the hereditary seat of the Austrian dukes.

The Council of Constance was also the

occasion of displaying the weakness of Siegmund's character, and of covering his memory with deserved infamy. A strong party had grown up in Bohemia, which denied many of the doctrines of the church. It began in the university of Prague, which was divided into four *nations*—the Bohemian, the Saxon, the Bavarian, and the Polish. Each nation possessed one vote in the management of the affairs of the university. The writings of the English reformer, John Wycliffe, had been brought to Prague in the latter part of the fourteenth century, and his views had been adopted by John Huss, a professor of philosophy in the university. Through the teachings of Huss, the views of Wycliffe were generally accepted by the Bohemians, whose acknowledged leader Huss became. The other nations rejected these views, and many disputes, marked by a growing anger, ensued between them and the Bohemians. In 1409 Wenceslaus, who was still King of Bohemia, though he had lost the German crown, changed the constitution of the university, giving three votes to the Bohemian nation and only one to the others. This arbitrary action caused the withdrawal of the German students and professors, nearly all of whom went to the university recently founded at Leipzig. The reformers were now supreme at Prague, and Huss was made rector of the university. He assumed a bolder tone, and began to condemn in stronger terms the abuses of the church and the doctrines which he held to be erroneous. His boldness drew upon him the hatred of the clergy, but in spite of this he went on with his teaching and grew bolder in his denunciations of the errors of the church. At length the pope excommunicated him, and placed the city of Prague under an interdict until it should consent to expel him. The Bohemians, however, refused to expel him, for he not only taught them what they regarded as a purer faith than that of Rome, but his principles were fast arousing in them a national spirit, which all men saw would sooner or later result in the political independence of the state, if not checked. When the Council of Constance assembled, Huss was summoned to appear before it to answer to the charge of heresy. Siegmund gave him a safe conduct to go and return from Constance, and in opposition to the wishes of his friends, Huss set out for that place, meeting everywhere along the route with evidences of the sympathy of the peo-

ple. When he reached Constance, the pope received him graciously. "If John Huss had slain my own brother," said the pope, "I would not permit, as far as is in my power, any harm to be done to him in Constance." A few days after this Huss was seized and thrown into prison. He was examined by the council, but refused to recant his doctrines, and was burned at the stake on the 6th of July, 1415. The emperor, in spite of his solemn promise of safety to the martyr, made no effort to save him. He was no doubt willing that the reformer, whose teachings tended to separate Bohemia from the empire, should be put to death. In 1416 the council found another victim in Jerome of Prague, who had first brought Wycliffe's writings into Bohemia. He was burned at Constance.

The martyrdom of Huss and Jerome aroused a fierce storm of indignation in Bohemia. This feeling was deepened into hatred by the efforts of the council and of Pope Martin V. to suppress the heresy of the Bohemians, as they termed the religious views which had been taught by Huss. In 1419 Wenceslaus died, and Siegmund claimed the Bohemian crown. Instead of seeking to conciliate the Hussites, he arrayed them in a determined body in opposition to him by ordering a general crusade against them. War broke out at once, and lasted for fifteen years. It was one of the fiercest struggles known to history, and caused great suffering to the country. The first leader of the Hussites was John Zisca, one of the ablest generals of any age. He lost his eyesight during the war, but his followers retained their confidence in him, and he led them from victory to victory. He died in 1424, but was succeeded by Procopius, a blind priest, who proved an equally formidable enemy to the empire and the Roman Church. Driving back the armies which sought to conquer Bohemia, the Hussites invaded the adjoining states of Germany, and laid the country waste. Siegmund, finding that force was useless, undertook to negotiate with the Hussites, and his action was sustained by the Council of Basle, which met in 1431. The Hussites were now divided into two parties—the Calixtines, also called Utraquists, who were willing to return to the church upon being allowed to receive the cup in the Lord's supper, and the Taborites, who desired a total separation from the church. The Calixtines, being granted

their demand, returned to the church in 1433, and the Taborites, regarding this action as treachery to the general cause, attacked their former associates, but were decisively defeated near Prague in 1434. Siegmund then ratified the agreement that had been made between the council and the Calixtines, and was acknowledged as King of Bohemia. He did not maintain his compact, for upon being crowned he sought to put down the Calixtines and restore the Roman worship. In 1433 Siegmund was crowned emperor. He died in 1437. In 1415 Frederick, Landgrave of Hohenzollern, bought of the king the mark of Brandenburg. He received the electoral dignity with his new dominions. Brandenburg ever afterwards remained in possession of the Hohenzollern family.

Siegmund was succeeded as King of Bohemia and Hungary by his son-in-law Albert, Duke of Austria. In 1438 Albert II. was chosen King of the Romans, and from his reign until the failure of the male line the house of Austria held the imperial throne without intermission. His brief reign of two years was marked by wisdom and prudence. He died suddenly in a campaign against the Turks in 1439.

Upon the death of Albert the Duke of Styria was chosen king, as Frederick III. He was a man of gravity and thoughtfulness, but he lacked energy. The revenues of the German crown were too small to allow him to act with decision in anything, and the various states comprising the empire looked coldly upon any measure which did not directly affect themselves. He supported Pope Eugenius IV. in his quarrel with the Council of Basle, while the German states upheld the council. A quarrel soon broke out between the pope and the electors, and Frederick, with the aid of his secretary, Æneas Sylvius, had the good fortune to reconcile the German princes with the pope. His friendship for Pope Nicolas V. induced him to conclude with that pontiff the concordat of Vienna, by which the pope received back nearly all the powers he had been stripped of by the Council of Basle. Frederick hoped by this friendship to win back some of the lost authority of the German crown; but it was too late. The princes of the empire had advanced too far on the road to practical independence to be turned back, and the alliance between the German king and the pope, which would have accomplished such

great results in the time of the last king of this name, was now powerless to effect anything of importance for either party.

In 1452 Frederick was crowned Emperor at Rome. He was the last emperor crowned at Rome, and the last but one who received the crown from the pope. Upon ascending the imperial throne he confirmed to the house of Austria the title of archduke, and granted to it many privileges, raising the archdukes to a dignity second only to that of the electors. Frederick was very anxious to join in the crusade proclaimed by the pope against the Turks, who had taken Constantinople, and were threatening Germany. The German states, however, were unwilling to sustain the emperor in this effort. They were not only skeptical as to the danger from the Turks, but were fearful of the alliance between the emperor and the pope, and did not wish to strengthen it. The task of driving back the Turks thus fell upon the Poles and Hungarians. In 1456 the Turks, who had laid siege to Belgrade, were driven back by the Hungarians under the command of their regent, John Huniades.

In 1457 Ladislaus, who had succeeded his father Albert II. as Duke of Austria and as King of Hungary and Bohemia, died. Frederick attempted to seize the Austrian dominions, but was obliged to yield upper Austria to his brother Albert, and was left with lower Austria alone. To atone for this disappointment, he then tried to possess himself of the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary, but failed in each attempt. The Bohemians bestowed their crown upon George Podiebrad, who had already ruled the kingdom as regent; and Matthias Corvinus, son of John Huniades, was elected King of Hungary. Frederick's efforts to oppose these elections were in vain, and he was ultimately compelled to recognize both these sovereigns. Even in lower Austria he had great difficulty in preserving his crown. In 1462 the people of Vienna rebelled against him, and were assisted by Albert, the emperor's brother. Frederick was compelled to surrender lower Austria, with Vienna, to his brother for eight years. Albert, who soon became as unpopular as Frederick himself, died in 1463, and by his death Frederick came into possession of all the Austrian lands except the Tyrol. The power of the German crown had sunk so low that the emperor was unable to enforce his commands, and his interference in German affairs simply produced trouble without

his being able to accomplish anything for himself or for the country. Consequently his reign is marked by numerous internal wars which caused great suffering to the German people. In 1471 George Podiebrad, King of Bohemia, died, and Frederick again attempted to obtain the crown of that country. The Bohemian states elected Ladislaus, the son of Casimir IV., King of Poland. Frederick and Pope Paul II. induced Matthias Corvinus, King of Hungary, to attack Bohemia, but then, growing jealous of the great power of the Hungarian king, Frederick turned against him and transferred his assistance to Ladislaus. Matthias overran Austria, and forced the emperor to fly from Vienna. He kept possession of Austria until his death in 1490, when Frederick recovered his estate, and renewed his effort to become King of Hungary. Failing in this he sought to obtain the Hungarian crown for his son Maximilian, but the Hungarians, jealous of Austria, bestowed their crown upon Ladislaus, King of Bohemia. In 1493 Frederick died, after a reign of over fifty-three years. Some time previous to this he had relinquished the government of both Austria and Germany to his son Maximilian, who had been elected German king in 1486.

During the reign of Frederick, the Eidgenossen, or Swiss confederates, made a rapid advance in power and importance. Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, was one of the wealthiest and most powerful princes of the time. He was lord not only of the duchy of Burgundy, but also of the free county of Burgundy, and the greater part of the Low Countries. Not satisfied with these dominions, he wished to found such a kingdom as the old Lotharingia by securing the entire region between France and Germany, between the North Sea and the Mediterranean. In 1476 he became involved in a war with Switzerland, the quarrel between the two states having been fomented by Louis XI. of France. The Swiss, who now began to be called altogether by this name, fought with more than their accustomed bravery in this struggle, and inflicted two crushing defeats upon Charles, one at Morat and the other at Granson, in 1477. A few months later Charles went to war with the Duke of Lorraine, who, with the aid of the Swiss, defeated him in the battle of Nancy, in which Charles was slain. These great victories raised the re-

noun of the Swiss to a high pitch, and though they still remained a part of the empire did much towards arousing in them a feeling of national life.

Maximilian I. was a man of greater daring and ability than his father. During the life of Frederick III. there had been negotiations for the marriage of Maximilian with Mary, the daughter of Charles the Bold of Burgundy, but they had been broken off. Upon the death of Charles, Mary bestowed her hand, of her own will, upon Maximilian, and thus brought him the rich inheritance of the Low Countries and the free county of Burgundy. The duchy of Burgundy had been seized by the King of France, who claimed it as a lapsed fief, at the death of Charles the Bold without male heirs. In 1482 Mary died, leaving two children, Philip and Margaret. Philip was heir to the territories of his mother, but during his minority these were ruled by Maximilian, who was also master in his own right of all the possessions of the Austrian crown, and Duke of Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola, and Count of Tyrol. He was thus one of the most powerful sovereigns that had ruled Germany for many years.

When Charles VIII. of France invaded Italy in 1494, Maximilian, who feared that the French king was aiming at the imperial crown, was anxious to oppose him. In order to secure the assistance of the German states he summoned a diet, which met at Worms in 1495. This famous diet struck a death-blow to the private wars that had cursed Germany for so long. A perpetual public peace was proclaimed, and it was declared that no one possessed the right to levy war on his own account. The German princes urged the king to create a tribunal by which all the quarrels that had formerly been settled by arms might be tried, and though Maximilian was greatly averse to surrendering any of his royal rights, yet with the hope of securing the aid of the diet against the King of France, he consented to the formation of a court called the *Imperial Chamber*, which was to consist of a judge and sixteen assessors, the judge to be appointed by the king, and the assessors by the German states, and confirmed by the king. Persons refusing to submit to the jurisdiction of the court were to be put by it to the ban of the empire. Provision was made for the expenses of the court by the assessment of a common tax upon all Ger-

many. Maximilian was always hostile to this court, and threw every obstacle in its way. It continued to exist until the close of the empire, but without possessing much real power or doing much good. The Swiss league refused from the first to submit to the Imperial Chamber, and also offended Maximilian by aiding the French in their

practically independent from the time of this treaty.

Finding himself unable to accomplish much at home, Maximilian I. attempted to interfere in the affairs of other countries. In 1508 he was about to march to Rome to be crowned emperor, when he was stopped by the Venetians, who refused to allow him



MAXIMILIAN I., EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

attempts to conquer Italy. In 1499 Maximilian made war upon them, but was defeated, and was obliged to conclude a peace, by which he acknowledged the exemption of the Swiss from imperial taxation and from the jurisdiction of the Imperial Chamber. The league remained nominally a part of the empire for a century and a half, though these concessions made it

to pass through their territory. With the sanction of Pope Julius II. Maximilian took the title of "emperor-elect" without being crowned at all. He also took the title of "King of Germany," which none of his predecessors had assumed. After him, however, these titles were borne by all the German kings.

The refusal of the Venetians to allow him

to pass through their territory earned for them the bitter hatred of the emperor, and in 1508 he very readily joined the League of Cambray, with what result we have already stated. He also joined the Holy League against Louis XII. of France. On the whole, the emperor was as unsuccessful in his foreign as in his domestic wars. The German states were convinced that their great need was peace and not war, and by refusing Maximilian men or money rendered him powerless to embroil them very deeply with other nations. The revenues of his hereditary estates, on which he was forced to depend, did not permit him to carry on very costly wars, and his extravagant and luxurious habits of themselves subjected his finances to a very great strain. He was often so much reduced in purse that in order to obtain money he descended to acts unworthy of his august position, as when for one hundred crowns a day he served in the army of Henry VIII. of England at the siege of Terouenne. He professed to be very anxious to lead a crusade against the Turks, but the states, distrusting both him and the pope who supported him, refused to grant him any assistance.

In 1501 the plan which had been attempted by Albert II., of dividing Germany into Circles, for the better administration of justice, was carried through successfully, and the Circles of Bavaria, Suabia, Franconia, the upper Rhine, Westphalia, and lower Saxony, were formed. In 1512 the four new Circles of Austria, Burgundy, the lower Rhine, and upper Saxony were formed out of the hereditary dominions of Maximilian and the electoral princes which had been omitted from the first division. Thus Germany was divided into ten circles, each of which had its own states, or legislative assembly, which was presided over by one or more directors. The government of a circle was charged with the duty of carrying out the decisions of the Imperial Chamber, and was required to maintain order within its dominions. It took some years for this new system to get into operation, and even then its results fell far below the expectations of its founders, though it was a vast improvement upon the lawlessness of the past century. In his own dominions Maximilian ruled well, and inaugurated a number of useful reforms. Among these was the establishment of the tribunal which afterwards became known as the Aulic Council. It was charged with the duty of

hearing appeals from lower courts, and in the end became a court of appeal for all Germany. Maximilian at one time cherished the hope of exchanging the imperial crown for the tiara. To raise funds to bribe the cardinals he even pawned the archducal mantle of Austria. "To-morrow," he wrote to his daughter Margaret, "I shall send a bishop to the pope, to conclude an agreement with him that I may be appointed his coadjutor, and on his death succeed to the papacy, that you may be bound to worship me—at which I shall be very proud." He held a diet at Augsburg in 1518, and exerted himself to induce the states to aid him in a crusade against the Turks, but failed, and tried, with a similar lack of success, to secure the election of his grandson Charles to the German crown. On his way home from this diet, he died at Wels, in upper Austria.

The power of the emperors had undergone a considerable change in its character in the last two centuries. They did not derive it from their position as German sovereign, but from their hereditary wealth and influence. The authority of Maximilian and his successors was uncertain in Germany, though they were supreme in their hereditary domains. Charles V. was the most powerful ruler of Europe, but it was not as emperor, but as King of Spain, Archduke of Austria, Duke of Milan, and Lord of the Low Countries. The various princes of the empire had become practically independent by the reign of Maximilian, and each country had its states, or legislative body, which was modelled after the diet of the empire. These states had the sole power of levying taxes and granting funds to their rulers, and in some cases required them to give an account of the manner in which these funds were used. They generally resisted the efforts of the Austrian emperors to drag them into foreign wars, as they saw that these contests were for the benefit of Austria rather than of Germany. Many of the imperial cities had become free, and had acquired such power that they were able to maintain their rights against the greatest princes. Their representatives formed the third college in the imperial diet. The Hanseatic League was at the height of its power during this century. The government of the cities was contested by the Patricians, or old families, who formed a distinct class, and the Gilds, or unions of the various trades. In many cities the Gilds

were supreme, and in such places the character of the government was democratic.

CHAPTER V.

THE REFORMATION AND THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Charles I. of Spain Becomes Emperor of Germany—Rise and Growth of the Reformation in Germany—The Sale of Indulgences—Martin Luther—His Early Life—Opposes the Sale of Indulgences—Luther Before Cardinal Cajetanus—Burns the Pope's Bull—Luther at the Diet at Worms—Action of the Diet—The Emperor's Hostility to the Reformation—The Reformation in Switzerland—Luther's Bible—Outbreaks in Germany—Marriage of Luther—Spread of the Reformation in Germany—The Diet at Spire—The Protestants—Albert of Brandenburg Founds the Duchy of Prussia—The Archduke of Austria Becomes King of Hungary and Bohemia—Return of the Emperor Charles to Germany—The Diet at Augsburg—The Augsburg Confession—Action of the Diet—The League of Smalcald—The "Religious Peace"—North Germany Becomes Protestant—The Council of Trent—Alliance Between the Emperor and the Pope—The Emperor Makes War upon the Lutherans—Death of Luther—The Smalcaldic War—Triumph of the Emperor—The Interim—Rebellion of the Elector of Saxony—Henry II. of France Seizes Lorraine—Flight of the Emperor—The Treaty of Passau—The Religious Peace of Augsburg—Abdication and Death of Charles V.—Ferdinand I. Emperor—Tries to Conciliate the Protestants—His Death—Maximilian II. Emperor—Spread of Protestantism in Germany—Rudolph II. Emperor—His Weakness—Persecutes the Protestants—The Protestant Union and the Catholic League—The Letter of Majesty—Matthias Emperor—Ferdinand of Styria Made his Coadjutor—Tyranny of Ferdinand—Disturbances in Bohemia—Commencement of the Thirty Years' War—Death of Matthias—Frederick V., Elector Palatine, Chosen King of Bohemia—Ferdinand II. Emperor—Frederick Driven from Bohemia—Ferdinand Exterminates the Bohemian Protestants—The Peasants' War—The Palatinate Ravaged—Heidelberg Destroyed—The War Renewed—Wallenstein in Command of the Imperial Army—His Victories—The Edict of Restitution—Wallenstein Dismissed—Gustavus Adolphus Enters Germany to Aid the Protestants—Defeats Tilly Twice—Occupies Munich—Wallenstein Recalled—Battle of Lutzen—Death of Gustavus—Congress of Heilbronn—Murder of Wallenstein—Progress of the War—Battle of Nordlingen—Treaty Between Richelieu and Oxenstiern—Death of Ferdinand II.—The War Goes on—Victories of the Swedes—The Peace of Westphalia—Results of the War—Sufferings of Germany During the Struggle.

THREE candidates now sought the imperial crown—Charles, the grandson of Maximilian, Henry VIII., of England, and Francis I., of France. Henry soon abandoned the contest, but Francis used every effort to win over the electors. He was unsuccessful, however, and in 1519 Charles I., of Spain, was elected. The next year he

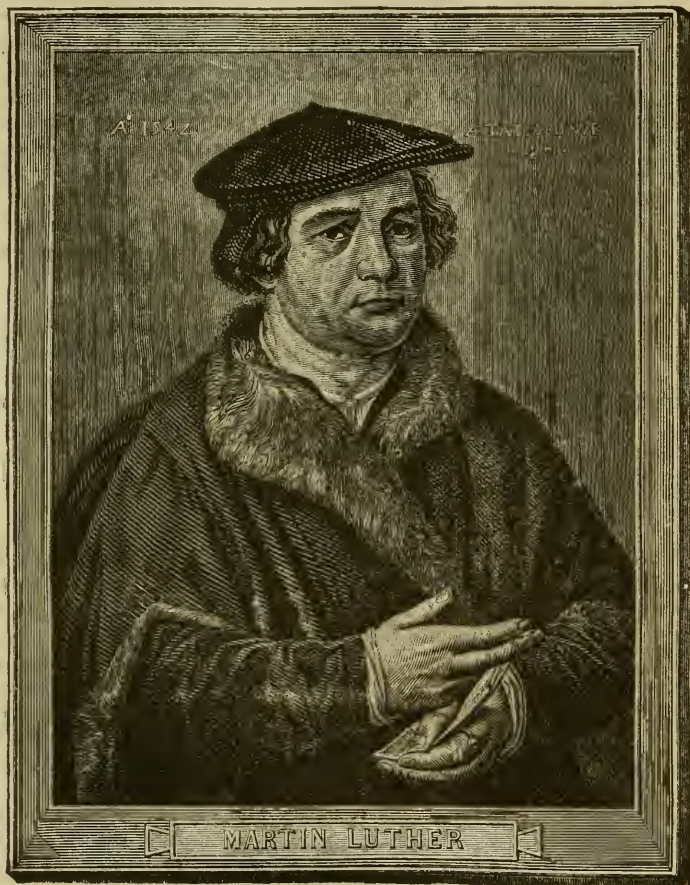
was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle as Charles V., of Germany. He was the son of Philip, the son of Maximilian I. and Mary of Burgundy, and of Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, of Spain. From his father he inherited the archduchy of Austria, which he shared with his brother Ferdinand, the county of Burgundy and the Low Countries. From his grandfather Ferdinand he inherited the crowns of Spain and the Two Sicilies. He was thus the most powerful sovereign after he became emperor that had ruled in Europe since the days of Charlemagne. The electors appreciated this, and before choosing him made him sign a formal deed confirming the states in all their rights and privileges, a condition afterwards required of every successor of Charles on the German throne. The account of the reign of Charles V. belongs to the history of Spain as well as to that of Germany. We shall relate here that portion of it which concerns the latter country.

Charles V. came to the German throne at the outset of the profoundest movement that has ever shaken Europe—the Reformation. At the beginning of the sixteenth century all of Western Europe was Christian, and every nation in this part of the continent was in communion with the Roman Church and acknowledged the supremacy of the pope. It is true that the principles of the early reformers had affected England and some other countries so deeply that martyrs had already been found, but as yet no nation had definitely broken with Rome, or set up any new system of religion for itself. Early in the sixteenth century, however, men began to think more earnestly upon matters of religion. The Bible had been circulated to a limited extent since the days of Wycliffe, and after the invention of printing the early printers had scarcely been able to supply the demand for the sacred volume. The effect of the reading of the Scriptures was to open men's eyes wider than ever to the abuses of the Roman Church. The division of Europe into independent states had made many men in all countries very anxious to be rid of the supremacy of the pope, but as this was a matter of religious doctrine, they had felt powerless to accomplish their desire. When they found that this supremacy was not sanctioned by the Bible, and that the tyranny which the pope had set up in all lands was repugnant to the word of God, their resistance to it became an hundred

times more vigorous and determined. From this point they passed to an examination of some of the cardinal doctrines of the Roman Church, such as the sacrifice of the mass, the use of images, the practice of praying to saints, the doctrine of purgatory, the necessity of confession to a priest, the prohibition of marriage to the clergy, and the celebration of the services of the church in the Latin tongue, which was nowhere

had assumed the right, which has since been exercised by his successors, of remitting the penalties of sin in the future world in consideration of the payment of money in this one. These *indulgences*, as they were called, soon became very popular, people seeking by means of them to deliver their departed friends from the penalties of their faults when in this life, and to secure the same immunities for themselves hereafter.

Germany was the great market for the sale of these indulgences, and large sums were annually remitted to Rome on their account. The revenue from this source at length became so steady that the popes farmed it to the Fuggers, the great Augsburg bankers. Frederick the Wise, of Saxony, once obtained the sale of indulgences in his dominions in order to raise funds for building a bridge over the Elbe. The extravagance of Pope Leo X. kept his treasury constantly drained, and in order to replenish it he plunged into the sale of indulgences with more recklessness than any of his predecessors. The Archbishop of Mentz was the primate of Germany and the first spiritual elector of the empire. The dignity had just been purchased at a



understood by the people. These they at length denied, as they could find no warrant for them in the Scriptures. Besides these errors of doctrine, the reformers objected to certain gross abuses of which the councils of the fifteenth century had honestly tried to purge the church, and had been prevented by the popes. One of the grossest of these was the immediate occasion of the open avowal of the reformers in Germany of their determination to separate from the Church of Rome. Pope Alexander VI.

ruinous cost by a dissolute young churchman named Albert. In order to enable him to raise funds to pay for his see the pope granted him a special dispensation of indulgences. The archbishop employed as his agent one John Tetzel, a Dominican monk, a man of notoriously evil character. Tetzel went about the country selling at a fixed tariff not only remission for past sins, but indulgences for future offences. "Pour in your money," cried Tetzel, "and whatever crimes you have committed, or may com-

mit, are forgiven! Pour in your coin, and the souls of your friends and relations will fly out of purgatory the moment they hear the clink of your money at the bottom of the box."

This shameful traffic shocked many good men, both in the church and out of it. One of these was Martin Luther. He was the son of a Saxon miner, and was a native of Eisleben, where he was born in 1483.

He had made himself a scholar by attendance at schools where his poverty almost debarred him from appearing, and had maintained himself during his studies by singing from door to door of the richer houses. At the University of Erfurt he studied laboriously and acquired a vast fund of the learning of the schools; and there, becoming convinced that his true vocation lay in the ministry, he entered the Augustinian convent and became a priest and monk. The insight which he gained into monastic life by his residence there inclined him to doubt some of the doctrines and practices of the church, and a journey which he made to Rome on business for his order showed him in their true light the worldly ambition of the pope,

the infidelity of the clergy, and their open contempt for the mysteries of their faith. The deeply religious soul of the German monk was shocked, and he became a miserable man. In after years he said: "I would not for a hundred thousand florins have missed seeing Rome. I should always have felt an uneasy doubt whether I was not, after all, doing injustice to the pope. As it is, I am quite satisfied on the point." Yet Luther was a faithful son of the church; and for the present he could only doubt and be miserable. In the chapel of the monas-

tery there was a Latin Bible, chained to its stand, but open to all the monks. Brother Martin read the holy book with feverish eagerness, and found in it the comfort he could not draw from the offices of the church. Still his opportunities of reading it were limited, and his unhappy condition of mind was noticed, but was respected by his brethren. Staupitz, a man of great rank in the church, chancing to visit the



LUTHER BEFORE CARDINAL CAJETANUS.

convent, was attracted by the youthful monk. He conversed with him and gave him a Bible of his own, which he could study in his own cell. The monk applied himself with renewed energy to the "searching of the Scriptures," and the result of his studies was that the great doctrine of "justification by faith" took with him the place of the teachings of the church. In 1508 he was appointed professor of theology in the new University of Wittenberg, where he soon made himself a power by his lectures. The Elector of Saxony, Frederick the Wise,

became his devoted and faithful friend and protector. When Tetzel came to Wittenberg, ringing his bell, and hawking his wares about the town, Luther, who had already given evidence of his departure from the Romish standard of doctrine, sternly denounced the traffic in indulgences and declared he would refuse absolution to any one who should purchase them. On the 31st of October, 1517, he took a more decisive step in advance, and affixed to the door of the Castle Church, at Wittenberg,

Luther wrote well and was evidently a man of genius. Dr. John Eck undertook in a book to show that Luther's heresy was identical with that of Huss, but Luther answered him with such overwhelming force, that Eck, in revenge, set himself to work to induce the pope to interfere and silence the reformer. Luther's thesis had created great excitement in Germany, and a party had rapidly formed about him which demanded a thorough reformation in the church in both doctrine and discipline.



LUTHER BURNING THE POPE'S BULL.

a thesis made up of ninety-five propositions, in which he denounced the assumptions of the papacy, and declared that every sincere penitent would receive absolution of his sins from Christ direct, without the intervention of the church. This was an open rupture with Rome, and is usually regarded as the beginning of the Reformation.

Luther's thesis was answered by Tetzel and other of the clergy, and the matter was finally reported at Rome. Pope Leo paid little attention to it at first. "It is a quarrel of the monks," he said, and added that

This party was especially strong in the cities. Luther on his part advanced steadily in his opinions, and spoke out his views more boldly, and so drove the movement he had begun forward with every advance of his own. The pope at length awoke to the importance of the movement, and summoned Luther to appear at Rome. The Elector of Saxony, who knew what would be the fate of the reformer if he obeyed, now interposed as Luther's sovereign, refused to allow him to go to Rome, and demanded that he should be tried for

his doctrines in Germany. In 1518 Cardinal Cajetan was sent into Germany as the papal legate, and summoned Luther before him in the diet at Augsburg. Luther obeyed the summons, and declared his readiness to retract any or all of his doctrines that could be shown to be not founded upon Holy Scripture, but the cardinal refused to permit any discussion. Luther then offered to submit his doctrines to the four universities of Basle, Freiburg, Louvain and Paris, but the cardinal scorn-

questions for a while. The crown was offered to the Elector of Saxony, but he refused it and succeeded in securing it for Charles, the young King of Spain. Charles was very willing to help the pope, but Luther was the friend of the elector, to whom he owed the imperial crown, and he could not well proceed against him. The pope in 1520 brought matters to a crisis by a bull, in which he denounced the teachings of Luther as heresy, and ordered him to burn his books and to cease both writing



LUTHER BEFORE THE DIET AT WORMS.

fully rejected the proposition. Then, perceiving that he was not to receive justice at the hands of the legate, Luther drew up an appeal to the pope and affixed it to the door of Augsburg Cathedral, and then returned home. The bulk of the German people had now come to sustain the reformer, and his party was growing every day.

The death of the Emperor Maximilian and the contest for the German crown which followed it, caused a lull in religious

and preaching. Luther publicly burned the bull at Wittenberg, and he and his followers were excommunicated. This was the state of affairs when Charles V. came to the imperial throne. The emperor did not long allow his obligations to the elector to cause him to hesitate as to his course. He was afraid that the revolt begun by Luther against ecclesiastical tyranny would develop into a revolt against the imperial authority, and he was also a firm believer in the Roman doctrines. Therefore he de-

cided at once to sustain the pope against the reformers. In 1521 Charles held his first diet at Worms. The papal legate urged him to proceed at once to extreme measures against Luther, but the Elector of Saxony and some of the other princes declared that it was unjust to condemn any man unheard. The emperor therefore summoned Luther to appear before the diet, and gave him a safe conduct. Luther at once set out for Worms, and was greeted with enthusiasm all along the route by the people. As he entered the great hall where the diet was in session, George Frundesberg, a famous military commander, who afterwards became his convert, laid his hand on his shoulder, and said to him earnestly: "Little monk, little monk, thou art doing a more daring thing than I or any other general ever ventured on. But if thou art confident in thy cause, go on, in God's name, and be of good cheer, for he will not forsake thee."

In his examination before the diet Luther admitted that he had exceeded the bounds of propriety in his remarks concerning the pope and the clergy, but as for his doctrines, he exclaimed, in closing his statement, "Here I stand. I cannot do otherwise. God help me." Some of the princes urged the emperor to seize the reformer, but Charles declared that he would not "blush like Siegmund at Constance." He suffered Luther to depart from Worms, but warned him that he must henceforth expect the treatment of a heretic. He subsequently issued an edict condemning Luther as a heretic, and putting to the ban of the empire all who should shelter him, or print, sell or read his books. Luther meanwhile proceeded on his journey home, and as he was riding through a wood near his destination, he was suddenly surrounded by a band of horsemen, who stripped him of his monk's frock, clothed him in a military garb, put a false beard on him, and, mounting him upon a spare horse, hurried him away—but not to imprisonment or death. The supposed arrest was a friendly ruse on the part of the Elector of Saxony to remove the reformer from harm's way. The horsemen conducted him to the strong castle of the Wartburg, where he was lodged in comfort and in safety. His presence there was kept secret, and the rumor got abroad that he had been waylaid and murdered, or at all events immured in a dungeon. But all this while, secure in his friendly shelter,

the reformer was engaged in his great work of translating the Scriptures into the German language.

The Diet of Worms obliged the emperor to consent to the formation of a council, appointed partly by himself, and partly by the states, which was to watch over the affairs of Germany during his absence from that country. It also arranged the number of troops which each state of the empire should be obliged to furnish. During the session of the diet Charles divided his hereditary Austrian estates with his brother Ferdinand, who thus became Archduke of Austria and the founder of the Austrian branch of the house of Hapsburg. Immediately upon the adjournment of the diet Charles left Germany, and did not return for eight years. During this period he was fully occupied with the affairs of Italy and Spain, and with the great struggle between himself and Francis I. of France. He succeeded in driving the French out of Italy, and in definitely establishing the Spanish supremacy in the peninsula. In 1529 the Peace of Cambray closed the war. In 1530 Charles was crowned emperor by the pope at Bologna. He was the last emperor who received the imperial crown from a pope.

While the Reformation was in progress in Germany a similar movement was begun in Switzerland under the influence of Ulrich Zwingli, a priest of Glarus. He succeeded in making the western or French-speaking cantons Protestant, and went much further in his measures than Luther. This led to a controversy between the two great reformers, which unfortunately checked the progress of the Reformation. In Switzerland civil and religious affairs became mingled, and the result was a war between the Romanist and Protestant cantons, in which Zwingli was killed, 1531.

In Germany, the absence of the emperor and the necessity which his wars imposed upon him of conciliating all the German states, allowed the Reformation to make rapid progress. During Luther's residence at the Wartburg some of his followers began to indulge in excesses which met his condemnation, and in 1522, though still an outlaw, he left his refuge, returned to Wittenburg, and resumed his place as leader of the Reformation. He now published his translation of the New Testament, and later on followed it with his translation of the whole Bible. He also wrote

theological works which were widely circulated and eagerly read, and which made his doctrines more popular and more generally accepted. Had he been possessed of less moderation he might have been ruined by either of two outbreaks which occurred about this time. One of these was an attack by Franz Von Sickingen, one of Luther's earliest friends, upon the Archbishop of Treves, who was aided by the Elector Palatine, and the Landgrave of Hessen. Sickingen was the leader of a league of Rhenish knights, and claimed the support of Luther, whose doctrines he had adopted. Luther, who dreaded the propagation of his faith by the sword, urged his friend to observe the peace of the empire. His appeal was unheeded; the war broke out; and Sickingen was defeated and slain, A. D. 1523. In 1524 and 1525 a great rising took place among the peasantry of Suabia, and spread into Franconia, Lorraine, Alsace, and the Palatinate. The peasants believed that the new religion was to rescue them from the political inequality and all the other wrongs they had so long endured. They submitted to Luther a list of their demands, but he refused to countenance their course, and advised them to submit to their rulers. He urged the princes to put down the revolt by force, but at the same time charged them with having caused the disturbances by their suppression of the gospel. The revolt was quelled, but not before 100,000 men had fallen.

Several of the German princes had now embraced Luther's doctrines. The chief of these were the Elector John of Saxony, the successor of Frederic the Wise, and Philip, Landgrave of Hessen. Some of the imperial free cities also became Lutheran. In 1525 Luther married Catharine of Bora, a nun, and his example was followed by many of the clergy. In 1526 a diet was held at Spire, at which the Archduke Ferdinand presided. It was agreed to take no measures concerning religious matters, but that, until a general council of the church could be held, each state should regulate them as it saw best. The Elector of Saxony, the Landgrave of Hessen, and some of the other princes, encouraged by this, now proceeded to make great changes in the church in their dominions. The mass was abolished and the church services were celebrated in the common tongue, new systems of church government were intro-

duced, convents were suppressed, and the lands and revenues of the church were not entirely applied to ecclesiastical uses. Preaching was made the chief business of the clergy. The real inspirer of these measures was Luther, who was assisted by Melancthon, a man of much greater moderation than his friend Luther, and one of the ablest and noblest of the reformers.

The Catholic princes now united to oppose a more effectual resistance to the spread of the reformed doctrines, and the adherents of Luther, following the example of their antagonists, organized the League of Torgau for their mutual protection. In 1529 the diet met again at Spire under the presidency of the Archduke Ferdinand. The Catholics had the control of this body, and a decree was passed, requiring that all changes in religious forms should be discontinued, and that the celebration of the mass should be observed in all parts of the empire. The Lutheran princes and cities entered a solemn *protest* against this decree, and were in consequence of this act termed **PROTESTANTS**, a name which has been extended to all persons holding the essential doctrines of the Reformation.

Some important political changes had taken place in Germany in the last few years. When the Reformation began, the Grand Master of the Teutonic order was Albert of Brandenburg. He became a Lutheran, and in 1525 put an end to the Teutonic order as a sovereign power by a treaty with Sigismund I., King of Poland, and received the eastern part of Prussia in fief as a hereditary duchy. His children inherited the Prussian duchy, which in the end passed to the electoral branch of the Brandenburg house, and became independent of Poland.

In 1522 Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria, married a daughter of Ladislaus, King of Bohemia and Hungary. Louis II., the son and successor of Ladislaus, was killed in battle in 1526, and Ferdinand was elected and crowned King of Bohemia. Later on he was chosen King of Hungary by one of the parties which divided that country. The opposite party proclaimed John, Waiwode of Transylvania, and a war broke out between the rivals, in the course of which John made an alliance with the Turkish Sultan Solyman, and consented to hold the throne as his vassal. Solyman invaded and overran Hungary, and entering Austria laid siege to Vienna. He was compelled

to withdraw. Ferdinand at length prevailed over his rival, and from his time the Archduke of Austria was always King of Hungary, and the crown of that country, though at first elective, became in the end hereditary. The Bohemian crown was also held by the Austrian house from this time, and the ruler of Austria thus became one of the principal sovereigns of Europe.

The Emperor Charles had now driven the French out of Italy, and was prepared to take an active part in German affairs again. He came to Germany in 1530, and held a diet at Augsburg for the double purpose of putting an end to the Lutheran movement and inaugurating measures for the defeat of the Turks. When the diet assembled he found that he had greatly underestimated the strength of the Reformation. A statement of the Lutheran doctrines, drawn up by Melancthon and approved by Luther, was laid before the diet by the reformed party. This statement, afterwards known as the Augsburg confession, became the chief standard of faith among the Lutheran churches. Finding the emperor firm in his determination to restore the Roman faith and worship, the Elector John and the Landgrave Philip withdrew from the diet. Soon after this Charles issued an edict condemning the Lutheran heresy, and commanding all who had accepted it to return to their allegiance to the church. Such church property as had been seized was to be restored, and the suppressed convents were to be reopened. Disobedience to this command was to be punished by the outlawry of the offender. The Catholic party, fearful that a Protestant successor to Charles would be chosen, as the administrative council had already shown great favor to the Lutherans, determined to secure a Catholic at once, and the Archduke Ferdinand was chosen King of the Romans and crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1531. During these negotiations the Lutheran princes met at Smalcald, and organized a league for their common defence. After the election of Ferdinand the Smalcaldic League was joined by the Lutheran cities. The more hot-headed members wished to go to war with the emperor at once; but wiser counsels prevailed. In 1532 the Turks again threatened Germany in heavy force, and created great alarm throughout the empire. Charles was anxious to take the field against them, but the members of the League of Smalcald

refused to assist him unless he withdrew the decree of Augsburg, and he was very unwillingly compelled to consent to their demand. In 1532 he granted the *Religious Peace of Nuremberg*, by which he accorded full liberty of worship to the Lutherans until the meeting of a general council or another diet. The Lutherans then gave him a cordial support against the sultan, who, finding all Germany united against him, retreated into his own dominions. Charles now left Germany a second time, and was absent for twelve years.

During this period the Reformation made great progress, especially in northern Germany. The Elector of Brandenburg, Joachim II., became a Lutheran, and the Elector Palatine and Duke George of Saxony admitted the Lutheran doctrines within their dominions. Nearly all north Germany was now Lutheran, and in the south Würtemberg had embraced the Protestant doctrines. The emperor during this period was in no condition to offend the Lutherans, for his wars with France and the Turks made it necessary for him to make no new enemies. He did not relinquish his design of destroying Lutheranism, however, and as soon as the peace of Crespy in 1544 had removed his embarrassments, he began to put his plan in execution.

He induced Pope Paul II. to summon a general council, which met at Trent in 1545. The Lutherans refused to recognize this council on the ground that the pope was a party to the dispute, and had already condemned them as heretics. The emperor was not unprepared for this refusal, and at once began his preparations for war against the Lutherans. He made an alliance with the pope, who agreed to contribute money and troops to the undertaking, and succeeded in securing the neutrality of the Elector Palatine, the Elector of Brandenburg, and some other Lutheran princes. The League of Smalcald, however, prepared to defend its principles and rights, and began to put its forces in the field. The Lutheran cities also raised a strong force, under Sebastian Schärtlin, one of the ablest generals of his time, though the emperor endeavored to persuade them that his measures were not directed against their religion, but against certain rebellious princes. Charles, in order to obtain a competent army, did not hesitate to bring foreign troops into Germany, in violation of his coronation oath, which forbade such an

act. At the moment of the outbreak of hostilities the Lutherans suffered a serious loss in the death of their great teacher, Martin Luther, who died at Eisleben in 1546.

The summer of 1546 saw both armies in motion. The Protestant force was superior to that of the emperor, and might have gained a decisive advantage over him had it acted with promptness and vigor; but its leaders were divided; they hesitated, and allowed the papal troops and the army of the Low Countries to join the emperor. Charles now went to work with vigor. By the close of the autumn he had conquered all the Protestant cities opposed to him, and succeeded in winning over Duke Maurice of Saxony. In 1547 he defeated the Elector John of Saxony in the battle of Mühlberg, and took him prisoner. The possessions and title of the Elector of Saxony were conferred upon Duke Maurice, and thus the two branches of the Saxon family were united. Philip, Landgrave of Hessen, seeing that the cause was hopeless, surrendered to the emperor, and was kept a prisoner in violation of the terms of his capitulation. The Bohemian army, disheartened by these reverses, soon dispersed, and the resistance of the Protestants entirely ceased. Charles was entirely successful, and the League of Smalcald was destroyed. In order to complete his triumph he held a diet at Augsburg in 1548, and laid before it a plan for uniting the Protestants with the church. A few unimportant concessions were made to the former, but the claims of the church were on the whole maintained. There was no formal opposition to the plan in the diet, and Charles, acting as if it had become a law, succeeded in obtaining a nominal acceptance of it. The measure is known as the *Interim*.

The emperor's triumph now seemed complete. He had broken up the Smalcaldic League, and believed he had undone all the work of the Reformation by forcing the *Interim* upon the Lutherans. He underestimated, however, the strength and extent of the discontent which prevailed among the conquered party. The Protestants were more tenacious of their principles than he imagined. The very first one to make this apparent was the new Elector Maurice of Saxony, who owed his position to the emperor's favor. Though he had sided with Charles in the Smalcaldic war, Maurice was a Protestant. His ambition was

now satisfied by the possession of the electoral dignity and all the Saxon domains, and he at length resolved to turn against the emperor and take his true place as the protector of the Lutheran faith. He was alarmed by the growing power of Charles, which seemed to threaten his own, and offended by the continued captivity of the Landgrave of Hessen, who was his father-in-law. He made an alliance with several of the German princes, and, what was still more important, negotiated a secret treaty with Henry II. of France, by the terms of which Henry was to seize the towns of Metz, Toul, Verdun, and Cambrai, and hold them as imperial vicar. Rumors of this plot reached the emperor, but he paid no attention to them, and sending the bulk of his army into Hungary and Italy, stationed himself with a small force at Innsbruck to watch the proceedings of the Council of Trent.

In 1552 Maurice, who had been intrusted by the diet with a large army for the purpose of compelling Magdeburg to accept the *Interim*, suddenly marched southward, and issued a proclamation announcing his determination to maintain the constitution and laws of the empire, to protect the Protestant worship, and to liberate the Landgrave of Hessen. At the same time Henry II. entered Lorraine with his forces, and seized Metz, Toul, and Verdun. Charles was taken by surprise. The Protestant states took heart, and the Catholic states, alarmed by his great power and his intrigues to procure the reversal of the election of his brother Ferdinand, and the elevation of his son Philip to the German throne in his place, looked coldly on. Charles was obliged to seek safety in flight, and escaped over the mountains into Carinthia. The Council of Trent broke up in alarm, and did not assemble again for ten years. Charles was obliged to sign the treaty of Passau, by which he surrendered all that he had gained by the Smalcaldic war. He agreed that the Protestants should enjoy the free exercise of their religion, and should be admitted as members of the Imperial Chamber. The treaty was willingly signed by King Ferdinand and the Catholic princes, as they were now convinced that Charles was too powerful for their own interests. The captive Elector of Saxony and the Landgrave of Hessen obtained their liberty. Peace being restored in Germany, Charles turned upon

Henry II. of France, and entering Lorraine, laid siege to Metz. He was unsuccessful, and was forced to raise the siege, and Henry kept the towns of Metz, Toul, and Verdun. In 1555, in accordance with the terms of the treaty of Passau, the emperor summoned a diet at Augsburg, which after much deliberation concluded the *Religious Peace of Augsburg*. By this arrangement the Protestants were exempted from the jurisdiction of the bishops of the Roman Church, and were allowed to retain the religious property they had seized. Each state was secured in the right to maintain either the Protestant or Roman worship, or might tolerate both if it saw fit, or drive out whichever it pleased.

Charles now put in execution a design he had long contemplated, and which his recent political failures had made him more than ever anxious to carry out. In 1555 he gave the Low Countries to his son Philip, and in 1556 resigned to him the crowns of Spain and the Two Sicilies. He renewed his efforts to have Philip elected King of the Romans, but he found that all Germany was opposed to this, and he yielded to what he could not alter. In the autumn of 1556 he resigned the imperial crown to his brother Ferdinand, and entered the monastery of San Yuste, in Spain, where he died in 1558.

Ferdinand I. was crowned king in 1558. He did not receive the imperial crown from the pope, but took the title of emperor immediately upon his accession to the throne, as did every German king after him. The pope acknowledged his imperial dignity on condition that he should refuse to observe the peace of Augsburg. Ferdinand never complied with this condition, for he knew too well the strength of Protestantism in Germany. The whole country was now divided into two hostile parties, Catholic and Protestant, and the emperor had no wish to bring them in collision. The political evils of this division were already very great. The Catholics regarded the Protestants as being possessed of church property which was rightfully their own, and the Protestants had not forgotten the harshness with which the former had treated them in the days of their power. The emperor, who should have been an impartial judge between the two, was a Catholic, and the sworn protector of the Catholic Church. He was therefore regarded by the Protestants as an enemy, to

be watched and thwarted on all occasions. Thus the imperial authority, instead of being strengthened by this division of the people and princes, was weakened by it. The same cause made it difficult to appoint judges who commanded the confidence of both parties, and thus the administration of justice was seriously hampered. Ferdinand did what he could to win the friendship of the Protestants, and showed them as many favors as he could. He died in 1564. Before his death he divided the possessions of the house of Hapsburg into three unequal parts, and gave one to each of his sons.

Maximilian II., the eldest son of Ferdinand, received Austria proper and the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary, and succeeded his father on the imperial throne. He was a man of liberal views, and his government, though firm, was mild. He was charged by the Catholics with being a Lutheran. During his reign the Jesuits exerted their power in a marked degree to check the spread of Protestantism in Germany, but without success. By the close of this reign the bulk of the German people were Protestant. Even in Austria the reformed faith became very powerful. In 1576 Maximilian died.

Rudolph II., who succeeded his father as emperor, was a gloomy bigot, whose character very much resembled that of Philip of Spain, in whose court he had been brought up. He was very anxious to root out Protestantism from Germany, but he was a man of such weak character that he accomplished nothing save to alarm the Protestants, and in his hands the imperial power became almost a nullity.

The weakness of Rudolph II. so alarmed his kinsmen for the power of their house, that they began to seriously consider the propriety of choosing a new emperor. Stung by this distrust, Rudolph attempted to show his vigor by persecuting the Protestants of Bohemia and Hungary. The latter appealed to the Turks for aid, who readily complied with their request. Matters became so bad that, in 1606, the archdukes met and formally acknowledged Matthias, the brother of Rudolph, as the head of the house of Hapsburg. This arrangement was sanctioned by Spain, and Rudolph was compelled to resign to Matthias all his dominions except Bohemia.

The severity with which Rudolph treated the Protestants alarmed that party, and in

1608 a number of the Protestant princes organized a league for ten years, called *The Union*. It owed its existence chiefly to the exertions of Prince Christian of Anhalt, who was encouraged by Henry IV. of France. The Elector Palatine was made the head of the union. Its members were chiefly of the reformed church, and for this reason the Elector of Saxony, who was a Lutheran, refused to have anything to do with it. The first instance in which the league undertook to exert its power was attended with important results. In 1609 William, Duke of Jülich, whose possessions embraced Jülich, Cleve, and other lands, died. His territories were claimed by the Elector of Brandenburg and the Palsgrave of Neuburg, both of whom were members of the union, and both of whom took possession of the lands claimed by them. The Archduke Leopold, Bishop of Passau, was despatched by his brother, the Emperor Rudolph, to expel these princes from the lands they had seized, whereupon the union formed an alliance with Henry IV. of France, and defeated the army of the archduke in 1610. The Catholics, alarmed in their turn at the power of the union, formed a *League*, for nine years, for the purpose of holding the union in check. Maximilian, Duke of Bavaria, was assigned the chief command of the league. The assassination of Henry IV. of France, in 1610, was a severe blow to the union, as it had derived its chief strength from the genius of that great king. It now became timid and hesitating.

The princes who had seized the estates of Duke William of Jülich retained them. The Elector of Brandenburg in 1611 received a fresh accession of power by his succeeding to the duchy of Prussia, and from this time the duchy of East Prussia and the electorate of Brandenburg were always governed by one ruler, and from this union has grown the modern kingdom of Prussia.

The discontents in the empire concerning religious matters were so great that Matthias, as a measure of peace, granted the Austrian states full liberty in the exercise of their religion. In 1609 Rudolph, as King of Bohemia, granted to the nobility, knights and towns of that country entire freedom in matters of religious belief, with the right to build Protestant churches and schools on their own lands and on those of the crown. This grant was known as *The*

Letter of Majesty. The Bohemians distrusted their king, however, and in 1611 held him a prisoner in the Castle of Prague, and appealed to Matthias for aid. He at once responded, and entering Bohemia with an army, seized the crown. The next year Rudolph died.

Matthias was crowned emperor at Frankfurt, in 1612, with imposing ceremonies, but he was not much better suited to the task of governing the empire than his brother Rudolph. His government was very feeble, and while he was obliged to respect the rights of the Protestants, he always sought to favor the efforts of the Jesuits to bring back Germany to the Roman Catholic faith. His brothers soon became as much disgusted with him as they had been with Rudolph, and compelled him to accept as his coadjutor Ferdinand, Duke of Styria. In 1617 Ferdinand was chosen King of Bohemia and Hungary in place of Rudolph, and from this time became the real ruler of Germany, Matthias being emperor simply in name. Ferdinand was a man of energy and ability, of which qualities he had already given evidence. He was anxious to succeed Matthias as emperor, and as he was already known as a determined enemy of Protestantism, and had compelled Styria, which was almost wholly Lutheran at the time he became duke, to accept the Catholic faith, his accession to the imperial crown was anticipated with dread by the Protestants. He was ambitious of winning back the power and grandeur which had belonged to the empire of the Middle Ages, and he was perfectly unscrupulous as to the means by which he attained his ends. As he meant to make himself absolute master of Germany, so he intended that the German people should have no religion but his own.

In the last years of Matthias a quarrel sprang up in Bohemia, the people of which had been for some time discontented with the rule of King Ferdinand. Two Protestant churches had been built in that country, one within the territory of the Archbishop of Prague, the other within that of the Abbot of Braunau. These princes applied to the emperor and received permission to pull down one of these churches and shut up the other. The Protestants complained, but were answered that the *Letter of Majesty* did not give them permission to build churches on the lands of ecclesiastics. This answer excited great in-

dignation in Bohemia, and it was boldly asserted that it had not come from the emperor, but had been prepared at Prague. On the 23d of May, 1618, the Protestants of Prague took up arms under Count Thurn, marched to the royal council hall, and demanded to know the true authorship of the reply to their remonstrance. The councillors hesitated, and two of them, with the private secretary, were pitched out of the window. The Protestants then seized the castle and the government, expelled the Jesuits from Bohemia, and appointed a council of thirty nobles to direct the government, and made an alliance with the Protestant party in Hungary, Austria and Germany. The Emperor Matthias was anxious to settle the dispute peacefully, but Ferdinand, as King of Bohemia, refused to listen to any offer of accommodation, as he had now an opportunity not only to punish his rebellious subjects, but also to destroy Protestantism in his kingdom. The Elector Palatine sent Count Mansfeld to the aid of the Bohemians, and that general gave promise of his future greatness by capturing Pilsen, one of the three towns which alone remained faithful to Ferdinand. Ferdinand sent two armies against his revolted subjects, but they were both severely beaten by Count Thurn. To make the matter worse, Austria refused to take up arms for the subjugation of Bohemia, or even to allow the imperial troops to pass through her territory. Thus began *The Thirty Years' War*, destined to be the most terrible struggle that had ever afflicted Germany. At its very outset the Emperor Matthias died suddenly in 1619.

Ferdinand proceeded to Frankfort and was there elected and crowned emperor. On his way he visited Duke Maximilian of Bavaria, and obtained from him a promise that the Catholic League should support the cause of the emperor with arms, and he was also promised aid by Spain. It was the intention of Ferdinand II. to utterly destroy Protestantism in Bohemia, and then to attack it in the other parts of the empire.

Soon after the death of Matthias, the Bohemian army under Count Thurn invaded Austria and laid siege to Vienna, where the Emperor Ferdinand was holding his court at the time. By a bold stroke Thurn might have taken the city and have wrested the imperial crown from the house of Hapsburg, but he delayed, and was at

length obliged to raise the siege and hasten to Bohemia to protect Prague, which was threatened by an imperial army.

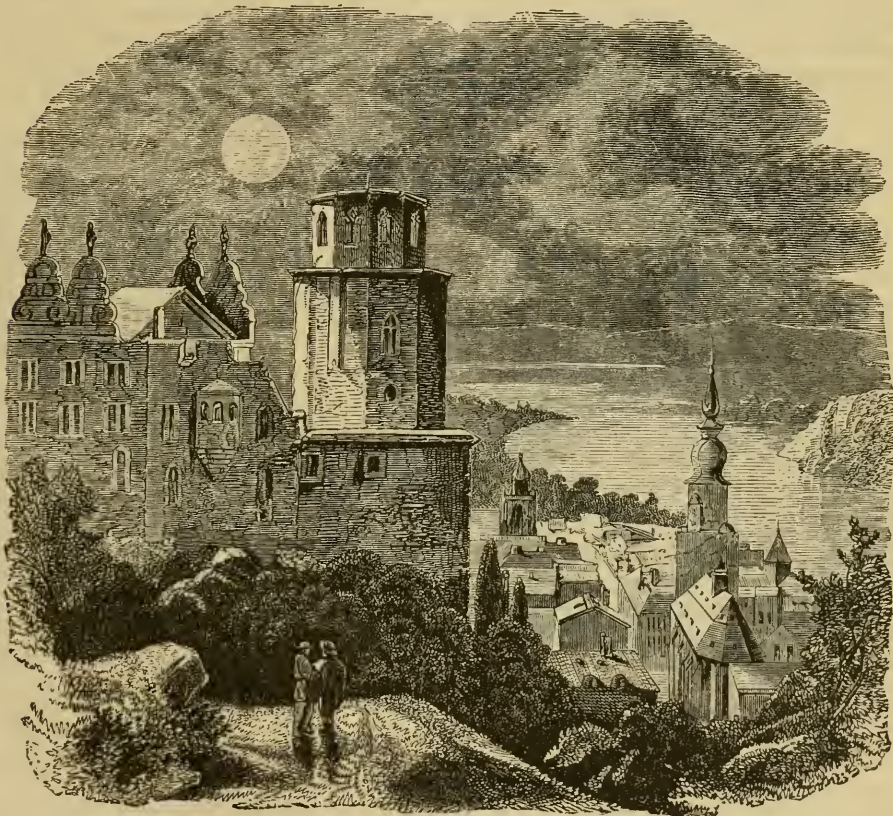
About the time that Ferdinand II. was elected Emperor of Germany, the Bohemians renounced their allegiance to him, and in his place elected the young Elector Palatine, Frederick V., as king. They chose him partly because they believed that his personal qualities suited him for the position, and partly because they supposed that his father-in-law, James I. of England, would assist him to maintain his crown. In opposition to the advice of all his friends, Frederick accepted the Bohemian throne, and was crowned at Prague on the 4th of November, 1619. His situation from the first required him to put forth every energy to meet the determined effort which it was certain the emperor would make to drive him out of Bohemia, but he wasted his time in idle pomp and luxury, and allowed his favorite court chaplain, who had come with him from the Rhine, to offend the religious opinions of the Bohemians in the rudest manner. He also alienated the army by replacing its tried leaders, Counts Mansfeld and Thurn, with his own favorites. James I. of England soon showed that not even the interests of his children could draw him out of his selfishness, and the other Protestant princes stood coldly aloof. It was evident to the Bohemians that they must meet the emperor alone, and with such a king they could not entertain any reasonable hope of success. The Protestant Union concluded a peace with the Catholic League. The Palatinate was also laid open to the invasion of the Spanish troops from the Netherlands.

In August, 1620, the forces of the Catholic League, under the Duke of Bavaria and Count Tilly, invaded Bohemia, and at the same time the Spaniards entered the Palatinate. Frederick, with singular folly, alienated Count Mansfeld, his best general, by his bad treatment of him, and in November his army was routed by Count Tilly at Weissenberg, near Prague. Frederick and his queen were obliged to fly from Bohemia, and as they could not return to the Palatinate, which was in the hands of the Spaniards, they took refuge in Silesia, and afterwards in Holland.

Ferdinand was now master of Bohemia, and proceeded to take a bloody vengeance upon it. The Protestant leaders were put to death, the Protestant clergy banished,

and the tombs of the reformers were destroyed and their bones burned. Finally the Roman Catholic religion was established by law, and all others forbidden under severe penalties. Thirty thousand families fled from the country. Ferdinand did not entirely succeed in destroying the Protestant faith. Multitudes held it in secret, and when, near the close of the eighteenth century, religious toleration was once more proclaimed in Bohemia, the government was astonished by the numbers who de-

quered by Count Tilly, and was transferred together with the electoral title to Duke Maximilian. The splendid library of Heidelberg, one of the most valuable in the world, was destroyed by the Catholic forces. Its rare manuscripts were used in part as a substitute for straw to stable the horses of Tilly's cavalry; but a part was fortunately preserved by Duke Maximilian, and presented to the pope, by whom they were placed in the collection of the Vatican. The union was compelled to disband its



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clared themselves Protestants. The character of Bohemia was entirely changed. It was no longer the seat of learning and intelligence, and its commerce was destroyed by the murder and exile of the Protestants. The emperor next silenced Protestantism in upper and lower Austria in the same barbarous manner, and his severity brought on a war in 1626, known as the Peasants' Insurrection. It was with difficulty suppressed by the combined forces of Austria and Bavaria. The Palatinate was con-

quered by Count Tilly, and its organization was broken up in 1622. It seemed to most observers that the emperor had triumphed over all his enemies, and had established his power beyond dispute. In reality, the Thirty Years' War had only begun.

The success of Ferdinand and his avowed designs against Protestantism had caused the Protestant princes of continental Europe to regret their indifference in the early part of the war, and they now began to see that their interests required them to oppose

a determined and united resistance to the emperor. Christian IV., of Denmark, endeavored to form a league of the northern powers against him, but the measure was defeated by the selfish indecision of James I., of England. Count Mansfeld, Christian of Anhalt, and other Protestant leaders were induced by him, however, to take the field once more, and King Christian himself accepted the military command of the Circle of lower Saxony.

Thus far the successes of Ferdinand had been gained not by the imperial troops, but by the army of the Catholic League under Maximilian of Bavaria, and Count Tilly. The emperor was very anxious to raise an army of his own, but he had not the money to do so. In this juncture Albert von Wallenstein, a wealthy noble, came to his assistance. Wallenstein was a Bohemian by birth, but of German descent, and had been carefully educated at the University of Padua, then one of the most famous schools of Europe. There he imbibed the belief in astrology which gave a deep coloring to all his after life. He offered to raise an army for the emperor on condition that he should be invested with the supreme command. The emperor accepted his offer, but stipulated that the troops should be paid, not from the imperial treasury, but from the plunder of the conquered countries. The infamous bargain was concluded, and in a short while Wallenstein was at the head of an army of 30,000 as desperate troops as ever waged war. He proved himself in his subsequent career a great general, and earned the reputation of one of the most unscrupulous plunderers of history. He was soon created Duke of Friedland and a prince of the empire.

The campaign was opened in 1625 by the advance of King Christian from the Elbe to the Weser. He was attacked and defeated by Tilly near Hanover. A much greater success might have been won for the emperor had Wallenstein been willing to co-operate with Tilly, but fortunately for Germany, the two commanders were so thoroughly jealous of each other that they would never act in concert. Wallenstein advanced eastward and defeated Count Mansfeld at Dessau, in 1627. This victory was soon followed by the death of Mansfeld; and in the same year Christian of Anhalt died also. Tilly took Münden, in Hanover, and prevented the junction of the forces of the King of Denmark with those

of the Saxon dukes, and a little later inflicted a crushing defeat upon King Christian at Lutter.

Wallenstein in the meantime had been supporting his army by plundering the country and maintaining his troops at free quarters upon the people. In the spring of 1627 he and Tilly advanced northward, ravaging the country as they went. The King of Denmark was compelled to withdraw into his own dominions, and Schleswig, Holstein and Jutland were overrun by the imperial armies. Wallenstein was anxious to win over the Hanse towns to the imperial cause, in order that Austria might be as strong by sea as by land, and he attempted to accomplish this partly by force and partly by bribery.

Denmark, driven to desperation, looked to Gustavus Adolphus, of Sweden, for aid; but that king was so much engaged with his war with Poland that for a while he could render no other aid to the Protestant cause than to keep the Poles from sending an army to the assistance of the emperor. Wallenstein had a sincere respect for the skill of this great prince, and endeavored to induce him to join him in a partition of the Danish kingdom, by which Sweden would receive Norway and the province of Schonen, while Denmark, and with it the control of the Baltic, would pass to the emperor or to Wallenstein himself. Gustavus refused to consider the proposition, and as soon as he could sent assistance to Christian IV. In consequence of this Wallenstein was compelled to abandon the siege of Stralsund, with the loss of nearly half his army. This was the beginning of the end of his remarkable career. Tilly was soon after obliged to weaken his army by despatching troops into Italy, and the war languished in the north. In May, 1629, the treaty of Lubec put an end to hostilities between Denmark and the empire. King Christian abandoned the Protestant princes, and agreed to refrain from taking any part in the affairs of Germany except in his capacity of Duke of Holstein.

Ferdinand now felt himself strong enough to put in force his measures against the German Protestants. His first measure was a most sweeping one, but as nearly all Germany seemed to be in his power, the moment appeared favorable for it. Since the treaty of Passau a vast amount of what had once been ecclesiastical property had fallen into the hands of the Protestants.

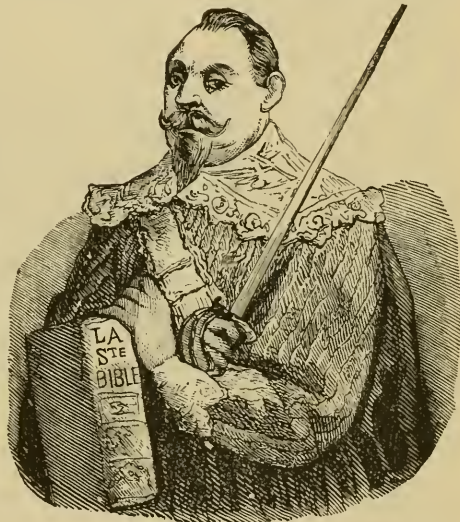
These consisted of two archbishoprics, two bishoprics, and other ecclesiastical lands. The emperor now issued an edict called the *Edict of Restitution*, by which he ordered the restoration of all these possessions to the Roman Catholic Church. In many Protestant cities the churches were closed, and private worship was forbidden. The action of the emperor did not actually violate the letter of the treaty of Passau, but it was generally regarded by the Protestants as a piece of inexcusable tyranny.

Had the cause of Protestantism been left to the care of the German princes, it must have perished, for they showed themselves singularly careless of it. Its best champion now was the King of Sweden, who was induced to take part in the struggle not only by his zeal for his faith, but by the desire to avenge his private injuries. He had good grounds of quarrel with the empire. Wallenstein was seeking to obtain the control of the Baltic, which the commercial interests of Sweden could never permit; the emperor had given his support to the attempt of the King of Poland to obtain the Swedish crown; and the ambassadors of Sweden had been expelled from the Congress of Lubec by force and with insults. Gustavus desired to avenge these injuries, and there is reason to believe that he also wished to conquer territory in Germany, and thus obtain a footing which would justify him in claiming the imperial crown. Until now he had been prevented by his war with Poland from taking any part in German affairs, but now a truce with that country, which had been negotiated by France, left him free to go to the aid of the German Protestants. About the same time the emperor seriously weakened himself by removing Wallenstein from his command, at the demand of the chiefs of the Catholic League, who were jealous of him, and whom the emperor feared to offend. Wallenstein's army was disbanded in part, and the remainder of his troops passed under the command of Tilly.

Gustavus was supported by France, which, although a Catholic state, was the deadly rival of Austria, and was bent upon her humiliation and the destruction of her power in Germany. The Swedish king deliberately arranged the affairs of his kingdom, as if he never expected to return to it. He appointed a council of regency and intrusted the government to it. Then confiding his daughter and heiress, Chris-

tina, a child of four years, to the fidelity of the estates, he sailed from Sweden with his army, and landed on the island of Rugen, in Pomerania, on the 24th of June, 1630. Wallenstein had just been dismissed from his command, and nearly all his officers had left the imperial army in disgust. Tilly, who had succeeded Wallenstein, found himself at the head of a weakened and discontented army. Everything seemed to favor the invasion of the Swedish hero.

Gustavus brought with him an army of 15,000 men, a small force, but a compact one, composed of highly disciplined and sober, God-fearing men. The emperor at first paid little attention to the arrival of Gustavus within his dominions, and the imperial party generally believed that



GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.

“the Snow King,” as he was contemptuously termed by them, would not dare to venture far from the shores of the Baltic. Their ridicule was changed into surprise and fear as Gustavus advanced steadily into the interior, the fortresses of Pomerania and Mecklenburg yielding in rapid succession to his arms. The imperial generals laid waste the country, sparing neither villages nor towns, in the hope of preventing the Swedes from obtaining either food or shelter; but all in vain. The Swedish army continued its advance. Its ranks were unbroken, and its discipline unimpaired; it never plundered or molested the people in any way, and won golden opinions from them by its scrupulous regard for their rights.

The arrival of the Swedish king had been regarded by the Protestant leaders with coldness, as they feared to take such a decided step against the emperor as their support of Gustavus would commit them to, and they also feared that the king had come to destroy the imperial rule only to impose his own upon them. Gustavus compelled the Duke of Pomerania to form an alliance with him; but the Electors of Saxony and Brandenburg held aloof from him. This lack of support obliged him to leave the important city of Magdeburg, which would have gladly joined him, to its fate. It had resisted the edict of restitution, and was besieged by Tilly, who captured and burned it. It was sacked by the imperial troops with a barbarity that has never been surpassed in history.

The cruelty with which Magdeburg had been treated alarmed the Elector of Saxony, who was soon converted into an open enemy of the emperor by the invasion of his dominions by Tilly with an army of 150,000 men. That general had been sent by the emperor to break up the alliance which some of the Protestant princes had formed at Leipzig a short while before. Tilly committed his usual terrible ravages in Saxony, and the elector, in order to defend his possessions, was obliged to make an alliance with Gustavus, whom he joined with a force of 18,000 men. On the 7th of September, 1631, a great battle was fought at Leipzig between the Swedish king and Count Tilly, and resulted in a decisive victory for Gustavus. The imperial forces lost all their artillery, and their rout was so complete that scarcely two thousand of their troops withdrew from the field in good order. Germany was placed at the mercy of Gustavus by this victory, and the road to Vienna was open, but the king was anxious first of all to secure the religious freedom of the empire, and he believed that this could best be done by invading the territories of the Catholic League, and destroying the power of its members for oppression. He accordingly left the task of invading Austria and Bohemia to the Elector of Saxony, and turned towards the Rhine, marching through Franconia. He had little difficulty in reducing the important towns and fortresses in his way. Many places welcomed him as a deliverer, and threw open their gates with joy at his approach. The Rhine was soon reached, and the important city of

Mayence, which was held by the Spaniards, surrendered on the 13th of December.

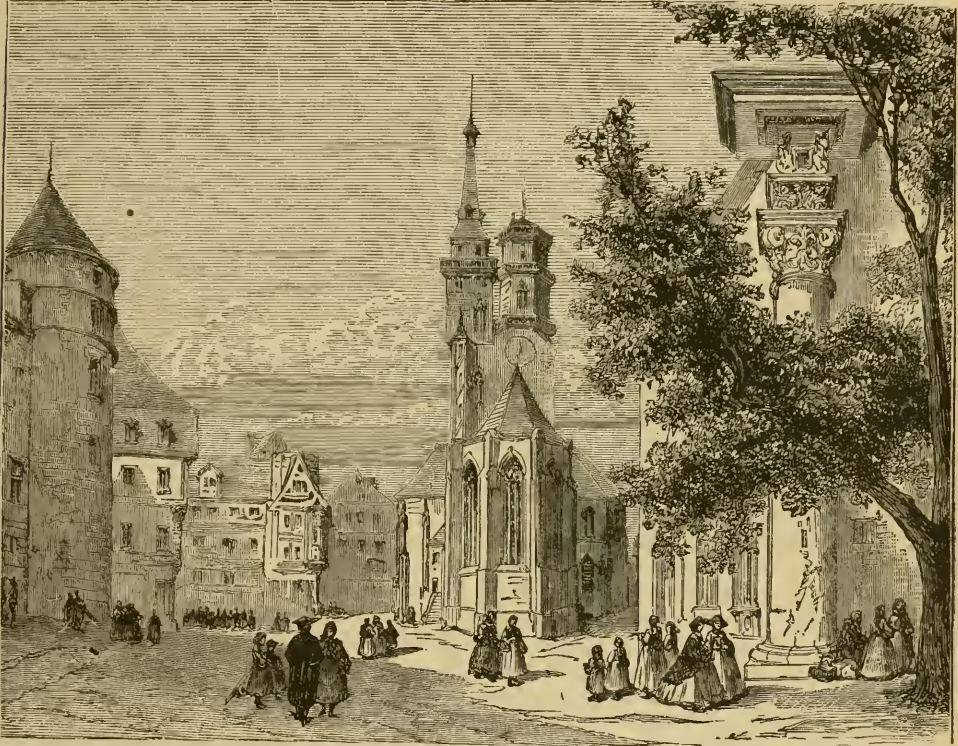
Gustavus established his head-quarters at Mayence. His approach to that river, however, caused the French king to suspect his sincerity, and the Elector of Treves was induced to decline the protection of the Swedish king and to admit a French garrison into the impregnable fortress of Ehrenbreitstein. Gustavus gave the French no real ground for their suspicions, however, for as soon as he had cleared the Palatinate of the Spaniards, he set out on his return march to Franconia. Upon his arrival at Nuremberg, he was greeted as the saviour of the freedom of Germany. From Nuremberg he proceeded to the Danube, which he crossed, and, after taking Donauwerth, drove back the imperial army under Tilly to the Lech. Nothing but this river lay between the king and Bavaria, and Tilly exerted all his skill to prevent him from crossing it; but by a bold and rapid movement the Swedish army forced the passage of the river. Tilly was mortally wounded in the engagement, and Gustavus advanced to Munich and occupied that city. Maximilian of Bavaria fled to Regensburg.

The danger which threatened the Emperor Ferdinand was now very great, and it seemed that all that he had secured during his reign was about to be wrested from him. Tilly was dead, and he had no commander capable of opposing the great Gustavus. The Saxons had overrun Bohemia, and Gustavus was at Munich. In this emergency the emperor had but one alternative—to recall Wallenstein, and much as he felt the humiliating necessity, he was forced to accept it. Wallenstein had been plotting for this result, and had secretly aided the Saxons in their conquest of Bohemia for the purpose of compelling the emperor to recall him. When appealed to by Ferdinand, he haughtily declared his reluctance to return to a position from which he had been unjustly removed, and only consented to accept the command upon conditions which were both insulting and dangerous to the emperor. Wallenstein demanded that he should have supreme power; that the emperor should not interfere with or give orders to the army under any circumstances; that no prince of the house of Austria should be with the army; that the emperor should make no military appointments; and that Wallenstein should

have the management of all confiscated estates. Wallenstein had fully determined upon his future course. Ambition and revenge were his motives, and he accepted the imperial commission only that he might betray his ungrateful master and make his ruin the means of establishing his own power. He meant to drive back the Swedes, and then bring the empire to his feet, and in the end seize the imperial crown.

As soon as it was known that Wallenstein was in command again, troops rallied

to any share of power in his army, and a fortified camp was erected within a few miles of the Swedish line. Both armies remained inactive for nine weeks, both suffering severely from disease. At last Gustavus, finding that he could not draw his adversary from his camp, stormed his intrenchments, and was repulsed with severe loss. A little later the Swedish king withdrew from Nuremberg and moved into Bavaria. Wallenstein, much pleased to see his old enemy Maximilian well beaten by the Swedes, made no attempt to follow



VIEW IN STUTTGART.

in large numbers to his standard, and in a short time he had collected an army of 40,000 men. He quickly drove the Saxons out of Bohemia (1632), and at the urgent appeal of the emperor turned into Bavaria to rid his old enemy Maximilian of the Swedish army. He endeavored to seize Nuremberg, which would place him between Gustavus and the Baltic; but the Swedish king by a rapid retreat reached that place before him. The Bavarian forces were placed under the command of Wallenstein, who sternly refused to admit Maximilian

them, but marched into Saxony, intending to reduce that country. About the same time a revolt of the Austrian peasants gave Gustavus an excellent opportunity to advance upon Vienna itself, which must have fallen before him; but as he received news that Wallenstein was pressing the Saxons very hard, he sacrificed his own interests to those of the elector, and by a rapid march northward reached Lutzen on the 15th of November, 1632.

Wallenstein already held a strong position on the plain of Lutzen, where he re-

solved to await the Swedish attack. The battle was joined on the morning of the 16th, and was stubbornly contested. Gustavus was mortally wounded while leading a calvary charge, but his troops, led by Duke Bernhard, of Saxe Weimar, fought with renewed fury to avenge his death, and after nine hours of hard fighting, Wallenstein was obliged to withdraw from the field, leaving all his artillery in the hands of the Swedes. The victory was dearly purchased, for in losing Gustavus Christendom lost one of its truest and purest heroes, the "first and only *just* conqueror that the world has produced."

In March, 1633, a congress of the Protestant powers of Germany, and the ambassadors of France, England, Sweden and Holland, was held at Heilbronn, to take such action as the death of the King of Sweden demanded. It was agreed that Count Oxenstiern, who was administering the government of Sweden during the minority of the young queen, should be vested with the same dignity and powers that Gustavus had held as protector of the Protestant religion in opposition to the emperor and the Catholic League. Frederick, the Elector Palatine, had died since the battle of Lutzen, and provision was now made for his children by securing to them, under the guardianship of their uncle, the territories of the Palatinate which had been won back by the Swedish king. The bishoprics of Bamberg and Wurtzburg were erected into the duchy of Franconia, which was conferred upon Duke Bernhard, of Saxe Weimar. The duke captured the important city of Ratisbon a few months later, and thus gained command of the Danube.

After the death of Gustavus the war went on, the Protestant forces being commanded by the Swedish General Horn and Duke Bernhard, of Weimar. Wallenstein displayed scarcely any of his accustomed vigor in the campaign of 1633, and gave great dissatisfaction to the emperor, who had begun to suspect the fidelity of his commander. As time passed on it became more and more apparent that Wallenstein was seeking to make himself King of Bohemia, and his dismissal was demanded by his enemies, who constituted a powerful party both at court and in the army. Although the emperor kept up a friendly correspondence with Wallenstein to the last, the latter was informed by his spies of the progress of matters at court. He thought,

however, that in the event of an open rupture with the emperor, he could depend upon the fidelity of his army, the principal officers of which had sworn to stand by him to the last drop of their blood. Ferdinand was afraid to proceed to open hostilities, and sought to accomplish his ends by treachery, and at last succeeded so well that in February, 1634, Wallenstein was assassinated at his head-quarters in Eger by some officers of an Irish regiment. The chief instrument of the emperor in this dastardly conspiracy was Count Piccolomini, an Italian, whom Wallenstein regarded as his best friend. Thus perished one of the most remarkable men Germany ever produced. However treasonable his designs may have been, he had not yet put them in execution, and he had laid the emperor under the most sacred obligations of gratitude to him by twice preserving his crown when all seemed lost. Ferdinand conferred liberal rewards upon the assassins, and publicly thanked them, and showed his gratitude to Wallenstein by ordering three thousand masses to be sung for the repose of his soul.

The command of the imperial army was conferred upon King Ferdinand of Bohemia, the emperor's son, who was soon joined by the Cardinal Infant Ferdinand of Spain, with an army from Italy. On the 26th and 27th of August, 1634, a great battle was fought at Nordlingen, in which the Swedish army was routed with terrible loss, its commander, General Horn, being among the prisoners. This defeat was soon followed by a treaty of peace between the Elector of Saxony and the emperor, and many other Protestant princes made haste to desert the cause and secure a reconciliation with the emperor. There was a fair prospect for a general peace, but it was prevented by the intervention of France. Cardinal Richelieu, although a prince of the Catholic Church, was determined to humble the house of Austria. He had long watched the struggle, and he now decided to intervene actively, and negotiated a treaty with Oxenstiern, the Swedish chancellor, in which he agreed to aid Sweden with men and money, in return for which France was to be allowed to possess herself of certain designated territory in Germany. In accordance with this arrangement Duke Bernhard of Weimar entered the French service, and collected an army in the Rhine country, while the campaign in Saxony and

Thuringia was conducted by the Swedish General Banner.

In 1637 the Emperor Ferdinand II. died, and was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand III. The war went on vigorously. It had been begun by the Emperor Ferdinand II. to destroy Protestantism and render the imperial power absolute in Germany; it was continued by Ferdinand III. to save what he could of the imperial dominions from the Swedes and the French. He was a more tolerant prince than his father, and was less under the influence of the Spaniards and the Jesuits, and he sincerely desired peace. Nevertheless he prosecuted the war with vigor, and compelled the Swedish General Banner to raise the siege of Leipzig and retreat into Pomerania.

The war had changed its character. Under Gustavus the Swedish army maintained a high state of discipline and scrupulously respected the rights of the people of the countries in which their operations were conducted. Now that the firm hand of the king was withdrawn, these same troops became noted for their excesses, which they carried to such a point that their commander, Banner, himself an unmitigated profligate, declared that it would not surprise him if the earth should open and swallow up his army for its cruelties. The German armies on both sides were usually without pay, and with no regular system of supplies. All the armies engaged in the struggle lived upon the country through which they passed, robbing the inhabitants and destroying their property with a recklessness which brought starvation and all its horrors to thousands of the wretched people among whose homes the military operations were conducted.

In 1639 Duke Bernhard died, and his conquests on the upper Rhine fell into the hands of France. The Palatinate was the scene of constant hostilities. England and Holland, whose rulers were the nearest relatives of the young Elector Palatine, undertook to aid him in the defence of his possessions, but the Dutch army sent to his assistance was defeated by the imperialist forces, and his younger brother, Prince Rupert, afterwards famous in the civil war in England, was made a prisoner and retained in Germany for some time.

In the meantime the Swedes had recovered from their losses in the north. In 1638 they defeated the imperial army at Elsterburg, and the Saxons at Chemnitz. Fol-

lowing up these successes, they captured Pirna, which they burned, and ravaged Bohemia with fire and sword. More than a thousand castles and villages were destroyed by them. In 1641 Banner, by a splendid march through the upper Palatinate, suddenly attacked Ratisbon, where the emperor was holding a diet, and the city escaped capture only in consequence of a thaw, which prevented the Swedes from passing the Danube.

In May, 1641, General Banner died, and was succeeded by General Tortenson, the most gifted of all the lieutenants of Gustavus Adolphus. Until now the Austrian territories had escaped the sufferings of the war. Tortenson at once invaded them and soon made himself master of Glogau, Schweidnitz, and Olmutz. He then laid siege to Leipzig. An army was sent to its relief under the Archduke Leopold, but was defeated with terrible loss on the site of the great victory won by Gustavus in 1631. Three weeks later Leipzig capitulated, and was obliged to ransom itself by the payment of a heavy contribution. The winter which followed was severe, but the Swedish army continued its operations. Freidburg was attacked by them, and an imperial army was compelled to take the field to defend it against them. Tortenson raised the siege, and by a swift movement through Bohemia compelled the imperialists to abandon the siege of Olmutz. This accomplished, he constructed a fortified camp near Olmutz, from which he commanded the whole of Moravia. His foraging parties extended their ravages up to the gates of Vienna.

The French were equally successful on the Rhine. We shall relate their conquests in the French history of this period. In 1644 their armies, under Condé and Turenne, won the whole valley of the Rhine from Basle to Coblenz. In 1645 Condé defeated the Bavarians at Nördlingen, and won that town and Dinkelsbühl for France. Turenne won great successes in Flanders, and also captured Treves, which was restored to the Elector Archbishop, who had long been a prisoner. In 1646 Turenne and Wrangel, with an army of French and Swedes, inflicted a stinging defeat upon the imperialists near Augsburg, and overran Bavaria, inflicting fearful sufferings upon the people. Condé won a brilliant victory over the Archduke Leopold at Lens, and the Swedish army under

Charles Gustavus, advancing into Bohemia, assailed Prague, without accomplishing anything of a decisive nature. Matters were in this condition when the war closed.

Negotiations for a general peace had been begun in 1643. The obstacles to a treaty were raised chiefly by France and Sweden, who claimed large rewards for their services during the struggle. At last, however, on the 24th of October, 1648, a treaty, known as the *Peace of Westphalia*, was concluded between the parties to the struggle, and the Thirty Years' War came to an end. By the terms of the treaty the emperor conceded religious freedom in Germany, proclaimed a general amnesty, and acknowledged the sovereign rights of the several princes in peace and war. The Protestants were to retain all the religious property they had held in 1624, and were to be represented equally with Catholics in the Imperial Chamber. These concessions applied only to Germany, but in Bohemia and his hereditary Austrian dominions the emperor refused to tolerate Protestantism. The pope was greatly displeased with the treaty on account of its concessions to the Protestants, and subsequently issued a bull declaring it null and void. The upper Palatinate was retained by the Elector of Bavaria, but the "Palatinate of the Rhine" was confirmed to Charles Louis, the son of the deposed Elector Frederick V., and a new electoral title was created for him. The Dutch and Swiss republics were recognized as independent states. Western Pomerania, Steitin, Wismar, the sees of Bremen and Verden were ceded to Sweden, which thus became possessed of the most important points on the Baltic and North seas. By the acquisition of this territory the Swedish sovereign became a prince of the empire, with three votes in the diet. France was confirmed in her possession of the Lorraine bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, and was given all that part of Alsace which belonged to Austria, the Sundgau, Breisach, the fortress of Pignerol, and the prefecture of ten imperial cities. The Elector of Brandenburg received East Pomerania, the archbishopric of Magdeburg, and the bishoprics of Halberstadt, Minden, and Kamin.

The treaty of Westphalia was the first effort to reconstruct the European system of states by diplomacy. It was fatal to the empire, which from this time existed in Germany only in name. Instead of the

compact realm which Ferdinand II. had hoped to establish, Germany was split up into several hundred petty sovereignties, each with all the distinctive machinery of a separate state, and bound together in a nominal confederacy, with scarcely a shadow of national feeling. The international authority of the emperor was at an end. The power to conclude peace or war, to build fortifications, to raise armies, or to levy contributions for their support, was taken from him and conferred upon the diet, which was composed of the envoys of the princes of Germany and the representatives of fifty-three free cities. The diet was required to meet at fixed times and at a designated place. Among the results of the war may be mentioned the dissolution of the League of the Hanse towns in 1630, because of the inability of the towns to pay the expenses in which the league involved them.

Germany emerged from the Thirty Years' War in a terribly crippled condition. Between one-half and two-thirds of the German people perished during the struggle. The whole country had been laid waste, many cities were in ruins, trade was almost destroyed, and poverty was general. No part of Europe has ever suffered so terribly; yet in spite of this, neither party in Germany was satisfied with the treaty. The Protestants felt that they had not received the rights to which they were entitled, and the Catholics denounced the treaty because it conceded too much to the Protestants. The emperor was obliged to forbid the publication in his dominions of the bull of Pope Innocent X., which pronounced the treaty "null, invalid, iniquitous, and void of all power and effect." The necessity of peace was imperative, and the bull was disregarded by all the Catholic powers.

CHAPTER VI.

FROM THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA TO THE DEATH OF FREDERICK THE GREAT.

Reign of Ferdinand III.—Leopold I.—Louis XIV. of France Seeks the Imperial Dignity—Growth of Prussia—Frederick William the Great, Elector—Joins the Alliance against Louis XIV.—Defeats the Swedes at Fehrbellin—Louis XIV. Seizes Strasburg—Leopold Oppresses the Hungarian Protestants—They Ask and Receive Aid from the Turks—Siege of Vienna—New War with France—Brutality of the French Soldiers—The Peace of Ryswick—The Elector of Brandenburg Becomes King of Prussia—The War of the Spanish Suc-

cession—The Electors of Bavaria and Cologne Join France—Marlborough and Prince Eugene—Battle of Blenheim—Joseph I. Emperor—His Vigorous Measures—Prince Eugene in Italy—His Victories—Joins Marlborough in the Netherlands—Battles of Oudenarde and Malplaquet—Charles VI. Emperor—The Peace of Utrecht—Close of the War by the Treaty of Rastadt—The Pragmatic Sanction—War with the Turks—Lorraine given up to Stanislaus Leszczyński—Maria Theresa—Efforts to Strip her of her Dominions—Rapid Growth of Prussia—Frederick William I.—A Brutal King—The Tobacco College—Harsh Treatment of the Crown Prince—Frederick the Great Becomes King—His Government—Claims Silesia—Invades that Country—The War of the Austrian Succession—Desperate Situation of Maria Theresa—Her Appeal to the Nobles of Hungary—Progress of the War—Peace with Prussia—Successes of the Forces of Maria Theresa—The Second Silesian War—Death of Charles VII.—Peace Between Bavaria, Prussia, Saxony, and Austria—Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle—Francis I. Emperor—Home Government of Frederick the Great—Maria Theresa Determines to Regain Silesia—Frederick Forms an Alliance with England—The League Against Prussia—Frederick Invades Saxony and Begins the Seven Years' War—Battle of Losowitz—Victory of Frederick near Prague—He is Defeated at Kolin—Invasion of Prussia by the Allies—Desperate Situation of Frederick—His Firmness—Battles of Rossbach and Leuthen—Frederick Receives Aid from England—Beats the Russians at Zorndoff—Is Defeated at Hochkirchen—Frederick's Cause Seems Hopeless—His Heroism—Is Defeated at Kunersdorf—His Great Victory at Leignitz—Berlin Occupied by the Austrians and Russians—Movements of Prince Henry and Frederick in 1761—Change in the Policy of Russia—Battles of Buckersdorf and Freiberg—Peace of Hubertsberg—Results of the Seven Years' War—Death of Francis I.—Partition of Poland—Death of Maria Theresa—Joseph II. Emperor—Death of Frederick the Great.

THE remainder of the reign of Ferdinand III. was uneventful. He died in 1657, and was succeeded by his son, Leopold I. Louis XIV. of France was very anxious to obtain the imperial dignity, and endeavored to bribe the electoral college, but the temporal electors refused his offers, and chose Leopold. The French king never forgave his defeat, and throughout his entire reign sought to humble and weaken the empire, and to enrich himself at its expense. Leopold was a weak, well-meaning and incompetent sovereign, and his reign was mainly a period of disaster. These troubles were aggravated by the indifference which the German states manifested to the interests of the empire. In 1667 Louis XIV. invaded the Netherlands for the purpose of wresting a part of that country from Spain. No German state took part in the quarrel, and by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1669, Spain was com-

pelled to relinquish a portion of her possessions in that quarter.

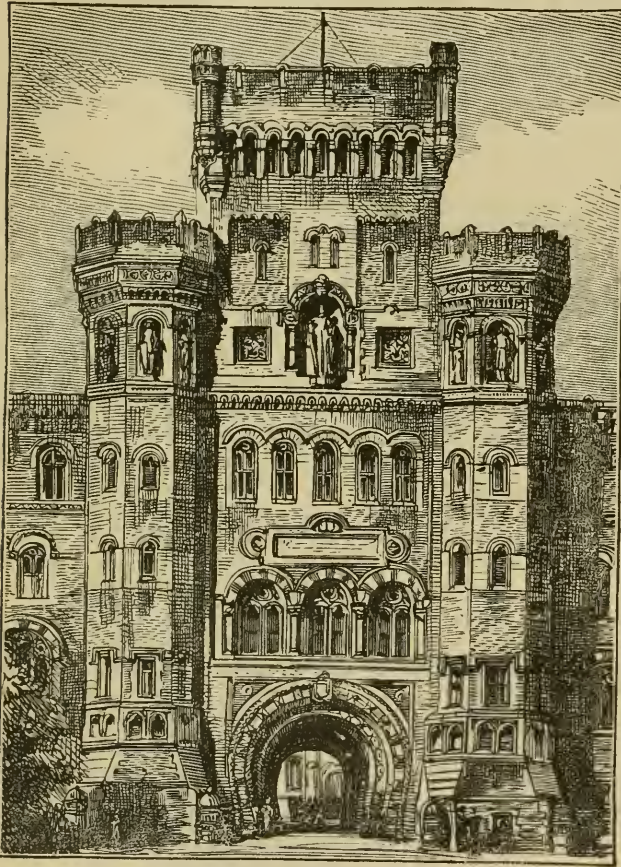
In the meantime Prussia had been steadily growing in territory and in strength. By the treaty of Welau, concluded in 1657, Prussia became independent of Poland, and in 1666 the duchy of Cleve and the counties of Mark and Ravensberg were added to the Prussian dominions. These advances were made under the guidance of Frederick William, Elector of Brandenburg, called the Great Elector, who was by far the ablest of the German princes of his day. He devoted himself to the task of improving the fortunes of Prussia, and under him the little state fairly began its remarkable advance to power and prosperity. In 1672 Louis XIV. declared war against the united provinces. Frederick William, who had long been suspicious of France, now had serious cause to fear that the French king would seek to absorb the new possessions of Prussia, and he joined the united provinces against him. The emperor and King Charles of Spain did likewise. The imperial army was placed under the command of Montecuculi, an able general. The chief minister of the emperor was Prince Lobkowitz, who was in the pay of the French king. The spiritual electors and the Bishop of Münster were in open sympathy with Louis. These constituted a powerful cabal, and hampered the movements of the army to such an extent that Frederick William became disgusted, and made peace with the French in 1673. The emperor was obliged to dismiss Prince Lobkowitz at length, and then Montecuculi was able to act with more freedom. He won some successes on the lower Rhine, but in the upper Rhine country the French commander Turenne gained an important victory over the Austrians. In 1674 it became necessary for the Elector Frederick William to take sides with one party or another, and he again joined the alliance against France. Denmark also became a member of it. About the same time Sweden made an alliance with France, and sent an army into Brandenburg. Several other German princes took sides with the French king. The action of Sweden compelled the great elector to leave the Rhine and defend his own country. In 1675 he won a decisive victory over the Swedes at Fehrbellin, and followed up this success by wresting from them nearly all of Pomerania. In 1678

the treaty of Nimwegen was signed between France, the united provinces, and Spain, and the war was thus confined to the emperor and the French king. Peace was made between them in 1679. The emperor restored Freiburg in Breisgau to the French, and Frederick William gave back to the Swedes nearly all the territory he had won from them in Pomerania. The great elector devoted the remainder of his life to advancing the interests of his country, and

south Germany. He at once proceeded to render it impregnable, and in spite of the universal protest of Germany, held on to it. It was retained by France until 1870.

The emperor was unable to prevent these outrages, as his energies were absorbed in a war with the Hungarians and the Turks. Leopold treated the Hungarian Protestants with such severity that they were driven to despair. Their only friend was Louis XIV. of France, who, though a bigoted Catholic, aided them as a means of weakening the empire. In their extremity the Hungarians asked and received aid of the Turks, who were also urged by Louis to attack Austria. In 1683 a powerful Turkish army entered Hungary, and advanced rapidly upon Vienna. The emperor and many of the people fled, but the city made a gallant defence of several months under Count Rudiger of Slaterenberg. When it was on the point of yielding it was saved by the arrival of an army under Charles, Duke of Lorraine, and John Sobieski, King of Poland. The Turks were at once attacked, and driven from their camp by Sobieski. They retreated into their own country. The war was continued, and after several defeats the sultan consented to make peace. The treaty of Carlowitz, signed in 1699, closed the war.

In the meantime war had broken out again between the emperor and France. Louis began the contest on the pretext that his nominee for the dignity of Elector of Cologne had not been appointed. The diet now came to the assistance of Leopold, and declared war against France. The French army entered the Palatinate, and by the direct orders of the king laid waste that beautiful country. Towns and farm-houses were burned, and the people were made to suffer the most horrible outrages. Heidelberg and its splendid castle were destroyed; the tombs of the emperors at Spire were broken open, the bones of the "great dead"



IMPERIAL ARSENAL, VIENNA.

is generally regarded as one of the ablest rulers of Prussia, and the founder of her present prosperity.

Although pledged to peace by the treaty of Nimwegen, Louis XIV. did not cease to annoy Germany. Under pretence that the Austrian possessions in Alsace had not been entirely delivered to France, he took possession of many towns on both sides of the Rhine, and in 1681 suddenly seized the important city of Strasburg, the key to all

were scattered about, and their silver coffins were stolen. These and similar outrages aroused a bitter hatred of the French throughout all Germany—a feeling which has never since died out. The emperor shook off his indolence, and made vigorous efforts to punish the French. He was ably supported by Frederick of Brandenburg, the son of the great elector, and the other German princes, and a coalition of the European powers, under the leadership of William III. of England, was formed against France. We shall relate the events of this struggle elsewhere. It lasted seven years, with varying success, and was closed by the peace of Ryswick, between France, England, Spain, and Holland, in 1697. The emperor at first held aloof, but at length gave his sanction to the treaty. France surrendered Freiburg, Breisach, Philipshurg, and the towns on the right bank of the Rhine, but kept Strasburg. Germany agreed to maintain the Catholic religion in the surrendered towns.

Frederick William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, was succeeded by his son Frederick III. This prince was dissatisfied with his electoral dignity, and was ambitious of higher honors. With the consent of the emperor he erected his dominions into the kingdom of Prussia. He could not become King of Brandenburg, because as elector of that country he owed a nominal allegiance to the emperor; but as Duke of Prussia he was independent. Hence he chose to call himself King of Prussia. He was crowned with great splendor at Königsberg on the 18th of January, 1701. This event, in reality one of the most important of the century, attracted very little attention at the time.

The intrigues of the European powers for the division of the Spanish dominions, and the sudden death of the Electoral Prince of Bavaria, are related in our account of the history of France during the last century. Charles II. of Spain died on the 11th of November, 1700. He was induced a short while before his death, and very reluctantly, to declare Philip of Anjou, the grandson of Louis XIV., his successor. The emperor refused to abide by this appointment, and claimed the Spanish throne for his son, the Archduke Charles, the son of Margaret Theresa, the sister of Charles II. of Spain. The Protestant powers took up the cause of the emperor, as they dreaded to see the Bourbons in possession

of the crowns of France and Spain. Such a concentration of power in the hands of this family they believed would render it dangerous to the peace of Europe. They had all come to regard Louis XIV. as their great enemy, and they dreaded the success of any movement that could add to his power. The emperor possessed a decided advantage over his rivals, in having for the commander of his army the illustrious soldier, Prince Eugene of Savoy, whose splendid exploits against the Turks in the last years of the seventeenth century had won him the baton of a field-marshal. The new kingdom of Prussia had also engaged to support the emperor in consideration of his consent to its erection. The "War of the Spanish Succession" began in May, 1701, in the passage of the Alps by Prince Eugene, and his entrance into Lombardy with an army of Austrian, Prussian, and Hanoverian troops. Marshal Catinat, the French commander, was beaten, and the French were driven out of the region between the Adige and the Adda. Catinat was succeeded by Marshal Villeroy, but he was signally defeated by Eugene at Chiari and Cremona. England and Holland now entered into an alliance with the emperor. The death of William III. of England, in March, 1702, for a while disconcerted the allies; but his successor, Queen Anne, promptly announced her intention to continue William's policy, and appointed Lord Marlborough to the command of her forces. On the 2d of October, 1702, the states of the empire formally declared war against France. The Elector of Bavaria and his brother, the Elector of Cologne, at the same time entered into a treaty of alliance with France, and early in 1703 the French crossed the Rhine and joined the Bavarian troops. Marshal Villars, the French commander, proposed to the elector to march at once upon Vienna; but Maximilian shrank from so bold a movement, and undertook an expedition into the Tyrol. He had some slight successes, and made himself master of Innsbruck, but was at length driven out of the Tyrol by the people.

In 1704 Marlborough and Prince Eugene united their forces and invaded the Bavarian territory, and on the 13th of August, 1704, defeated the French and Bavarian forces in the great battle of Blenheim, near Hochstadt. Among the prisoners was the French commander, Marshal Tallard. The French were compelled in consequence of

their defeat to withdraw from Germany. The Elector of Bavaria fled to the Netherlands, and his dominions were occupied by the imperial army. Marlborough was created a prince of the empire as a reward for his great services. For some years he had been in supreme command of the imperial forces, as the Emperor Leopold I., while esteeming Prince Eugene for his great ability, did not altogether trust him.

In 1705 the Emperor Leopold I. died, and was succeeded by his son Joseph I., a man of stronger and more energetic character. He differed from his father in another respect also: he had perfect confidence in Prince Eugene and allowed him a wider field for the display of his talents. He continued the war with France, and found time also to crush several outbreaks in Hungary. The cruelties of the Austrian army of occupation drove the Bavarians into revolt. The emperor succeeded in quelling this outbreak after a severe struggle. The Electors of Bavaria and Cologne were put to the ban of the empire, and the emperor resolved to put an end to the existence of Bavaria as a nation. Its territories were divided among several of the German princes, and the upper Palatinate was restored to the Elector Palatine, from whom it had been taken in the Thirty Years' War.

Prince Eugene had been sent into Italy to drive the French out of that country, but in August, 1705, was defeated by the Duke of Vendome at Cassano, and again at Calcinato, in April, 1706. He repaired these reverses, however, by a brilliant victory over the French before Turin on the 7th of September, 1706. In consequence of this victory all Lombardy submitted to the imperialists, and the Archduke Charles was proclaimed at Milan. In March, 1707, a convention was signed with the French by which they agreed to evacuate the whole of northern Italy. Three months later the imperialists captured Naples, and the Austrian archduke was acknowledged King of the Two Sicilies, as Charles III. Prince Eugene now marched into the Netherlands and united his forces with those of Marlborough. The allied commanders at once assumed the offensive, and on the 11th of July, 1708, defeated the French in the great battle of Oudenarde. On the 11th of September, 1709, they gained the great victory of Malplaquet, the most stubbornly contested battle of the war.

The Emperor Joseph I. died on the 17th of April, 1711, and was succeeded by his brother, the Archduke Charles, who thus became the Emperor Charles VI. Charles already held the Spanish Netherlands, the Two Sicilies, and Milan, and the allies now began to consider that the acquisition of Spain, in addition to his imperial and other possessions, would render him as dangerous as Louis XIV. They therefore grew lukewarm in his cause. Partly because of this conviction, and partly for reasons connected with the domestic questions of Great Britain, Marlborough was recalled to England. Negotiations were opened for a peace between France and the allies, and on the 11th of April, 1713, the treaty of Utrecht was signed. The Emperor Charles VI. refused to accept this treaty, as he declared he had been betrayed by his allies for the sake of peace. His efforts were unsuccessful in the campaign which followed, and on the 7th of March, 1714, the peace of Rastadt was signed between the empire and France and Spain. By the terms of this treaty Charles resigned his claims to the Spanish crown in favor of Philip V., but received the Spanish Netherlands, the Two Sicilies, Milan, and Sardinia. A separate treaty with France was signed at Baden on the 7th of September, 1714, by which the emperor ceded to France the imperial fortress of Landau, and granted a free pardon to the Electors of Bavaria and Cologne, and restored them to their dominions.

The reign of Charles VI. was not altogether fortunate. He had no son to inherit his possessions, and in 1713 drew up a Pragmatic Sanction, or a law which guaranteed the succession of the Austrian possessions to his daughter Maria Theresa and her heirs, in the event of the failure of the male line at his death. After considerable negotiation he succeeded in securing the acceptance of this law by the empire, and induced the leading states of Europe to guarantee its enforcement.

In 1715 a war broke out with the Turks, and lasted until 1718. The genius of Prince Eugene won substantial advantages for the empire, and by the treaty of Passarowitz, which closed the war, the Turks were compelled to surrender Belgrade and other towns, together with a considerable amount of territory, to Austria.

In 1733 Augustus II. of Poland died. The emperor and the Czar of Russia supported the claims of his son Frederick

Augustus, Elector of Saxony, while France sustained Stanislaus Leszczyński, the father-in-law of Louis XV. Out of this quarrel grew the War of the Polish Succession. It was continued until 1735, but the third treaty of Vienna was not signed until 1738. Augustus III. succeeded in obtaining the Polish crown, but the war was one of unmitigated disaster to the emperor. He was obliged to relinquish the beautiful duchy of Lorraine to Stanislaus Leszczyński, from whom the duchy passed to France and became a part of that kingdom. Francis, the reigning Duke of Lorraine, was married to Maria Theresa, the daughter of the emperor, who bestowed upon him the grand duchy of Tuscany; for which, together with Parma, Charles had been obliged to surrender the Two Sicilies. Charles VI. died on the 21st of October, 1740, and with him ended the male line of the house of Hapsburg.

Maria Theresa was twenty-four years old, and succeeded her father on the thrones of Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia. Notwithstanding the guarantee given her father by the European powers, she soon found herself opposed by nearly all of them, who sought to wrest her dominions from her and divide them among themselves. England, Russia, Prussia, and the United Netherlands gave her friendly assurances; but the French king dissembled his intentions, and the Elector of Bavaria boldly claimed the Austrian territories in his own right as a descendant of the Emperor Ferdinand II., and in right of his wife, who was the daughter of Joseph I. The King of Poland had guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction, but he now claimed the Austrian dominions in right of his wife, who was a daughter of Joseph I., and joined the secret alliance of France, Bavaria, and Spain against Maria Theresa. A little later this alliance was joined by the Kings of Prussia and Sardinia, the Elector of Cologne, and the Elector Palatine. The object of the league was to make Charles Albert of Bavaria emperor, and to divide the Austrian possessions among its various members. Thus Maria Theresa was left with only England as her ally. The Empress Elizabeth of Russia was friendly to her, but was so much engaged in a war with Sweden that she could render her no assistance. The struggle which now ensued is known as "The War of the Austrian Succession." The first blow was struck by the King of

Prussia. Before relating the events of this war, it is necessary to go back and trace the history of Prussia since the formation of the kingdom.

Under Frederick I., the founder of the monarchy, the Prussian kingdom attained the peculiar military character which has since distinguished it. He did much to develop its resources, but at the same time he kept his people poor by imposing heavy taxes upon them to enable him to support a luxurious and costly court in imitation of that of Louis XIV. of France. He was a sovereign of liberal and enlightened views, and did much for the intellectual advancement of his kingdom. He founded, among other institutions, the University of Halle and the Academy of Sciences at Berlin. He died in 1713.

Frederick William I., who succeeded his father, was a man of coarse and brutal nature, and was given to the most furious outbursts of anger. He treated his family with contempt and cruelty, and when they made him angry or opposed his wishes, did not hesitate to beat them with his stick. He regarded learning and learned men with profound contempt, which he exhibited on all possible occasions. He conducted his court with an economy which was simply an unparalleled meanness. He was an inveterate smoker, and arranged the affairs of state in what he called his "tobacco college." His generals and ministers would assemble in a plainly furnished room in the palace, each provided with a pipe, and there, amid clouds of tobacco smoke, the affairs of the kingdom were discussed and decided upon. Taxes were still high during this reign, but the economy of the king enabled him to lay by a large sum of money for the service of the state. Though he was an arbitrary tyrant, he was well served by his ministers, and under him the kingdom advanced steadily. He obtained from Sweden in 1720 the city of Stettin, the southern part of Hither-Pomerania, and the islands of Usedom and Wollin. He gave especial care to the army, and at the time of his death Prussia had a force of 80,000 splendidly equipped and organized troops. He had a passion for very tall men, and used every effort to induce them to enlist in his favorite regiment, the "Potsdam Guard." He had his agents in foreign countries, and when "giants" could not be procured in any other way, they were kidnapped.

Frederick William seemed to take an especial delight in maltreating his son, the Crown Prince Frederick, a young man of great abilities, and naturally of a warm and amiable disposition. He had acquired a considerable degree of education and culture, and his father set to work to conquer his æsthetic tastes, and convert him into a brute like himself. The process he adopted was a very cruel one, and clouded Frederick's youth with unhappiness and suffering. In 1730 the prince attempted to escape from Prussia and take refuge with his aunt, the Queen of England. His plan was discovered by his father, and he was arrested and condemned to death by a court-martial as a deserter. The king was with difficulty persuaded to commute his son's sentence to imprisonment, but Lieutenant Katte, the companion of Frederick's flight, was beheaded, and the prince was compelled to witness the execution. Such treatment as this soured the naturally pleasant disposition of Frederick, and in after life made him moody, bitter and suspicious.

Frederick William died on the 31st of May, 1740, and was succeeded by his son Frederick II., called "the Great." He was twenty-eight years old, and in vigorous health. He was possessed of great natural abilities, and was destined to become one of the greatest sovereigns of history. He at once devoted himself with diligence to the government of his kingdom, and his people soon perceived that, though he was a more enlightened prince than his father, he was none the less a king. He took all the branches of the government into his own hands, and administered each according to his own will, seeking counsel of no one, and requiring his ministers merely to record his decisions, and to execute his orders. Prussia at once felt the impulse of his vigorous policy. When the Emperor Charles VI. died, Frederick was bound by his pledge to that sovereign to support the cause of Maria Theresa; but he saw in the necessities of the young queen the opportunity to extend his territories at her expense. He had a sort of a claim to a part of Silesia, and offered through his ambassador at Vienna to support Maria Theresa, if she would relinquish this territory to him. She returned an indignant refusal to his demand. So sure had Frederick been of her refusal that he had already ventured to invade Silesia before the arrival of the Austrian answer. He quickly drove out the

Austrians, and made himself master of the country. In the spring of 1741 an Austrian army, under Marshal Neipperg, undertook to drive Frederick out of Silesia, but was defeated in the battle of Molwitz. This battle was won by the rapid and systematic firing of the Prussian infantry, a system which had been introduced into his army by Frederick William I. Frederick was nominally in command of his army, but he was still a novice in the art of war, and the victory was gained by the able Marshal Schwerin.

The battle of Molwitz made the situation of Maria Theresa almost desperate, and a little later an alliance was formed against her by France, Prussia, Bavaria, Spain, and Saxony. A French army entered Germany and united with the Bavarian forces, while the Saxon army advanced into Bohemia. The Bavarians marched into upper Austria and occupied Linz, where the elector was proclaimed Archduke of Austria. He might have taken Vienna had he moved promptly against that city, but becoming jealous of the successes of the Saxons in Bohemia, he undertook the conquest of that country. He entered Prague on the 29th of November, and was proclaimed King of Bohemia. In January, 1742, he was chosen emperor by the electors at Frankfort, and took the title of Charles VII.

In the meantime Maria Theresa had exerted herself to repair her disasters. She fled to her kingdom of Hungary for protection, and hastening to the assembled diet, with her infant son, afterwards Joseph II., in her arms, presented herself before the nobles and deputies, and appealed to them to maintain her cause. The chivalric Hungarians were deeply moved by her trust in them, and the hall rang with the cry, "Let us die for our King, Maria Theresa!" An army of 100,000 men was raised, and was joined by a strong force of Tyrolese. This force at once took the field. One division under General Khevenhüller not only reconquered upper Austria, but invaded Bavaria, and captured Munich on the very day that Charles VII. was crowned emperor. A little later an Austrian army, under Prince Charles of Lorraine, was defeated by Frederick at Czaslau. This disaster induced the queen to rid herself of her most dangerous enemy by surrendering upper Silesia and a part of lower Silesia to him. Frederick was satisfied for the time, and peace was made between Austria and



APPEAL OF MARIA THERESA TO THE HUNGARIAN DIET.

Prussia in the spring of 1742. Frederick's example was soon followed by the Elector of Saxony, and Maria Theresa had only France and Bavaria to contend with. The French were besieged in Prague by Prince Charles of Lorraine, but managed to secure their retreat and abandoned Bohemia altogether, having lost about 48,000 men in the war.

The Emperor Charles VII. was now reduced to the most humiliating condition. He was abandoned by his allies, and his hereditary capital was in possession of the Austrians. He consented to relinquish Bavaria on condition that his army should be quartered in some neutral state of the empire. The Queen of Hungary was proclaimed ruler of Bavaria; and about the same time her cause received a decided accession of strength by the decision of England to render her more efficient aid. In June, 1743, an army, under George II. of England in person, defeated the French at Dettingen.

Frederick II. was now alarmed at the successes of Austria, as he feared that in the event of the war resulting in her favor, she would seek to recover Silesia at the first opportunity. He therefore entered into an alliance, known as the Union of Frankfort, with the emperor, the King of Sweden, and the Elector Palatine. This alliance was immediately followed by what is known as the second Silesian war. Frederick in 1744 advanced into Bohemia and captured Prague. A combined army of Austrians and Saxons was sent against him, and he was driven out of Bohemia and Silesia. In the spring of 1745 Frederick regained Silesia; but in January of that year an alliance was formed between Austria, England, Saxony, and Holland against the emperor and his allies. In the same month Charles VII. died suddenly, and the state of affairs was at once changed. Maximilian Joseph, the young Elector of Bavaria, made peace with Austria, and was allowed to keep his hereditary possessions on condition of finally surrendering his pretensions to the Austrian crown and pledging his vote to Francis of Lorraine, Maria Theresa's husband, in the election for emperor. The Queen of Hungary on her part acknowledged the imperial dignity of Charles VII.

The war with the other allies went on, and Frederick this year won two signal victories over the Austrians at Hohenfriedberg and Sorr. He then rapidly overran

Lusatia, and his lieutenant, Prince Leopold of Dessau, defeated the army of General Rutowski at Kesselsdorf. Dresden surrendered without resistance, and Saxony was at the mercy of Frederick. All parties were now anxious for peace, and treaties were signed between Prussia, Saxony, and Austria, in December, 1745. The Elector of Saxony received back his dominions on payment of a large ransom, and Austria ceded Silesia to Prussia. Francis of Lorraine, Grand Duke of Tuscany, Maria Theresa's husband, had been elected emperor as Francis I. in September, 1745, and Frederick now acknowledged him as emperor. The war between Austria and France continued several years longer, and its events belong to the history of the latter country. It was brought to a close in 1748 by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. Austria retained all her German territory, but was obliged to surrender her Italian possessions of Parma and Piacenza.

For the next eight years Germany was at peace. Both Frederick and Maria Theresa, for she was the real emperor, her husband being merely an ornamental sovereign, devoted themselves to the improvement of their possessions. Frederick made great changes in his kingdom. He simplified the administration of justice, and brought it within reach of all classes. He inspected all parts of his kingdom once a year, encouraged useful industries, adorned Berlin with splendid buildings, and with works of art purchased abroad. Education was encouraged, and the king maintained a friendly correspondence with the leading literary and scientific men of France. He entertained a warm admiration for Voltaire, and in 1750 induced him to take up his residence at his court. They soon quarrelled, and Voltaire had to quit Prussia. The kingdom prospered under Frederick's wise and vigorous rule; especially the new province of Silesia, whose increased prosperity made the Empress Maria Theresa more than ever determined to regain it.

Frederick was perfectly aware of her intentions, and was assured that war was inevitable in a few years at the latest. He knew that the European powers regarded the rapid success of his kingdom with jealousy, and that he would soon be called upon to maintain his crown against them. He therefore gave great care to the army, which he maintained at the highest point of efficiency. Feeling that England, which

had hitherto aided Austria, was his natural ally, he succeeded in concluding a treaty of alliance with that kingdom in January, 1756. Austria, on the other hand, made an alliance with her old enemy, France, and this league was soon joined by Saxony and Russia. Its avowed object was the destruction of Prussia.

Frederick was secretly informed of these alliances, but he was not disheartened by the overwhelming array of force against him. The danger which threatened him brought out the great qualities of his nature in their highest perfection, and he resolved, since the war was inevitable, to gain the advantages which would arise from being the first in the field. It was all important to him that Saxony should not be held by his enemies; and as that country had joined the league against him, he resolved to attack it at once, before it was ready for the war. In August, 1756, he suddenly crossed the Saxon frontier with an army of 60,000 men, and so began the great struggle of *The Seven Years' War*. The Saxon army, 17,000 strong, at once retreated to a strong position in the valley of the Elbe, between Pirna and Königstein. Their position was immediately invested by Frederick. An Austrian army was despatched to the relief of the Saxons, but was defeated by a detachment from the Prussian army at Lowositz, on the 1st of October. The Saxons then made a desperate attempt to break through the Prussian line, but were driven back, and obliged to surrender. Frederick compelled the Saxon troops to enter his service, but they were dissatisfied, and a large number of them deserted.

The enemies of Frederick now exerted themselves to drive him out of Saxony. The diet of the empire called on the German princes to attack him as a disturber of the peace of Europe, which was not true; for, although Frederick had been the first to draw the sword, he had done so this time in self-defence. The forces of Austria, Russia, France, and all the German states save Hesse, Brunswick and Gotha, were soon in motion, and the league received a new reinforcement by the accession of Sweden to it. England collected a force of German troops on the Rhine under the Duke of Cumberland, the eldest living son of the King of England. Austria and her allies were able to bring into the field a force of over 400,000 men, while the com-

bined armies of Frederick and the Duke of Cumberland did not number half as many. Frederick did not underrate the odds against him, but hoped to atone for his inferiority in numbers by the superior discipline and efficiency of his army. His enemies were already his superiors in strength; to allow them to unite their forces would be fatal to him, and his only safety lay in adopting the daring plan of attacking them separately and in detail. He accordingly left a small force in Prussia to defend it against the Russians and the Swedes, and hastened with the bulk of his army into Bohemia. The Austrians were astounded by his sudden appearance before Prague on the 6th of May, 1757. He attacked their army under Prince Charles of Lorraine, on the same day, near Prague, and inflicted a crushing defeat upon it. A part of the Austrian force retreated to Küttenberg, where Marshal Daun was stationed with an army; but the larger part sought the protection of the fortifications of Prague. Frederick purchased his victory at a heavy cost; his most gifted lieutenant, Marshal Schwerin, was killed while leading the decisive charge.

Marshal Daun advanced to the relief of Prague, before which Frederick remained for several weeks after the battle. Frederick at once moved to meet him, and attacked him on the 8th of June, near Kolin. At the very moment of victory Frederick unwisely changed his plan of battle, and his promised success was converted into a disastrous defeat. Daun followed up his victory by overrunning the greater part of Silesia. This was the first serious reverse Frederick had encountered, and it was but the first of a series of disasters. The Russians defeated the force left for the defence of Prussia, in a great battle at Gross Jägersdorf, and a Russian fleet captured Memel. Pomerania was invaded by the Swedes. Brandenburg was open to the Austrians, who in October made a dash at Berlin, captured it, and held it for a few hours, during which they exacted a contribution from the citizens. To add to these disasters, the Duke of Cumberland placed all Westphalia in the hands of the French (whose operations will be related in the history of that country) by the dastardly convention of Klosterseven, by which he agreed to disband his army and to yield Hanover, Hesse, and the duchy of Brunswick to the French. This act at a single

blow deprived Frederick of all his allies on the continent.

The ruin of Frederick now seemed inevitable, and for a moment he gave way to

the Austrians, and were advancing into Saxony. Frederick resolved to deal them a sudden blow and drive them back, and marched at once towards the Saal. On the



FREDERICK THE GREAT.

despair, and even contemplated suicide. His true nature quickly asserted itself, however, and he set to work to repair his reverses. The French, freed by the convention of Klosterseven, had united with

5th of November he encountered the allied armies near the village of Rossbach. They were greatly superior to him in numbers, and attacked him with confidence, expecting an easy victory. Frederick displayed

more than his usual vigor on this occasion, and inflicted a terrible defeat upon the allies, and drove them from the field. This victory, one of the most memorable ever achieved by him, greatly encouraged his army, and it followed him with enthusiasm to attempt the recovery of Silesia. On the 5th of December Frederick, with a force of 30,000 men, defeated 80,000 Austrians under Charles of Lorraine, at Leuthen, inflicting upon his adversary a loss of half his army in killed, wounded and prisoners. Silesia was regained in consequence of this victory, and Frederick, who was anxious to close the war, made offers of peace to Austria. Maria Theresa refused to treat, and removed Prince Charles of Lorraine from the chief command of her armies, and bestowed it upon Marshal Daun.

A change for the advantage of Frederick now took place in the affairs of England. William Pitt became Prime Minister, and determined to conduct the war policy of England with greater vigor. The convention of Klosterseven was repudiated, and a subsidy of \$3,000,000 was paid to the King of Prussia, and he was asked to select a commander for the British forces on the continent. He named Ferdinand of Brunswick, the brother of the reigning duke, and the war was resumed against France by Great Britain and Hanover. In the course of a few months after the opening of the campaign of 1758, the French were driven out of Hanover, Brunswick, East Friesland and Hesse with great loss, and were compelled to withdraw beyond the Rhine.

Frederick had a harder task, owing to the greater number and the activity of his enemies. He attempted to seize Olmutz, but was unsuccessful. A large force of Russians invaded Prussia in the summer of 1758, and burned the town of Custrin, but failed to capture the citadel. They treated the people of the country with great cruelty. Frederick, as soon as informed of the invasion, left a force under Marshal Keith to hold Silesia, and hastened into Prussia to drive out the Russians. He came up with them at Zorndorf on the 28th of August, and at once attacked them. The battle was contested with obstinate fury all day—neither side gave quarter; but towards nightfall the Russians were driven back at all points, having lost 19,000 men and 103 cannon. They retreated into Poland.

Frederick now marched rapidly to the

relief of his brother, Prince Henry, who was hard pressed by the Austrians in Saxony. Against the advice of his best generals he took position in an exposed plain near Hochkirchen, where he was surprised on the morning of the 14th of October, by Daun, who had perceived the king's mistake. The Prussian army sustained a terrible reverse, and was obliged to retreat with a loss of 9,000 men, and all its artillery. England, France, and Prussia were now anxious to treat; but Maria Theresa, who was well supplied with money for the prosecution of the war, would listen to no proposal of peace save one based upon the ruin of Prussia. Frederick in a great measure repaired his defeat of Hochkirchen, by retreating into Silesia in such good order that Daun was unable to profit by his victory. His operations in Silesia during the rest of the year were so successful that the Austrians were obliged to evacuate that province, and take up their winter quarters in Bohemia.

The enemies of Frederick now resolved to make a determined effort to crush him, and the year 1759 witnessed the greatest disasters Prussia had yet sustained. The French made a vigorous effort to win back the territory they had lost east of the Rhine, and obliged Prince Ferdinand to retreat as far as Bremen. He now turned upon them, and on the 1st of August inflicted a sharp defeat upon them at Minden, and regained all the territory he had lost.

Frederick was not so fortunate. In the spring of 1759 the Russians in heavy force, under General Soltikoff, advanced towards the Oder, and the Austrian army under Daun and Loudon was strongly reinforced. Frederick put forth all his energies to prevent a junction of the Russian and Austrian forces. Hearing that the Russians had crossed the Oder, he sent General Wedel to check their advance. Wedel attacked them at Kay on the 23d of June, and was beaten, and the junction of the Russian and Austrian armies was soon after effected. The situation of Frederick was now critical, and he resolved to attack the combined armies with his whole force. It seemed to him that the safety of his kingdom required him to stake everything upon a single supreme effort. He made provision for the succession of his brother Henry to the crown in case of his death, and for his regency in case he should be taken prisoner, and solemnly charged him not to conclude, under any circumstances, a peace

disgraceful to Prussia. These arrangements made, he marched against the allies, and encountered them on the 12th of August, near Kunersdorf. He was defeated after a desperate struggle, and his army was put to flight, with a loss of 17,000 men. The misfortune was so great that Frederick believed himself ruined. He subsequently declared that had the allies improved their advantage Prussia must have succumbed. The Russian General Soltikoff was jealous of the Austrians, however, and withdrew without seeking to follow up his success. This gave Frederick an opportunity to rally his forces, and take the field again; but his misfortunes continued. Dresden was surrendered to the Austrians, and a little later General Fink was obliged to surrender his command of 5,000 men to the Austrians at Maxen. Marshal Daun occupied Dresden as his winter quarters, and though Frederick continued to annoy him for a while, the cold at length drove him into winter quarters in 1760.

The spring of 1760 found Frederick in the midst of disasters from which there seemed no escape. His enemies were gradually closing round him, and his resources, never very large, were almost exhausted. In the summer of this year General Fouqué, who had been intrusted with the defence of Silesia, was defeated at Landsbut by the Austrians with a loss of 10,000 men, and was made a prisoner. The French about the same time defeated Prince Ferdinand at Corbach and Kloster, and held the electorate of Hanover during the remainder of the year. Frederick attempted to regain Dresden, but was obliged by Daun to raise the siege. He then marched into Silesia, where General Loudon was gaining considerable success. He was closely followed by the Austrians under Daun and Lasci, who marched on either side of his army. At Leignitz they effected a junction with Loudon, and determined to surround and annihilate the Prussian army. On the 15th of August they attacked Frederick, and in the bloody battle of Leignitz, which ensued, the Prussian king gained one of his most memorable victories. The result of this battle was the deliverance of Silesia from the presence of the enemy. Frederick's troubles were not yet ended, however. A force of Russians and Austrians marched into Prussia, and on the 4th of October entered Berlin. They held the city but a few days, and retreated upon hearing a rumor

that Frederick was advancing by forced marches to the relief of his capital. They destroyed its founderies and arsenals, and levied a heavy contribution upon the citizens. Frederick now resolved to risk everything for the recovery of Saxony, and on the 3d of October, with an inferior force, stormed Daun's position at Torgau, and gained a victory which made him master of the greater part of Saxony. Daun went into winter quarters at Dresden; while Frederick wintered at Leipzig.

The Austrian army under Marshal Daun exerted itself in the summer of 1761 to recover that portion of Saxony which had been overrun by the Prussians, but Daun found his plans thwarted at every step by Prince Henry of Prussia, who, Frederick afterwards declared, was the only general that made no mistakes during the war. The energies of Frederick were fully occupied during the greater part of the year in seeking to prevent the junction of the Russian army under Butterlin with the Austrians under Loudon. In spite of his efforts they effected a junction on the 12th of August, and for some time held Frederick in check. Their jealousy of each other was so great that they were unable to accomplish anything. At length Loudon moved off to Schweidnitz, which fell into his hands on the 1st of October. He thus secured the greater part of Silesia, and the Russians passed the winter in Pomerania. On the 1st of December the important town of Colberg surrendered to them.

The withdrawal of William Pitt from the English ministry was a severe blow to Frederick. Pitt had been his devoted friend; Lord Bute, Pitt's successor, was his determined enemy. The new ministry withdrew the subsidy Pitt had paid him, and offered to abandon Prussia if Austria would make peace. Maria Theresa would not listen to the proposal, as she believed herself on the point of recovering Silesia.

Fortunately for Frederick the Empress Elizabeth of Russia died on the 5th of January, 1762. Her successor, Peter III., was an ardent admirer of Frederick, and at once made peace and entered into an alliance with him. Sweden also made peace with Frederick, who was thus enabled to turn all his resources to the effort of defeating Austria. Being joined by his Russian allies, he advanced upon the Austrians at Buckersdorf. While the armies were on the march, news was received that Peter

III. had been murdered, and his wife, the Empress Catharine II., who succeeded him, ordered the Russian army to proceed at once to Poland. Frederick succeeded in inducing the Russian commander to conceal his instructions for three days, and the allies in the interval attacked and defeated the Austrians at Buckersdorf, and gained a complete victory. The Russians then withdrew into Poland, and Frederick laid siege to the important town of Schweidnitz, and recaptured it on the 9th of October. On the 29th of the same month Prince Henry defeated the Austrians at Freiberg; and these victories were rendered all the more effective by the successes of Prince Ferdinand over the French. In the winter the Prussians overran Franconia, Bavaria, and Suabia, and compelled the hostile German princes to withdraw their forces from the imperial army, and make peace. The empress-queen was thus left alone to continue the war, for France, disheartened by her reverses, was about to withdraw from the struggle. Negotiations were therefore begun for peace, and this time were successful, and the treaty of Hubertsherg was signed on the 15th of February, 1763, between Austria and Saxony on the one hand, and Prussia on the other. Maria Theresa resigned her claim to Silesia and left it in possession of Prussia, and Frederick agreed to cast his vote for her son, the Archduke Joseph, at the next election for emperor.

The Seven Years' War had demanded great sacrifices of Prussia, but it was on the whole a gain to her. She entered it a small, insignificant kingdom; she emerged from it one of the leading military powers of Europe, feared and respected by her neighbors, and strong at home. She also took her position as the rival of Austria, for the ascendancy in Germany, a rivalry which was destined to find a practical settlement in our own day.

Under the vigorous rule of Frederick the Great, Prussia improved rapidly. The sufferers by the war were aided to regain their prosperity by wise gifts of money and corn. Order was restored, and the losses of the war were before many years forgotten in the new reign of prosperity which Frederick's liberal and disinterested measures inaugurated. Silesia especially rewarded his fostering care, and grew rapidly in wealth and population.

In 1765 the Emperor Francis I. died, and was succeeded by his son Joseph II.

The Empress Maria Theresa continued during her lifetime the real ruler of the empire. Seven years later Austria and Prussia united with Russia in enriching themselves at the expense of Poland. That country had fallen into a state of chronic anarchy, and taking advantage of its weakness, the three powers named seized a large part of it, and divided it among themselves. Russia received Polish Livonia and the country between the upper waters of the Dwina and Dnieper; Austria obtained East Galicia and Lodomeria; and Prussia received all of Polish or West Prussia, save the important towns of Dantzic and Thorn, and a part of Great Poland. This acquisition joined the kingdom of Prussia to Brandenburg, and gave to Frederick a wealthy and populous district, though a smaller one than that obtained by either of his allies.

On the 29th of November, 1780, the Empress Maria Theresa died, and her son Joseph II. became the actual ruler of his dominions. He was anxious to introduce a system of reforms into them, and he cordially hated the Jesuits who had educated him. He caused over 650 monasteries and convents to be closed, and proclaimed religious toleration to all sects, the latter measure being partly due to the liberal views of the emperor, and partly to a desire to improve the industrial interests of the Austrian dominions. The papal nuncios were informed that they would henceforth be received simply as envoys from a friendly state. These measures were at once construed by the Jesuit party as an attack upon the church, and Pope Pius VI. visited Vienna in the hope of arranging a settlement with the emperor. Joseph treated him with marked coldness, and would not permit him to discuss the affairs of his dominions with him. From the church the emperor endeavored to extend his reforms to the state, and attempted to do away with the privileges of the nobility and introduce a uniform system of administering justice throughout his hereditary domains. His intentions were good, but he attempted to introduce his reforms with too much violence, forgetting that such measures are of slow growth.

His restless disposition led him to undertake long journeys to other countries, during which he visited Rome, Paris, St. Petersburg, the Crimea, and his provinces in the Netherlands. He proposed to Catharine II. of Russia that she should conquer the Turkish

dominions and establish her capital at Constantinople, while he should conquer Italy, and thus between them revive the old empires of the East and the West. At the same time he endeavored to force the German laws and language upon the Hungarians, and drove them into insurrection. Upon the death of his mother he was not crowned King of Hungary in the capital of that country, but at Vienna, to which city he removed the ancient crown of St. Stephen. He came near rushing into a war with Holland, and was only prevented from doing so by the armed intervention of France, which was an ally of that country.

In the meantime Frederick the Great died on the 17th of August, 1786, and was succeeded by his nephew Frederick William II., a weak king, who was ruled by unworthy favorites. Fortunately Prussia came to him in such excellent condition that his own unworthiness did not mar her influence in the affairs of Europe.

CHAPTER VII.

FROM THE DEATH OF FREDERICK THE GREAT TO THE FALL OF NAPOLEON I.

War Between Joseph II. and the Sultan—His Misfortunes and Death—Leopold II.—The French Revolution—Its Effect upon Germany—Francis II. Emperor—War Between Austria and France—Prussia Joins Austria—Battles of Valmy and Jemappes—Russia and Prussia Seize a Part of the Polish Territory—Revolt of the Poles—The Third Partition of Poland—The Wars of the French Revolution—The Treaty of Campo Formio—Changes in the Empire—Austria Renews the War with France—Coalition Against Napoleon—Battle of Austerlitz—The Peace of Pressburg—The Confederation of the Rhine—Napoleon's Power in Germany—Fall of the Holy Roman Empire—The Austrian Empire—War Between Prussia and France—Battle of Jena—Prussia Crushed by Napoleon—Battle of Friedland—The Treaty of Tilsit—The Kingdom of Westphalia and the Grand Duchy of Warsaw Set up by Napoleon—Austria Renews the War—Battle of Eckmühl—Ratisbon Taken by the French—Napoleon Occupies Vienna a Second Time—Battles of Aspern and Wagram—Peace of Schönbrunn—Losses of Austria—Revolt of the Tyrol—Execution of Hofer—Wise Measures of Prussia—Retreat of the French from Russia—Germany in Arms Against Napoleon—The French Driven Over the Rhine—Germany Free—Fall of Napoleon—Congress of Vienna—Return of Napoleon—Battle of Waterloo—Treaty of Vienna.

IN 1788 the Emperor Joseph II. unwisely went to war with the Turks. He took personal command of his army, but accomplished nothing, and at home troubles were thickening around him. His reformatory measures had produced only discontent and

insurrection. Nowhere were they more stubbornly resisted than in the Austrian Netherlands. A secret society was formed in those provinces in 1787 for the purpose of opposing him. Taking advantage of the French Revolution, this society, which now numbered 70,000 members, raised the standard of revolt against the emperor, and drove the imperial troops out of Flanders. A declaration of independence and an Act of Union of the Belgian United Provinces was proclaimed at Brussels in January, 1790. In Hungary the nobles, indignant at the attacks of the emperor upon their rights, incited the peasantry to revolt, and compelled Joseph to abolish all his reforms in that kingdom. The emperor sincerely desired the good of his people in introducing these measures, and their opposition caused him much sorrow. This feeling and the injuries his health had received during the campaign against the Turks brought on a fatal sickness, of which he died, almost heart-broken, on the 20th of February, 1790.

Peter Leopold, Grand Duke of Tuscany, brother of Joseph II., succeeded to the Austrian crown as Leopold II. He was a more prudent and cautious man than his brother, and at once restored the old order of affairs throughout his dominions, and so brought back peace to them. On the 20th of September, 1790, he was elected emperor.

The French Revolution caused great excitement throughout Germany, and was watched with the deepest interest. There was a party in the country which hoped it might prove the dawn of a system of genuine reforms, and that its influences might raise the people of the old world to greater freedom than they had ever enjoyed; but the kings and princes naturally regarded it with alarm. The country was full of French refugees, who, being of the aristocratic class, sought to induce the German states to take up the cause of the captive royal family of France. At last the Emperor Leopold and Frederick William II. agreed to support the French king. Leopold died in the early part of 1792, before this plan could be put in execution.

Francis II. succeeded his father, Leopold, on the imperial throne. In April, 1792, France, exasperated by the interference of Austria in her affairs, declared war against the emperor. The King of Prussia renewed with Francis the alliance he had made with

his father, and a Prussian army under the Duke of Brunswick, and accompanied by the king himself, invaded France. The events of this campaign will be related in the account of France during this period. The Prussians were defeated at Valmy, and the Austrians at Jemappes, and were driven out of the country. The result of these victories was that the Austrian Netherlands threw off their allegiance to the emperor and proclaimed a republic. The French also passed the Rhine and occupied Mayence, where they were welcomed by a large part of the people.

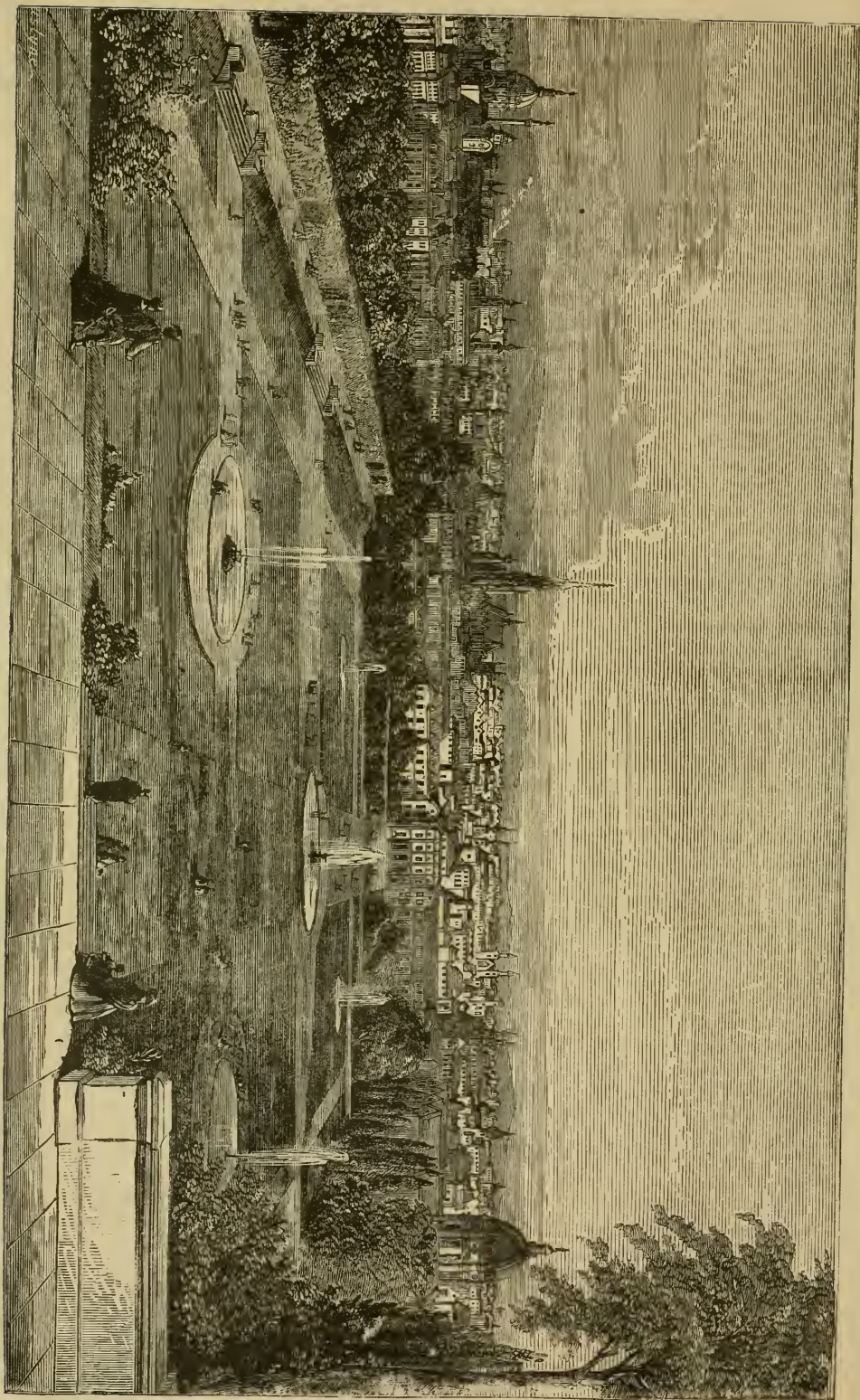
The execution of Louis XVI. was followed by a war between France, and Great Britain, Holland, and Spain. The states of the empire in a short time joined the alliance. The events of this war will be related in connection with the history of France.

During this struggle the affairs of Poland chiefly occupied the attention of the German states. In 1793, taking advantage of the helplessness of Poland, Russia and Prussia seized a part of the Polish territory, and divided it between them. Prussia received the larger part of Great Poland, and the cities of Dantzic and Thorn. This acquisition of territory by Prussia aroused the jealousy of Austria, which began to intrigue with Russia against Prussia, and carried these intrigues to such an extent that the King of Prussia gave a lukewarm support to the war against France, and seriously contemplated making peace with that country. In 1794 the Poles, under Kosciuszko, rose in revolt and tried to regain their lost territory. Prussia undertook to put down the outbreak, but it was finally crushed by the Russian forces. In 1795 a secret treaty was concluded between Russia and Austria for the third and last partition of Poland. Prussia had now become thoroughly distrustful of both of these powers, and hastened to make peace with France. On the 5th of April, 1795, the treaty of Basle was signed, by which Prussia ceded to France all her conquests on the left bank of the Rhine. A little later Hanover and Hesse-Cassel also made peace with France. Prussia was now admitted by Austria and Russia to the third partition of Poland, and obtained as her share New East Prussia and Warsaw. Austria received West Galicia.

The war between France and Austria was now confined chiefly to Italy. Napo-

leon Bonaparte was in command of the forces of the republic, and the Austrians were defeated at every point. The war was brought to a close by the treaty of Campo Formio, on the 17th of October, 1797. Austria ceded the Austrian Netherlands to France, and relinquished her claim to her Italian possessions, which were erected into the Cisalpine republic. In return for these she received Venice, Friuli, Istria, Dalmatia, and the islands along the Dalmatian coast. This treaty was distasteful to Austria, however, and she gladly joined the alliance of Russia and England against France. The war broke out again in 1799, and opened brilliantly for the allies. They were successful over the French in every direction.

The sudden return of Bonaparte from Egypt, and his resumption of the command of the French army, stayed the tide of the Austrian successes in Italy. By a rapid and daring march across the Alps, he entered Milan on the 2d of June, 1800, and on the same day the Austrians occupied Genoa. We shall be obliged to relate the events of the wars with Napoleon in detail in the French history of this period, and shall refer to them here only incidentally. On the 14th of June the Austrians were defeated in the battle of Marengo, and by this defeat lost nearly all they had gained in Italy. The successful advance of General Moreau into Germany, and his splendid victory of Hohenlinden, on the 3d of December, completed the disasters of Austria, and the emperor found himself unable to continue the war. On the 9th of February, 1801, the peace of Lunéville was signed. It confirmed the treaty of Campo Formio. The emperor ceded the Austrian Netherlands to France a second time, and agreed to her possession of the German territories on the left bank of the Rhine, which gave her that much coveted stream as a frontier. The Batavian, Helvetic, Cisalpine and Ligurian republics were also recognized by the emperor, who also gave the Margravate of Breisgau to the Duke of Modena, and the archbishopric of Salzburg, as a secular principality, to the Grand Duke of Tuscany, who received the title of elector. The Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, the Duke of Wurtemberg, and the Margrave of Baden were also created electors. All the spiritual electors were deposed save the Archbishop of Mayence, whose see was transferred to Regensburg.



VIENNA.

Of all the free cities of the empire only Lübeck, Hamburg, Bremen, Frankfort, Augsbourg, and Nuremberg were allowed to retain their freedom.

These changes were forced upon Germany by Napoleon, who handed the German people from one ruler to another, as he deemed best for the interests of his own country. His disregard of the rights of his neighbors was clearly exhibited in 1803, when he seized Hanover, which was a possession of the reigning family of England. Prussia protested against this seizure, but took no further notice of it.

Austria was fully determined to renew the war at the first opportunity, and in 1805 made an alliance with England and Russia. This alliance was joined by Sweden, and it was hoped that the French would be driven across the Rhine. By a series of bold and rapid movements, however, Napoleon entered Germany and was joined by Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Baden, which were more alive to what they considered their own interests than to their duty to the empire. The Austrian army under General Mack was several times defeated, and was at length shut up in Ulm, and obliged to surrender on the 17th of October. By this surrender Austria lost the services of 30,000 troops. On the 13th of November Napoleon entered Vienna, from which city he hastened into Moravia to attack the Austrians and Russians, who had united their forces. On the 2d of December these combined armies were defeated in the great battle of Austerlitz. The Emperor Francis was so disheartened by this reverse that he opened negotiations for peace, and on the 25th of December the treaty of Pressburg was signed. Napoleon exacted the most humiliating terms of Austria. She was forced to give up Venice to Italy, the Tyrol and Vorarlberg to Bavaria, and her possessions in Suabia to Wurtemberg and Baden. For their services in this campaign the Emperor Napoleon raised the Electors of Bavaria and Wurtemberg to the rank of kings, and the German emperor was forced to recognize their new dignity, and their independence of his control within their own dominions. Hanover was turned over to Prussia, which power ceded Ansbach to Bavaria, and Cleve and Neufchatel to France. A little later Napoleon bestowed Cleve and Berg, the latter of which he had received from Bavaria, on his brother-in-law, Joachim Murat.

Neufchatel he gave to his friend, Marshal Berthier.

Napoleon was anxious to create in Germany a power whose interests would be identical with his own, and thus secure himself its friendship and assistance. The German spirit had sunk so low that it was possible to carry out this idea, and the German princes were willing to purchase advantages for themselves at the expense of the Fatherland. On the 12th of June, 1806, a league was formed by the Kings of Bavaria and Wurtemberg, the Elector of Baden, the Landgrave of Hesse, the Duke of Berg, the Archbishop of Regensburg, and some other princes, who formally declared their withdrawal from the empire, and acknowledged the Emperor of the French as their protector. This league took the name of the Confederation of the Rhine, and agreed to support the Emperor Napoleon in war with an army of 63,000 men. The Archbishop of Regensburg, who had been Electoral Archchancellor of the German Empire, was made the representative of the French emperor in the confederation, with the title of "Prince Primate."

The formation of the Rhenish confederation struck down at a blow the Holy Roman Empire, which, revived in the reign of Otto the Great as the true successor of the empire of the Cæsars, had existed nearly nine hundred years. Its fall was so complete that on the 6th of August, 1806, the Emperor Francis II. resigned the imperial crown. In 1804 Francis had added to his existing title that of "Hereditary Emperor of Austria," and after 1806 he was simply Emperor of Austria, which title his successors have since borne; but this title of emperor is very different in its signification from that which Francis resigned upon the fall of the Holy Roman Empire. Hereafter we shall speak of him as Francis I. of Austria.

Until now Prussia had escaped the weight of Napoleon's hand by remaining aloof from German affairs. Frederick William III., who had come to the throne in 1797, was very anxious to make Prussia the leading state in Germany, and was indignant at the formation of the Rhenish confederation, as it raised up a powerful rival to Prussia in north Germany. Napoleon had been for some time jealous of the independence of Prussia, and was watching for an opportunity to humble her. He now drove the Prussian king by a series of in-

sults into a war with France. In 1806 Frederick William demanded that the French troops should be withdrawn from Germany, and coupled his demand with a threat of war. Napoleon refused to yield to this threat, and Prussia declared war against France. The Prussian army was unfit for the service required of it, being greatly inferior to that which had won such glory under the great Frederick. Saxony was compelled to ally herself with Prussia, and the Prussian army took position to defend the kingdom against the French emperor, who immediately upon the declaration of war marched rapidly into Germany. On the 14th of October, 1806, the Prussians were defeated at Auerstädt and Jena. The Duke of Brunswick commanded the Prussian army at the former place, and was slain. Napoleon inflicted a heavy loss in killed and wounded upon the defeated army and took 20,000 prisoners. The results of the battle of Jena were most disastrous to Prussia. The few fortresses that held out were reduced, and the few commands still in the field were obliged to lay down their arms. Magdeburg, garrisoned by 22,000 men, surrendered without striking a blow. The king and queen fled to Königsberg, and Napoleon entered Berlin in triumph. The whole kingdom submitted to him so readily that he declared he knew not whether to be proud or ashamed of having conquered such a nation. He carried away to Paris the sword of Frederick the Great from the tomb of that hero, and the car of victory from the Brandenburg gate of Berlin.

After the battle of Jena a small Prussian force joined the Russian army on the frontier of that country. Napoleon moved forward to complete his work, and on the 7th and 8th of February, 1807, a great battle was fought at Eylau between the French and Russians. It was indecisive. On the 12th of June Napoleon gained the great victory of Friedland, and became master of Königsberg and Tilsit. Dantzic had already fallen into his hands. A little later he held an interview with the Russian emperor on a raft in the Niemen, and the treaty of Tilsit was signed on the 9th of July. Prussia, unable to continue the war without the assistance of Russia, was obliged to agree to this peace. The Prussian kingdom was literally dismembered by this treaty. All of its territory between the Elbe and the Rhine was taken from it, and,

together with Brunswick, Hesse-Cassel, and a portion of Hanover, was erected into the kingdom of Westphalia, which Napoleon bestowed upon his youngest brother, Jerome. The Polish territory of Prussia was taken from her, organized as the grand duchy of Warsaw, and was bestowed upon the Elector of Saxony, who was raised to the rank of king by Napoleon. Dantzic was made a free city. By these changes Prussia lost 5,000,000 of her subjects and the better part of her territory. Frederick William was also compelled to pay the sum of 140,000,000 francs for having made war upon France, and to reduce his army to 42,000 men. Napoleon believed he had so thoroughly crushed Prussia that she would never be able to raise her hand against him again.

Austria had been humbled, but not conquered, by the battle of Austerlitz, and had been quietly preparing to attempt the recovery of her lost territory. The time when Napoleon was occupied with his war in Spain was chosen as the best moment for striking the blow. The enthusiasm of the people was aroused by the appeals of the Emperor Francis to them to aid him in an effort for the freedom of the Fatherland, and on the 9th of April, 1809, the Austrian army, under the Archduke Charles, crossed the Inn and entered the territory of Bavaria, the ally of France. Napoleon hastened to the scene of operations, and on the 22d of April defeated the Austrian archduke at Eckmühl. The Austrians fell back to Ratisbon, but were driven from that place, and on the 13th of May Napoleon entered Vienna for a second time as a conqueror. A bloody battle was fought at Aspern on the 21st and 22d of May, and the French were forced to retreat. On the 5th and 6th of July Napoleon retrieved this reverse by his decisive victory of Wagram. The Austrian emperor, feeling himself unable to continue the war, asked for peace. An armistice was concluded a few days later, and on the 14th of October the peace of Schönbrunn was signed. Austria ceded Carniola, Friuli, Croatia, and a part of Dalmatia, with the seaport of Trieste, to France, which organized these territories into a separate government under the name of the Illyrian provinces. Salzburg, with its territory, was ceded to Bavaria, which was allowed to retain the Tyrol; and the greater part of Galicia was divided between the Emperor of Russia and the King of

Saxony. The Austrian emperor formally acknowledged the rights and dignities of all the sovereigns created by Napoleon.

During this war the Bavarians and the French had been compelled to put forth great exertions to retain the Tyrol, which was devotedly attached to the Austrian rule. After the treaty of Schönbrunn was signed, Austria advised the Tyrolese to lay down their arms and submit to Bavaria. Hofer, one of the patriot leaders during the war, rebelled soon afterwards. He was unsupported by his countrymen, and was betrayed into the hands of the French, who shot him as a traitor, at Mantua, in 1810—a most unmerited and unjust fate.

The king and people of Prussia felt deeply the humiliation to which their country and all Germany were subjected by the French. Prussia took her reverses to heart, and learned wisdom from them. She had been conquered by the superior skill and intelligence of the French; she would yet beat them with their own weapons, and she set to work to prepare herself for that task. Stein, one of the ablest statesmen of his day, was made prime minister by the king. He introduced a series of vigorous reforms, and induced the king to abolish serfdom in the kingdom, to make the civil service free to all classes, and to grant municipal rights to the towns. These changes infused new life into Prussia, and Napoleon was quick to discern them, and Frederick William was obliged to dismiss his great minister as the enemy of France. Stein fled to Russia for safety, but his system was continued in his own country. William von Humboldt succeeded in procuring the establishment of a system of compulsory education, which gave to all the children of the kingdom a common school education, and which has been the basis of the wonderful success of Prussia during the present century. The leading men of the kingdom quietly but energetically sought to prepare the people for the effort to win back their freedom by arousing in every possible way their patriotic feelings. A society called the "Tugendbund," or "League of Virtue," was organized, and embraced within its ranks thousands of all classes, but principally students and professors. Its real, though secret, object was the liberation of the Fatherland. The army was limited by Napoleon to 42,000 men. It was left at this figure, but as soon as the troops were instructed in military exercises

they were discharged and their places filled with new levies. In this way Gneisenau and Scharnhorst caused the whole nation to be instructed in the art of war. In addition to the active army, two new classes of troops were organized—the Landwehr, or militia, designed to recruit the regiments in the field, and the Landstrurm, or homeguards, composed of older and married men, and intended for the defence of the kingdom in case of the defeat of the army in the field.

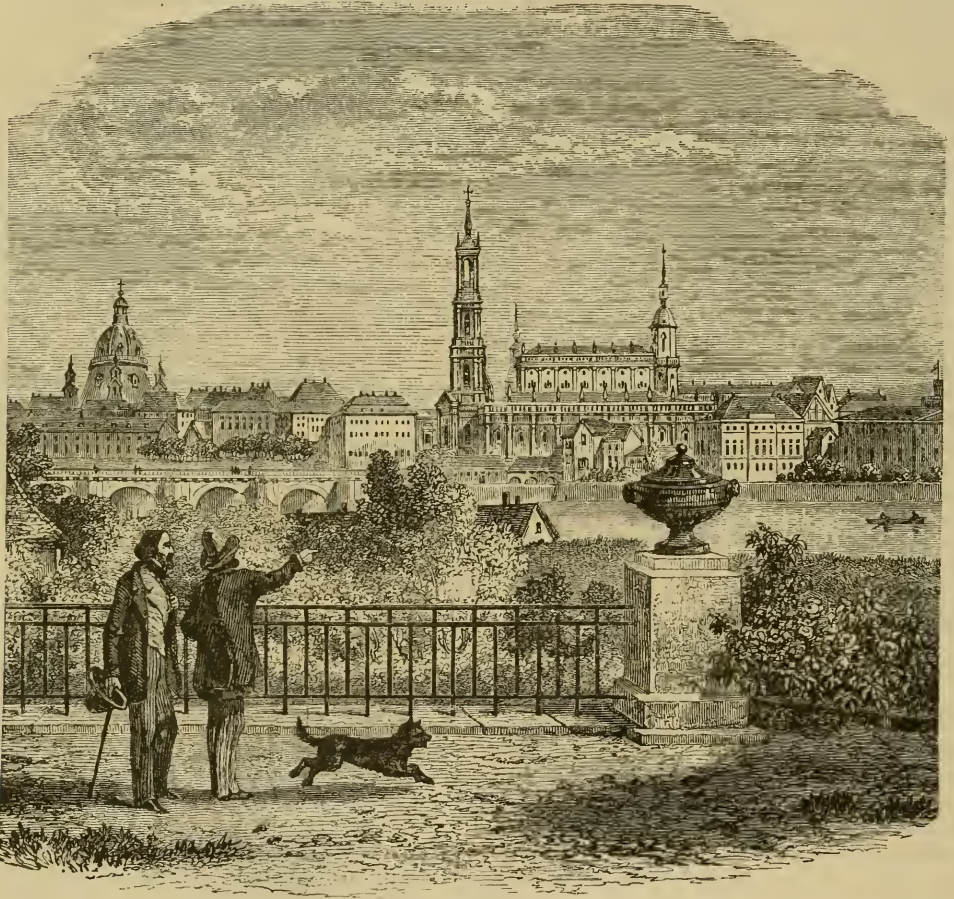
At length the favorable moment came. The disastrous retreat of the French from Russia exposed them to the vengeance of the Germans, and it was resolved to seize the opportunity. On the 3d of February, 1813, Frederick William issued an appeal to the young men of Prussia to rally to the defence of the Fatherland. On the 18th he entered into an alliance with Russia, and on the 15th of March formally declared war against France. His appeal to his people was answered with enthusiasm, and in a short while he found himself at the head of a splendid army eager for action.

The united Russian and Prussian armies at once advanced against the French, and a battle was fought at Lutzen, near which the heroic Gustavus Adolphus had died in the arms of victory, on the 2d of May. The allies were defeated, and retreated beyond Dresden. Saxony now added her forces to those of France. Napoleon attacked the allies at Bautzen on the 20th of May, and the battle was renewed the next day. It resulted in the defeat of the allies, who retreated in good order into Silesia, without allowing the French to secure a single trophy of their victory. At the request of the allies Napoleon granted an armistice for three weeks, during which negotiations for peace were carried on. The opposing armies passed this time in preparing for a renewal of hostilities. The efforts for peace failed, and at the expiration of the armistice Austria formally joined the allies, who were also strengthened by the accession of Sweden to their cause.

Upon the resumption of hostilities Napoleon sent an army of 80,000 men, under Marshal Oudinot, to capture Berlin. On the 23d this force was attacked by the Prussians under General Bülow, at Gross-Beeren, and was defeated and driven towards the Elbe. Napoleon in the meantime had advanced into Silesia to attack Blücher, but learning that the Austrians, under

Prince Schwartzberg, were advancing from Bohemia upon Dresden, he retreated upon that place, leaving a force of 80,000 men in Silesia, under Marshal Macdonald, to watch Blucher. Blucher had avoided an engagement with the main body of the French, but he now turned upon Macdonald and defeated him in the battle of the Katzbach, on the 26th of August. On the 26th and 27th the allies endeavored to drive the

tions with France. Napoleon met this movement by a retreat from Dresden to Leipzig, reaching the latter place on the 14th of October. On the morning of the 16th the allies attacked the French. A terrible battle of two days ensued, and resulted in the overwhelming defeat of the French, whose losses footed up the appalling total of 70,000 men. The loss of the allies was 40,000. The result of the battle made



DRESDEN.

French from Dresden, but were unsuccessful, and retreated towards Bohemia. Napoleon now directed his army upon Berlin, but the movement was foiled by the defeat of the corps of Marshal Ney by the allies at Dennewitz, on the 6th of September. The allies studiously avoided a general engagement, though Napoleon strove hard to draw them into it, and at length moved from Bohemia into Saxony with the intention of intercepting Napoleon's communica-

tion impossible for the French to continue to hold Germany, and the deliverance of the Fatherland was but a question of time. Napoleon retreated from Leipzig to the Rhine, which he crossed at Mayence on the 2d of November.

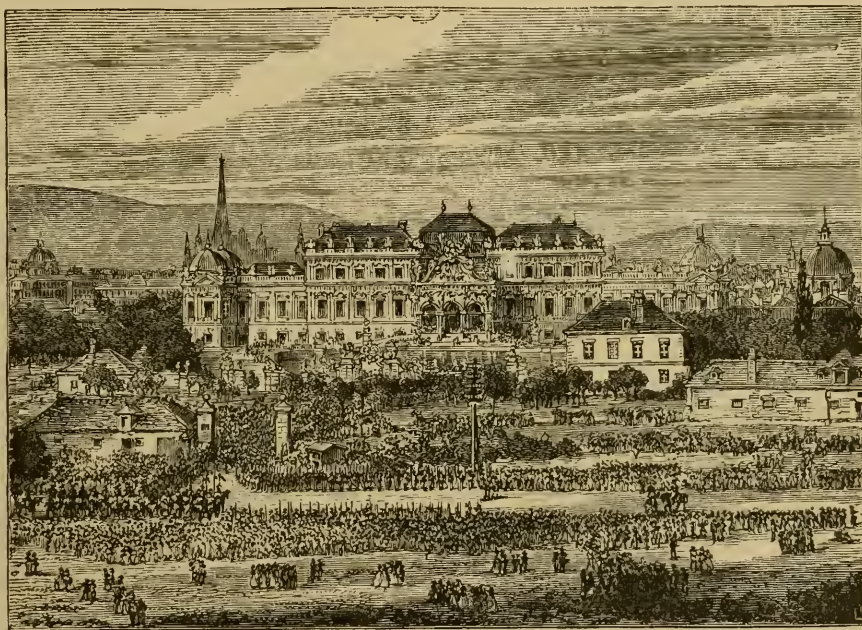
The power of the French was now utterly at an end in Germany, and the German princes who had adhered to Napoleon deserted him rapidly to save themselves. The fortresses on the Elbe, Oder, and Vistula,

garrisoned by the French troops, surrendered to the allied forces, and the allies proceeded to undo the work of Napoleon in Germany. The Rhenish Confederation was broken up; the kingdom of Westphalia was overturned; Hanover was restored to the King of Great Britain, and the Elector of Hesse and the Dukes of Oldenburg and Brunswick resumed possession of the lands of which they had been deprived.

Germany was now freed from the power of Napoleon, and the allies resolved to carry the war into France and crush their great enemy, as they did not feel safe as long as Napoleon occupied the French

restored to Germany all the territory she had taken from her since 1792.

Napoleon being overthrown, the great powers set to work to restore order to Germany and to Europe, and for this purpose a Congress of Plenipotentiaries was held at Vienna. It began its sessions on the 1st of October, 1814. Besides the plenipotentiaries, there were present the Emperors of Russia and Austria, the Kings of Prussia, of Denmark, of Bavaria, and of Wurtemberg, and nearly all the German princes. It was found that the settlement of the questions before the congress was full of difficulty. Each of the great



THE BELVIDERE—VIENNA.

throne. The Rhine was crossed, and the efforts of Napoleon to check their advance were defeated, and on the 30th of March, 1814, Paris surrendered to the invaders. We shall relate the events of this campaign in the French history of this period. On the 31st of March, 1814, the Emperor Alexander and King Frederick William entered Paris at the head of their troops. Napoleon was compelled to abdicate the French throne, and was assigned the island of Elba as a home, and Louis XVIII. was made King of France. In May the first treaty of Paris was signed between France and the allied powers, by which France

powers was anxious to secure the chief rewards for its own services. Prussia demanded the annexation of Saxony to her dominions as a compensation for her losses, and Russia claimed the whole of Poland. These demands were opposed with great feeling by the other powers, and it seemed likely that the congress would break up in confusion, and the victors fall to fighting among themselves. More moderate counsels began to prevail, when suddenly the congress was startled by the return of Napoleon from Elba, and his preparations to keep himself on the French throne. The quarrels of the allies were hushed in the

general alarm. Napoleon was declared an outlaw, a new coalition of all the European powers was formed against him, and new armies were placed in the field. Germany responded with enthusiasm to the call for troops, and it was resolved that this effort should end in the utter ruin of Napoleon.

The events which followed the return of Napoleon, until his final overthrow, will be related in the French history of this century. On the 18th of June, 1815, the great battle of Waterloo, called by the Germans the battle of *La Belle Alliance*, was fought, and in this great struggle the Prussians decided the fortunes of the day, and covered themselves with glory. The defeat of the French was so overwhelming that Napoleon made no further effort at resistance. On the 7th of July the allies again occupied Paris, and Louis XVIII. returned to his throne. On the 20th of November, 1815, the second Treaty of Paris was signed. The Germans were very anxious to recover Alsace and Lorraine, but the boundaries of France were arranged as they had existed previous to 1792. An indemnity of 700,000,000 francs was exacted from France and divided among the allies.

The Congress of Vienna continued its sessions during the campaign of 1815, and the common danger which threatened Europe made its members more inclined to compromise their claims for the sake of the general good. In June its sittings were brought to a close in the Treaty of Vienna, which arranged the boundaries of the various states of Europe to the satisfaction of the sovereigns, but without any regard to the wishes of the people. Austria recovered her possessions in Italy and Illyria, and received the Tyrol, Salzburg, Vorarlberg, and the Innviertel. Prussia received back the territory she had surrendered by the Treaty of Tilsit, and obtained the grand duchy of Posen, Swedish Pomerania, the northern part of Saxony, the duchies of Westphalia and Berg, and the country along the Rhine between Mayence and Aix-la-Chapelle. Bavaria was allowed to keep Ansbach and Baireuth, and received the upper Palatinate of the Rhine, which became known as Rhenish Bavaria, and in return for lands ceded to Austria, was given Wurzburg and Aschaffenburg. Hanover was given some additional territory and was erected into a kingdom. These were the principal changes in Germany.

CHAPTER VIII.

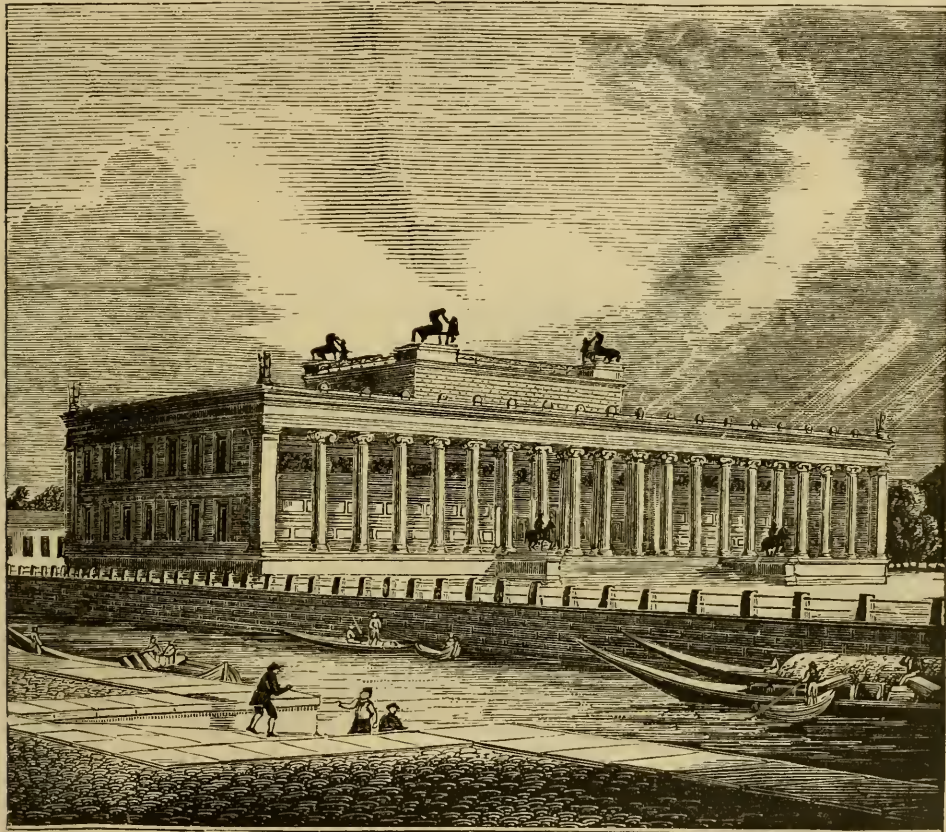
FROM THE TREATY OF VIENNA TO THE PRESENT TIME.

The German Confederation—Failure of the German Princes to Redeem their Promises of Constitutional Government—Desire for a United Germany—The French Revolution of 1830—Uprisings in Germany—The Customs Union—Death of Francis I. of Austria—Tyranny of the King of Hanover—Death of Frederick William III. of Prussia—Frederick William IV.—His First Measures—French Revolution of 1848—Its Effect upon Germany—Provisional Parliament at Frankfurt—It is Recognized by the Diet—The Schleswig-Holstein Question—War Between the German Confederation and Denmark—An Armistice Concluded—The Prussian Assembly—A New Parliament Summoned—A Constitution Adopted—The King of Prussia Urged to Accept the Title of Emperor of Germany—He Refuses—Failure of the Frankfurt Assembly—Troubles in Austria—Revolution in Hungary—It is Crushed by Russia—Francis Joseph Emperor of Austria—Efforts to Unite Germany under the Leadership of Prussia—The Austrian Party—Peace with Denmark—The Italian War of 1859—William I. Becomes King of Prussia—First Years of his Reign—Count Bismarck—Jealousy Between Prussia and Austria—The Danish War—Denmark Gives up the Duchies—Quarrel Between Prussia and Austria—Prussia Makes an Alliance with Italy—The Seven Weeks' War—Battle of Königgrätz—Austria Humbled—Prussia Supreme in Germany—Austria Expelled from Germany—Wise Measures of the Austrian Government—The North German Confederation—France Jealous of Prussia—France Makes War upon Prussia—Germany United in Opposition to the French—The War Begun—Battle of Sedan—Surrender of Napoleon III.—Paris Invested by the German Army—Surrender of Metz—Siege of Paris—Progress of the War—Victories of the Germans—Formation of the German Empire—The King of Prussia Chosen Emperor—Capitulation of Paris—Close of the War—The Germans Enter Paris—Meeting of the Imperial Diet—Organization of the Empire—Hostility of the Roman Catholic Church to the Empire—Firm Measures of the Government—The Catholic Clergy Refuse to Obey the Laws and are Punished—Expulsion of the Jesuits—Friendly Relations with Austria.

THE jealousies of the various German states made it impossible to restore the empire, and they therefore joined in a league known as the *German Confederation*, which consisted of thirty-nine states, including the free cities of Lübeck, Hamburg, Bremen, and Frankfurt. Each state retained its independence in the management of its own affairs, but for the direction of the general interests of the confederation a Federal Diet, consisting of plenipotentiaries from each and all of the states, was established. The diet was to hold its sessions at Frankfurt, and was to be presided over by

the plenipotentiaries of Austria. The members of the confederation pledged themselves not to make war upon each other, but to refer their disputes to the federal diet for settlement, and not to form any alliances with foreign powers which might be hostile to any German state. A federal army was formed, to which each state was required to contribute troops according to its population. The fortresses of Luxemburg, Landau and Mayence were

constitutional government set up in its place. The people were induced to believe that the downfall of Napoleon would not only secure independence for their country, but would inaugurate the era of freedom for which they had hoped so long. When the power of Napoleon was broken, and he was confined at St. Helena, the German princes conveniently forgot their promises, and continued their absolute rule. Austria, under the guidance of Prince Metternich,



NEW MUSEUM AT BERLIN.

declared the property of the confederation, and were garrisoned with federal troops. The act of confederation required each state to grant constitutional government and religious and political equality to its people.

This last requirement was a simple act of justice. The German princes, at the outset of the war of liberation, had promised their people that, if they would unite for the freedom of the Fatherland, the old despotic system should be abolished, and

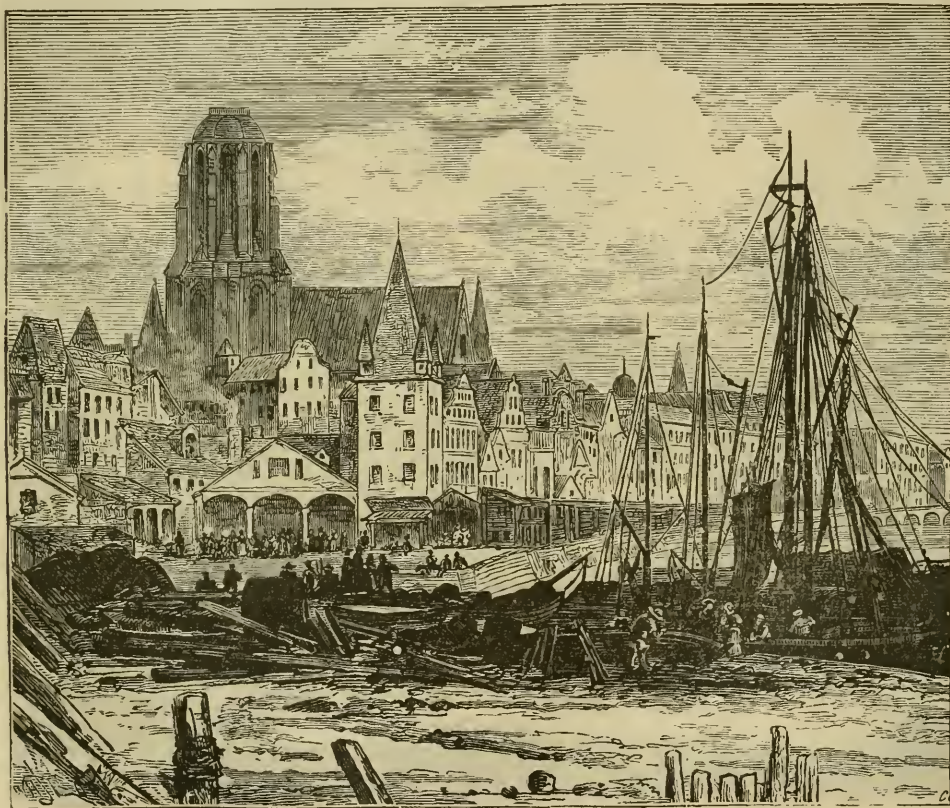
became the resolute opponent of constitutional government in Germany. Frederick William III. of Prussia appeared at first willing to fulfil his promise, but at length evaded it by setting up a number of provincial diets. The German people gave open expression to their disappointment, but accomplished nothing by their murmurs.

Another result of the war of liberation was the growth of the desire to reunite all Germany in one great nation, such as it had

been before the great interregnum (A. D. 1256). The confederation satisfied but a small part of the German people, and was generally regarded as but a makeshift to tide over the difficulties which followed the peace of 1815. No thoughtful person expected it to last, and few desired its continuance. The professors and students of the universities, and the educated class, were anxious for a strong and united Germany, and began to agitate for the purpose of securing that end. The governments of

but in vain. Various outbreaks occurred to show that it was alive and impatient of its fetters, until at last, in our own day, its hour of triumph came.

Austria and Prussia were but slightly affected by the French revolution of 1830, but some of the smaller German states were thrown into a ferment by it. A popular rising took place in Brunswick, and the duke, who was hated by his people, was forced to fly for his life, and his palace was burned by the people. His brother suc-



FRANKFORT ON THE MAIN.

the states were opposed to the movement for unity, and showed their hostility by dismissing the most active of the professors and placing the liberty of the universities and of the press under restrictions. It was impossible to crush out the popular wish for free government and unity, however, and these feelings grew stronger with each succeeding year. The governments of the states and the federal diet sought earnestly to crush the German spirit and to prevent it from fulfilling its true destiny;

ceeded him, and restored order by granting the constitution demanded by the people. Saxony, Hesse-Cassel, Saxe Altenburg, and Hanover were obliged to grant constitutions more or less liberal in their character. A disturbance occurred in Frankfurt, and as it was brought about chiefly by students and journalists, the various governments made it an excuse for treating the universities and the press with greater severity.

Some years before this Bavaria had taken a step which did much to keep alive the

idea of German unity, and to show that it was practicable. Louis I., King of Bavaria, who had succeeded his father Maximilian in 1825, made a treaty with Wurtemberg for the purpose of regulating the customs of the two kingdoms. This act gave rise to the idea of a Customs Union, which should embrace all Germany. In 1828 it was carried into effect. Prussia was regarded as the power best suited to form the centre of this union, and the greater number of the German states made treaties with her for this purpose. This union added greatly to the growing influence of Prussia in Germany, and did much for commerce.

On the 2d of March, 1835, the Emperor Francis I. of Austria died. He was succeeded by his son Ferdinand, a weak and incompetent prince. No change was made in the Austrian policy, which continued to be directed by Prince Metternich, the real ruler of the empire. In 1835 William IV. of England died, and his brother Earnest Augustus became King of Hanover. He revoked the constitution of 1833 and set up a less liberal one in its place. This produced an outbreak on the part of the students of the University of Göttingen, which was ruthlessly crushed by the new king, who was a man of harsh and violent character.

On the 7th of June, 1840, died Frederick William III. of Prussia, leaving his crown to his son Frederick William IV. The new king began his reign by granting an amnesty to all political offenders, and his language and conduct at the outset of his career induced his people to believe that in him they had found the constitutional king they had long hoped for. Frederick William IV. made Berlin the chief centre of German learning and science, and did much to adorn and improve the city. He also paid great attention to the welfare of the people of the kingdom; but he took no step to bring about the reign of constitutional government. In vain his people appealed to him to grant them a constitution, and reminded him of the promises of his father. The most he would do was to summon to Berlin a *United Diet*, which met on the 11th of April, 1847. It was simply a union of the various provincial diets, and was in no sense a parliament, or assembly such as the people desired. The king extinguished the last popular hope by declaring to this body that nothing would induce him to grant a constitution, or

change in any way the natural relation between a king and his subjects; for this King of Prussia had very extravagant ideas of the "divinity doth hedge about a king."

In February, 1848, the third French Revolution broke out at Paris. The agitation soon spread to Germany, where the popular discontent was profound and universal. Germany was soon in a blaze of excitement. All the races subject to Austria rose in revolt, and a rising at Vienna headed by the students compelled the emperor, on the 13th of March, 1848, to dismiss Prince Metternich, who fled to England, and to grant freedom of the press, a liberal constitution, and a national guard to the several members of the empire.

At Berlin the people rose in arms, and on the 13th of March and for several days thereafter sharp conflicts occurred between the citizens and the royal troops. The king, after several days of hesitation, promised the people, on the 17th of March, to grant them a constitution. The people demanded that the troops should be sent out of Berlin, and on the 18th an immense crowd assembled before the palace to urge the demand. Two shots were fired by some unknown parties, and a furious conflict began between the troops and the citizens, and was continued late into the night. Many lives were lost, and it seemed that the battle would be renewed with greater fury the next day; but on the 19th, the king yielded to the popular demand, and declared himself "at the head of the movement." Berlin was placed under the protection of the armed citizens, and the troops were withdrawn. The ministry was dismissed, an electoral law was passed by the united diet, and elections were ordered for a national assembly.

The smaller German states, in the meanwhile, had taken the alarm. The princes of nearly all of these yielded at once to the storm, changed their ministries, and adopted a liberal policy. King Louis of Bavaria was compelled to resign his crown to his son Maximilian II. In Baden a considerable party demanded a republic, and were aided by "free bands" from Switzerland, but as a rule the German people desired simply constitutional government without the abolition of royalty. Switzerland had just escaped from a serious trouble. In 1846, under the influence of the Jesuits, who were willing to ruin the country if

they could not rule it, seven Catholic cantons separated themselves from the confederation, and took up arms to maintain their position. They were defeated by the federal forces under General Dufour, and were compelled to resume their places in the confederation. The federal government subsequently broke up the convents and expelled the Jesuits. In 1848 changes were made in the Swiss constitution which brought it nearer to that of the United States, and this free land was not troubled with revolutionary outbreaks during this stormy period.

In the meantime the friends of German unity endeavored to take advantage of the popular uprisings to secure that end. A body of 500 Germans from various states met at Frankfort on the 21st of March, and constituted themselves a provisional parliament. The federal diet recognized the authority of this parliament, knowing that it was sustained by the nation. The parliament summoned a national assembly, the members of which were elected by the people of the various states. The national assembly met at Frankfort on the 18th of May, 1848, and established a provisional central government, with the Archduke John of Austria at its head. The archduke was acknowledged by the various German governments, and on the 12th of July the president of the federal diet formally resigned into his hands the power formerly exercised by that body, and the German confederation came to an end. A responsible ministry of seven members was chosen by the archduke from the leading members of the assembly. That body spent so much of its time in useless discussions that the friends of the movement began to fear that it would fail to carry out the great work intrusted to it.

While these discussions were in progress trouble was brewing between Germany and Denmark. The King of Denmark, as Duke of Holstein, was a member of the German confederation. The duchy of Schleswig was entirely the property of Denmark, although a large part of its people were Germans. This German part of the population of Schleswig and the people of Holstein asserted that, in virtue of a treaty made in 1460, the two duchies could not be separated, and that when the male line of the Danish royal family should die out the duchies would revert to Germany and their connection with Denmark would cease. The Danish king on the other hand claimed

that all of Schleswig and the greater part of Holstein were irrevocably united to the kingdom of Denmark. The German party in the duchies appealed to the German federal diet for protection, but the matter remained undecided until the death of Christian VIII. in 1848. Frederick VII., his son and successor, reasserted the Danish claim to the duchies, and the German party, taking advantage of the revolutionary movements throughout Europe, rose in arms against Denmark. King Christian attempted to put down this outbreak by force, but the cause of the duchies was embraced by the German federal diet at Frankfort, which sent an army to their assistance under the Prussian General Wrangel. The Danes were speedily driven out of Schleswig, but their fleet blockaded the ports of Germany, and did much damage to the commerce of that country. On the 27th of August an armistice for seven months was concluded at Malmö. A temporary government was set up for this period, composed of two Prussian and two Danish representatives. This arrangement gave great offence to the national assembly, and in Frankfort disturbances took place which were quelled by the troops. Two Prussian deputies were murdered by the mob, and this produced very great bitterness of feeling in the assembly, which spent its time in useless quarrels instead of in legislation.

The Prussian national assembly, to which we have referred, met at Berlin on the 22d of May, 1848. The radicals proved so impracticable, and were sustained in their opposition by such a large number of the people of Berlin, that in November the government adjourned the assembly to Brandenburg. The Left, or extreme party, refused to leave Berlin, and the assembly was dissolved by the government. The king then summoned a new parliament to meet on the 26th of February, 1849, and on the 5th of December, 1848, published to the people the draft of a constitution he meant to submit to the parliament. The parliament met at the appointed time, but as no understanding between it and the government could be had, it was dissolved on the 27th of April. A parliament was chosen under a new electoral law, and met on the 7th of August. It succeeded in harmonizing to a certain extent the desires of the government and the people, and on the 6th of February, 1850, the king took the oath

to maintain the new constitution. Though the new system was far from realizing the hopes of the people, it was a great gain for them; and from this time constitutional government may be said to exist in Prussia.

The Frankfort assembly at length reached the discussion of the constitution; but by this time the various German governments had settled their difficulties, and were not inclined to accept any loss of power for the general good. An

effort was made to exclude Austria from the confederation, but failed, as the wish was general that Austria proper should remain a part of Germany. That government demanded that the empire as a whole should be admitted to the confederacy. It also attempted to dictate the form of government for the confederacy, but on the 27th of March, 1849, the majority of the assembly decided that the German empire should be revived at least in name; that the chief of the confederacy should have the title of "Emperor of the Germans," and that this title should be hereditary in his family. On the 28th it was resolved to offer the imperial dignity to the King of Prussia.

This was done on the 3d of April. Frederick William declined the honor for the reasons that he could not accept it without the consent of the German princes, and that the constitution did not give to the emperor sufficient power to enable him to fulfil the duties of that high station. This answer produced great disappointment in Germany, and was fatal to the effort for union. A few of the states accepted the new constitution; but Austria, Prussia, Hanover, and the other leading

states withdrew their representatives from the assembly, and on the 20th of May its most distinguished remaining members resigned their seats. The rump adjourned to Stuttgart, where on the 18th of June it was dispersed by the government of Wurtemberg.

The Saxon diet had endeavored to force the king to accept the Frankfort constitution. The government dissolved the diet, and a conflict broke out in Dresden between



FRANCIS JOSEPH I., EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA.

the troops and the people, and the king was forced to fly to the fortress of Königstein. The government appealed to Prussia for aid, and the troops of that country entered Saxony and put down the outbreak. Insurrections of a more violent character broke out in Rhenish Bavaria and Baden, and were likewise quelled by the Prussians.

During all this while the Austrian em-

pire had been the scene of a terrible struggle. The diet met at Vienna on the 22d of July, 1848, but its members, speaking many different languages, could scarcely understand each other, and were so divided by national jealousies that they could accomplish nothing. The Hungarians, led by Louis Kossuth and others, demanded complete independence. This was refused by Austria, and a series of disturbances ensued at Pesth, in which the imperial representative was murdered. The emperor at once took the field with a part of the garrison of Vienna, to punish the Hungarians. The troops were to march on the 6th of October; but a large number of them fraternized with the people, and the loyal regiments were driven from Vienna after a sharp engagement. The minister of war was murdered by the mob, the emperor fled from the capital to Olmütz, and Vienna remained in possession of the revolutionists. The emperor immediately set to work to concentrate his army, and on the 21st of October Vienna was invested by the imperial forces. It was carried by storm on the 30th of that month. Such of the leaders of the revolution as did not save themselves by flight were shot by the imperialists upon the re-occupation of the city, and the people were disarmed. On the 1st of December, 1848, the Emperor Ferdinand, whose health was very delicate, abdicated his throne in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph, then eighteen years of age.

The government of the new emperor acted with vigor, and by the opening of the year 1849 had reduced all the German provinces of Austria to submission. The Italian disturbances were quelled with great severity in the spring of 1849. The revolt in Hungary was more difficult to deal with. An Austrian army under Prince Windischgrätz was sent into Hungary to put down the uprising, but was defeated in a number of hard-fought battles, and was driven back towards the frontier with heavy loss. The patriots captured Buda-Pesth, their ancient capital. Large numbers of Germans and Poles entered Hungary and joined the patriots, and the Hungarian army soon numbered 200,000 men. The commander-in-chief was Görgey, a native of Hungary, and a general of ability. He was ably supported by Generals Bem and Dembinsky, both of whom were Poles. The Austrians being driven to the frontier, the Hungarian diet met at Debreczin and declared Hun-

gary independent of Austria; the republic was proclaimed, and a provisional government was organized, at the head of which Kossuth was placed.

Austria now confessed her inability to conquer Hungary, and appealed to Russia for help. The Emperor Nicholas had for some time been massing his troops on the Austrian frontier, being fearful that the revolutionary disturbances might extend to his own dominions. He readily responded to the appeal of Francis Joseph, and late in May, 1849, a Russian army advanced into Hungary. The Austrian army was reinforced and placed under the command of the brutal Haynau, who had but recently stamped out the insurrection in Lombardy. This army entered Hungary from the east, and at the same time a strong force of Croats under their Ban Jellachich invaded the unhappy country from the south. Though overmatched, the Hungarians fought bravely, but were defeated in the great battle of Temesvar. Buda-Pesth was reconquered by the Austrians, and the diet, which had taken refuge at Szegedin, was put to flight. Kossuth assembled a council at Arad on the 11th of August, and Görgey was appointed dictator, with absolute powers. On the 13th of August, only two days later, Görgey brought the war to a close by surrendering with his entire army to the Russian General Rödiger. This step astounded the nation, and Görgey was generally regarded by his countrymen as a traitor; doubtless with good cause. The leaders of the revolution sought safety in Turkey, whence they made their way to England and America. The fortresses held by the patriot troops at once capitulated. The sufferings of the Hungarians had been very great during the war, but they counted them as nothing compared with the failure of their hopes of freedom which had been so near fulfilment.

While Austria was engaged in her struggle with Hungary, Prussia endeavored to unite Germany in a confederation under her own leadership and without including Austria. On the 26th of May, 1849, an alliance for this purpose was concluded between Prussia, Hanover, and Saxony, and was subsequently joined by some of the smaller states of north Germany. As this alliance did not embrace all Germany, it was called "the German Union." A parliament of the union was held at Erfurt in April, 1850, but neither Hanover nor Sax-

ony would send deputies to it, and Hanover abandoned the union. While this parliament was in session, a congress of the German princes, who acknowledged the leadership of Prussia, met at Berlin on the 10th of May. Austria had by this time completed the subjugation of Hungary, and, alarmed for her supremacy in Germany, set to work to revive the German confederation. Bavaria and Wurtemberg united with her, and called on the German states to send representatives for this purpose to Frankfort. Saxony, Hanover, the Hesses, and a number of the minor states responded, and the representatives of the states which supported Austria met at Frankfort on the 10th of May, the very day the congress of princes acknowledging Prussia as their leader met at Berlin.

Germany was thus divided into two hostile parties, and a civil war came near breaking out between them in consequence of an attempt on the part of the Elector of Hesse-Cassel to levy taxes without the consent of the chambers of his state. This produced an uprising of the people, and the elector was obliged to leave Cassel. He appealed to the Frankfort diet, and an Austrian and Bavarian force entered his territory to restore his authority. Prussia, which had expected this step, at once occupied Cassel and Fulda with her troops. Austria demanded their withdrawal, which was refused. Both parties then prepared for war, and it seemed that the question whether Austria or Prussia should occupy the first place in Germany was to be settled by the sword. An effort was made to avert a civil war, and Prussia and Austria were induced to consent that a free conference of all the German princes should at once be held to arrange the constitution of Germany, and that Prussia and Austria should settle the affairs of Hesse-Cassel, and also of Schleswig-Holstein between them. The result was that the "free conference" of the German princes was held at Dresden, but accomplished nothing. Prussia then, as a measure of peace, acknowledged the Frankfort diet, and her example was followed by the other states. Thus the German confederation was restored as it had existed previous to 1848. This settlement was completed by the 12th of June, 1851. The claims of Prussia and Austria to the supremacy in Germany were yet to be settled.

In the meantime the armistice of Malmö

had expired, and the war with Denmark had been resumed. The Germans were not as successful as they had been at the outset, and Denmark was supported by the great powers. Peace was made in 1851, the King of Denmark resuming the government of the duchies; and in 1852 an arrangement was entered into by the great powers at London, providing for the settlement of the whole of the Danish dominions upon Prince Christian, of Schleswig-Holstein-Glücksburg, who had married a princess of Hesse. Neither Germany nor the duchies accepted this arrangement, and the question was left unsettled.

Matters went on very quietly in Germany after this. Eight or ten years of peace gave prosperity to the whole country; commerce and manufactures increased rapidly; and considerable attention was paid in the north German states to the cause of popular education. On the 8th of October, 1858, Frederick William IV. of Prussia was obliged by the failure of his reason to relinquish the government of his kingdom, which was administered for the next few years by his brother, Frederick William Lewis, as prince regent.

In 1859 war broke out between Austria on the one hand and France and Italy on the other. We have related the events and the results of this struggle, by which Austria lost all her Italian provinces save Venetia, and Italy became partially united. This partial union of Italy exercised a powerful influence upon Germany in reviving the hopes of those who longed for the union of the Fatherland, and the exclusion of Austria from Germany.

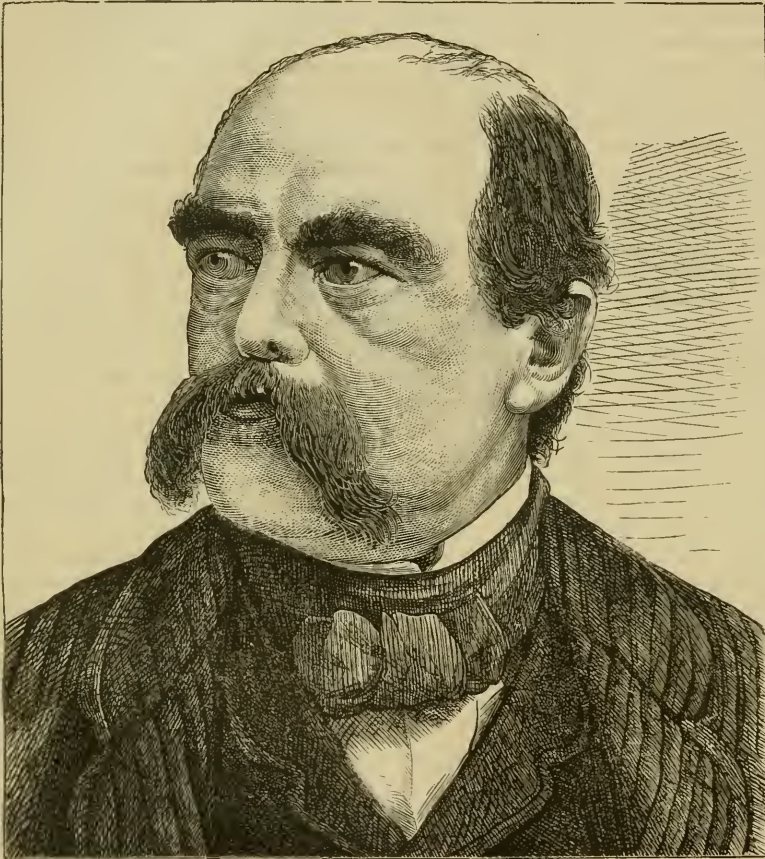
Frederick William IV. of Prussia died on the 2d of January, 1861, and his brother, the Prince Regent, became king as William I. He was crowned with great pomp at Königsberg, on the 18th of October, 1861. He began his reign with the determination to reorganize the Prussian army upon a basis which should make it irresistible. The Representative Assembly stoutly opposed the course of the government, as it involved the kingdom in a heavy outlay of money. The king persisted in his design, however, and on the 8th of October, 1862, appointed as his prime minister, Count Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen, and also intrusted to him the portfolio of foreign affairs. No better choice could have been made. Bismarck was a statesman of the first order, and was thoroughly in sympathy with the

king's desire to make Prussia the leading state of Germany. He went further than the king, and was resolved to drive Austria out of Germany. Bold and fearless in all things, he was firm and even despotic in his manner of carrying out his plans, and moreover was thoroughly indifferent to public opinion. He became from this time the master spirit of the Prussian policy, and with his aid the king succeeded in carrying out his scheme of army reform in spite of

forms in the German constitution. Prussia refused to have anything to do with this congress, and the Austrian scheme fell to the ground.

Another question now arose to claim the attention of Germany, and to keep in abeyance the jealousies of the two leading states of the confederation. On the 30th of March, 1863, Frederick VII. of Denmark issued a decree ordering that the duchy of Schleswig should be separated from Holstein and

Lauenburg, and incorporated in the Danish kingdom. This step was in opposition to the fundamental law of the duchies of 1460, which provided that they should not be separated. It excited great indignation in Germany, and reopened the Schleswig-Holstein question in all its bitterness. The federal diet resolved to compel the Danish king to relinquish his design; but before it could do so Frederick VII. died, on the 16th of November, 1863, and his successor, Christian IX., confirmed the decree. The death of Frederick put an end to the



COUNT VON BISMARCK.

the opposition of the chambers, and in direct violation of the constitution. Bismarck declared openly in the Prussian Parliament that the question of supremacy in Germany could be settled between Prussia and Austria only by "blood and iron."

Austria had watched the course of Prussia with ill-concealed impatience, and in August, 1863, to the astonishment of Germany, summoned a council of the princes to meet at Frankfort to make certain re-

male line of the Danish royal family, and the Germans declared that Christian IX. had no right to the duchies, which ought now of right to become pure German states, and that as the duchies could not be separated, all three must go to the nearest heir, who was the Duke of Augustenburg. This prince had, in 1852, resigned his right to the duchies, but in 1859 his son Frederick protested against this surrender, and now asserted his claims, which were indorsed by

the bulk of the German people. The duchy of Lauenburg was claimed by several of the German princes.

As the German Federal Diet had not accepted the arrangement made in London in 1852, concerning the duchies, to which we have referred, it was free to act independently. It declared the duchies vacant, and determined to occupy them with the troops of the confederation until the succession to them could be settled. For this purpose a force of Saxons and Hanoverians was sent into Holstein. Bismarck

was not content to allow the question to be settled in this way. He meant to secure the duchies for Prussia, not only to increase her territory, but to put her in possession of the important harbor of Kiel, in Holstein, which was necessary in order to give her a first-class naval station. By his subtle diplomacy he induced Austria to unite with Prussia in a joint occupation of the duchies, independently of the action of the confederation. Both the Austrian and Prussian Chambers refused to vote supplies to their governments for the support of this war, which, they declared, was strictly the duty of the confederation; but those governments persisted in their determination. The allied forces under the Prussian General Wrangel crossed the Eider on the 1st of February, 1864, and attacked the strong intrenchment known as the Dane-

wirk. On the 6th of February, the Danish army fell back to the lines of Düppel, which were soon after invested by the Prussians, who carried them by storm on the 18th of April, after a siege of three weeks. The Austrians laid siege to the fortress of Fredericia, which was suddenly evacuated by the Danes. With the exception of a short armistice, caused by the efforts of the great powers to restore peace, the war went on until October, 1864. The Danes blockaded the Prussian ports with their fleet, and won a victory over the allied

fleet off Heligoland, but their army was steadily defeated, and was driven not only out of the duchies but also out of Jutland, and was forced to make a stand among the islands. Greatly discouraged by her reverses, Denmark asked for peace, and a treaty was signed on the 30th of October, 1864. The King of Denmark resigned all his rights in the duchies of Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg in favor of the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia. It now became apparent that the pretext



CROWN PRINCE FREDERICK WILLIAM OF GERMANY.

of the victorious powers of defending the rights of the Duke of Augustenburg was merely to cover their design of getting the duchies into their own hands. They continued to occupy them with their troops. Austria was on the whole indifferent to an increase of territory in this direction; but was resolved that Prussia should obtain no such advantage at the cost of the duchies. The two powers at once began to quarrel over the proper disposition of the duchies, and it seemed at one time that their disputes would end in war. This danger was

averted for the moment by the Convention of Gastein, negotiated by Count Bismarck and the Austrian envoy, Count Blome. Prussia purchased the rights of the Austrian emperor in the duchy of Lauenburg, and until the question of inheritance could be settled it was agreed to place Schleswig under Prussian and Holstein under Austrian rule. Prussia was to hold the port of Kiel, but it was to be free to the Austrian fleet. Prussia was not yet prepared for war, and consented to this arrangement to gain time.

The quarrel soon broke out afresh. General von Manteuffel, the Prussian Governor of Schleswig, forbade all agitation in that duchy in favor of the Duke of Augustenburg, and at the same time, Austria, resolved to baffle the Prussian scheme for securing the duchies, allowed the duke's party to take such steps as they pleased in Holstein. On the 26th of January Prussia entered a formal protest against the Austrian policy in Holstein; and was answered that Austria would maintain her policy with firmness. This correspondence was followed by measures which showed that the inevitable struggle was close at hand. The fortresses of the Saxon and Silesian provinces of Prussia were put in a state of defence; Austria began to concentrate troops in Bohemia; and the smaller German states put their forces on a war footing. In March, 1866, a treaty of alliance was signed between Prussia and Italy. The latter agreed to attack Austria in Venetia in case of war between that power and Prussia; and Prussia agreed not to make peace until Venetia was freed from Austrian rule. Austria endeavored to strengthen herself by exciting the confederation against Prussia. The neutral powers, in view of the danger of war, endeavored to avert it by proposing the assembling of a conference for the settlement of all questions dangerous to the peace of Europe. This effort failed, and the war followed quickly. It should not be forgotten that the affair of the duchies was merely a pretext for the war; the true cause of the great struggle was the contest which we have traced from the days of Frederick the Great between Austria and Prussia for the supremacy in Germany.

On the 7th of June, 1866, Prussia took the decisive step of occupying Holstein with her troops, and compelling the Austrian forces to withdraw from that duchy. Austria demanded that the confederation should assist her in punishing Prussia for thus vio-

lating the federal constitution. The majority of the smaller states responded favorably to this demand, and on the 14th of June the federal diet resolved to mobilize the federal army, with the exception of the Prussian contingent. Prussia at once notified the diet that she no longer recognized the existence of that body or of the confederation, and withdrew her representative from the diet.

The struggle which now ensued is known as "the Seven Weeks' War." To the popular mind it seemed that Prussia was over-matched, but to those who had studied the condition of Germany the issue of the struggle could not be doubtful. The efforts of the Prussian government to reorganize the army, though in violation of the constitution of the kingdom, had secured to Prussia the most intelligent, best organized, and most efficient army in Europe. The troops were armed with the needle-gun, a weapon greatly superior to the ordinary rifle; and the chief of the Prussian staff, General Von Moltke, was the first soldier in the old world. Every department of the Prussian civil service was organized to afford the promptest and most thorough assistance to the army, and the Prussian civil and foreign policy was directed by the master mind of Bismarck. That great statesman had satisfied himself that the war would be confined to Germany. The French emperor had declared to him he would not interfere; England was too much devoted to peace to draw the sword; and Russia owed Prussia a debt of gratitude for assistance in putting down the recent Polish outbreak. Austria, on the other hand, was hampered by her old traditions, and her army was vastly inferior to that of Prussia in discipline as well as in equipment and arms. No great statesman directed her councils, and she was now to find that she had lived so long in the past that she was no match for the civilization she had so successfully banished from her own dominions.

The north German states of Saxony, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, and Nassau declared for Austria, which was supported by the better part of south Germany. Hanover, Saxony, and Hesse were quickly overrun by the Prussian troops. The Hanoverian troops defeated a body of Prussians at Langensalza on the 27th of June, but their victory accomplished nothing. They were surrounded by the Prussians, and on the 29th of June King George was obliged to

surrender, with his whole army. He was compelled to yield his crown also, and was not allowed by Prussia to remain within the Hanoverian territory. The conquest of Hanover was a great gain for Prussia, as it placed her in possession of the territory which lay between her eastern and western provinces. She had long desired to obtain this territory, and now, having won it, proceeded to annex it to her dominions.

In western Germany the Prussian forces were commanded by General Von Falkenstein. Opposed to him was the army of the confederation, under Prince Charles of Bavaria, and Prince Alexander of Hesse. The Austrians had placed a large number of Venetian troops in their army in this quarter, supposing they would fight better there than in Italy. Manteuffel defeated the confederate forces at Aschaffenburg. In this battle the Venetian troops refused to fight the allies of Italy, and laid down their arms. In consequence of this victory Von Falkenstein occupied Frankfort on the 16th of July, the federal diet having abandoned the city on the 14th. Falkenstein was now made Governor of Bohemia, and his successor, General Manteuffel, proceeded to complete the conquest of the Rhine country.

In the meantime the war had been decided elsewhere. At the commencement of hostilities the main Austrian army, under Marshal Benedek, held the frontier of the empire from the east of Austrian Silesia westward to the vicinity of Prague. It numbered 280,000 men, including the Saxon army, which was united with it. The Prussian forces numbered about 256,000 men, and were divided into two armies. The first army, 100,000 strong, commanded by Prince Frederick Charles, the king's nephew, was stationed in lower Silesia; the second army, under the Crown Prince Frederick William, 116,000 strong, occupied upper Silesia. A column of

40,000 men, under General Von Bittendorf, constituted the right wing of the first army, and occupied Saxony. The whole force was commanded by the King of Prussia in person; but the campaign was in reality directed by General Von Moltke, the chief of staff.

As soon as the occupation of Saxony had been successfully accomplished, all three of the Prussian columns were ordered to cross the Bohemian frontier and concentrate near Gitschin. This brilliant movement was successfully accomplished in the course



PRINCE FREDERICK CHARLES.

of a few days. Frederick Charles defeated the Austrians near Gitschin, besides gaining several other hard-won successes. During the advance of the second army, its left wing, under General Von Steinmetz, defeated the Austrians at Nachod and Skalitz. The three columns of the Prussian army were successfully united near Gitschin, and on the 2d of July were joined by King William in person, who assumed the command.

Marshal Benedek, after being forced back from the frontier, had taken position

on the Elbe, with his front covered by that stream and the Bistritz. His right was protected by the fortress of Josephstadt, and his left by the fortress of Königgratz. Near his centre was the village of Sadowa, and on the heights overlooking this village Benedek established his head-quarters. His army numbered about 200,000 men.

On the morning of the 3d of July the first Prussian army, under Frederick Charles, made a heavy attack upon the Austrian position at Sadowa. It was in-

Austrian right wing, and about the same time their left was broken by the column of General Von Bittenfeld, and their centre, at the village of Chulm, was carried by the army of Prince Frederick Charles. The Austrians now gave way at all points, retiring at first in good order, but breaking at length, under the close pursuit of the Prussians, into a disorderly flight. Such was the battle of Sadowa or Königgratz, one of the most important in modern history. The Prussians lost 10,000 men; the



BATTLE OF KONIGGRATZ, OR SADOWA.

tended that this attack should be supported by the army of the crown prince, but a rain which fell during the previous night and throughout the day made the roads so heavy that the latter force did not reach its position until early in the afternoon. The first army was largely outnumbered, but kept up its attack with vigor for several hours, until the advance of the crown prince lessened the pressure upon it. The Prussian assault was now renewed with vigor; the crown prince drove back the

Austrians 20,000 killed and wounded, and 18,000 prisoners.

The battle of Königgratz was decisive of the war, and Austria, feeling herself unable to continue the struggle, made overtures for peace. On the 26th of July the preliminaries of peace were signed between the principal combatants and several of the smaller states. On the 23d of August the treaty of Prague was signed. By this treaty Austria was forever excluded from Germany, and agreed to pay to Prussia an

indemnity of 40,000,000 thalers for the expenses of the war. In return for one-half of this sum Austria resigned all her rights in Schleswig-Holstein in favor of Prussia. Peace was concluded between Prussia and Bavaria, Baden, and Wurtemberg in the latter part of August; with Hesse Darmstadt in September; and with Saxony in October. Bavaria was compelled to cede a small part of her territory to Prussia, and Hesse Darmstadt had to relinquish the landgravate of Hesse Homburg and the right to garrison the fortress of Mayence. A secret alliance was formed between Prussia and these countries, with the exception of Bavaria, by which they agreed to place their troops under the supreme command of the King of Prussia in time of war. Previous to the treaty of Prague, Prussia had annexed to her territory, by right of conquest, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and Frankfort.

The extraordinary success of the war caused the constitutional party of Prussia to forget and forgive the violations of the constitution by the king and his ministers now that they saw the result of that policy. The king, on his return to Berlin on the 4th of August, was received with enthusiasm by all parties, and a cordial reconciliation between the sovereign and the chambers ensued and has since been unbroken.

The events of the war in Italy have been related in the history of that country, and need not be repeated here.

After the return of peace the Austrian emperor, ceasing to take part in German affairs, addressed himself to the improvement of his hereditary states. Peace found the Austrian empire in a most deplorable condition. Its armies were rendered almost worthless by the reverses they had sustained, and its finances were nearly ruined. The various nationalities composing the empire, weary with their long deprivation of civil and religious freedom, were ready to rise in revolt against the imperial government thus weakened. At this critical juncture the emperor summoned to his assistance, as President of the Imperial Council, the Baron Von Beust, the former Prime Minister of Saxony. Von Beust advised a prompt reconstruction of the imperial system, and his advice was acted upon. Representative government was established in all the states, and in each the people were given a share in the control of the public affairs. The long-deferred hopes of Hungary were to

some extent realized. That country was given a separate diet and ministry, and the Emperor Francis Joseph was formally crowned King of Hungary at Pesth in 1867. In 1868 the official title of the empire was by an imperial decree changed to the "Austro-Hungarian Monarchy."

The establishment of constitutional government in Austria has been attended by the happiest results, but was secured only by a determined contest with the old nobility and the clergy. Fortunately for his country the emperor has firmly adhered to his reforms, and despotism has been abolished in its chosen home. Religious toleration has been granted, thus securing the equality of all creeds before the law; and marriage and education have been taken from the control of the church and made subject to the state. In 1870 the Concordat, or treaty with the pope respecting religious matters, was formally annulled.

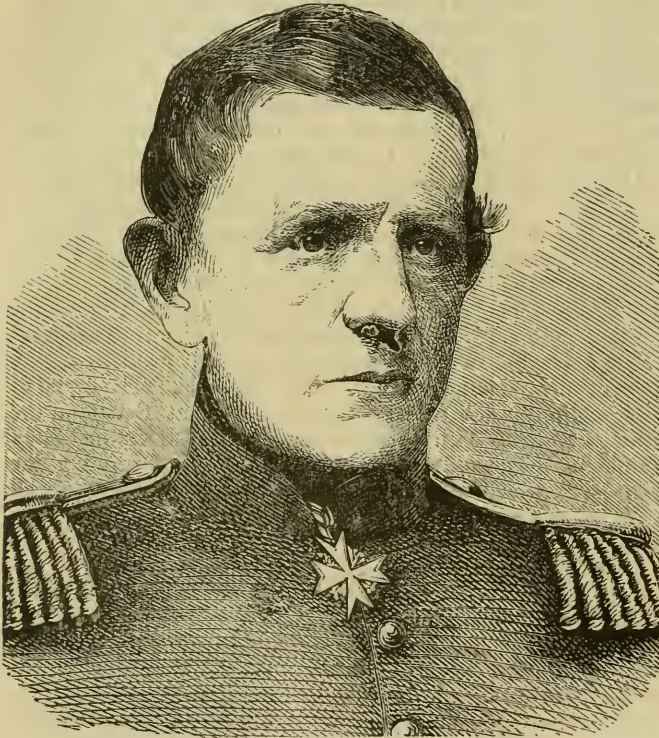
In Germany, immediately after the close of the war of 1866, a confederacy of the northern states was formed under the leadership of Prussia, with the title of the North German Confederation. The states of this league placed their armies entirely under the control of Prussia. The first diet of the confederation met at Berlin on the 24th of February, 1867. It immediately addressed itself to the task of framing the federal constitution, and succeeded so well that on the 1st of July the constitution was in operation. It provided that the affairs of the confederation should be administered by a diet elected by the north German people, and a federal council composed of the representatives of the states of north Germany. The King of Prussia was made President of the Confederation. This constitution was not regarded as final, for the south German states were still independent, and a large party in north Germany, known as the National Liberal party, desired their union with the new confederation. Count Bismarck, who openly favored such a union, received the warm support of this party in both the Prussian parliament and the federal diet. A considerable advance was made in May, 1868, when a customs parliament, elected by all the German states, met at Berlin to adjust the commercial relations of the states. Baden and Hesse Homburg signed a convention by which their military system was arranged upon a basis similar to that of the confederation. Baden was very anxious to

join the northern confederation, but was deterred by the unwillingness of the other south German states to take such a step. Two strong parties in south Germany were hostile to Prussia: the Ultramontanes because of her Protestantism, and the Democrats because of her leaning toward absolutism. These parties opposed the union of northern and southern Germany, under the leadership of Prussia, with such bitterness that even the most sanguine friends of the union began to despair of its accomplishment. It would most likely have been

should cede to France the left bank of the Rhine. The demand was refused with firmness by Prussia, though it was believed at the time that her refusal would give rise to another war. The French emperor then entered into negotiations with the King of Holland for the purchase of the duchy of Luxemburg, which had formerly been a part of the German confederation. Prussia protested against this acquisition, and prepared to support her protest by force. It seemed not unlikely that the affair would result in war; but the danger was averted

by a conference of the great powers at London, which separated Luxemburg from Germany, formed it into a neutral state, and guaranteed its neutrality. The Emperor Napoleon was greatly mortified by these failures, and Prussia won considerable credit by her firmness on these occasions. Great ill-feeling existed between Prussia and France from this time, and it was not long before it resulted in war.

In July, 1870, Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern, at the request of the Spanish government, became a candidate for the crown of Spain. This candidacy was made the occasion by France of seeking to impose a check upon Prussia. France had never reconciled herself to the union of Germany under the leadership of Prussia, and was seeking an opportunity to prevent the union



COUNT VON MOLTKE.

deferred for years but for the appearance of a new danger which aroused the German spirit to its highest point, and united all parties against a common foe.

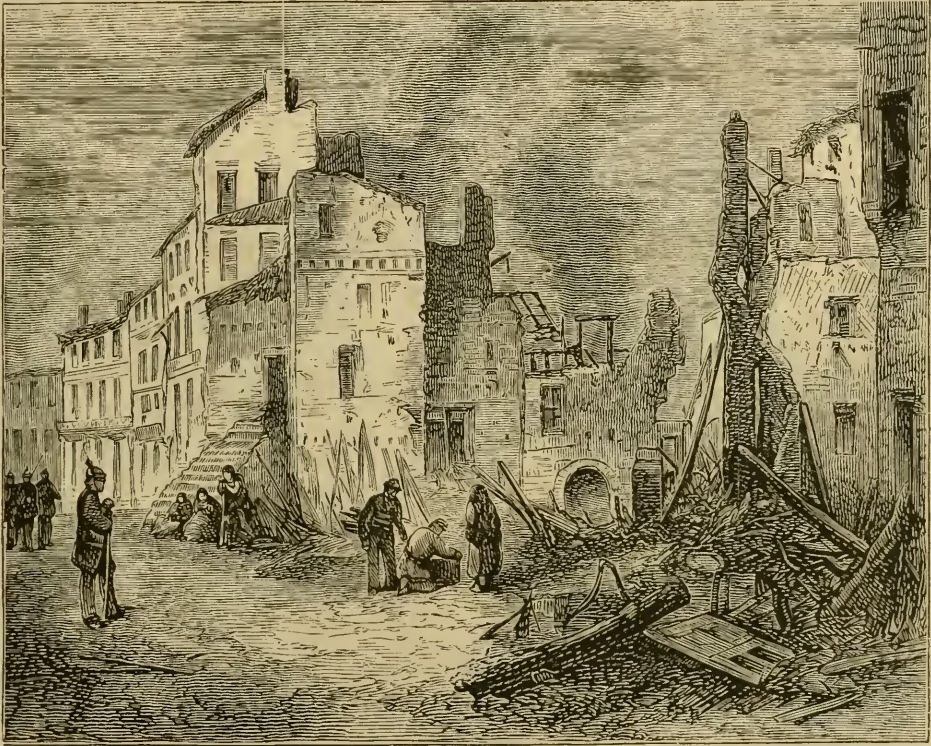
The success of Prussia in the war of 1866 excited the jealousy of France, which had until now been considered the leading state of Europe. The Emperor Napoleon III. gave Prussia to understand that he should expect some compensation for permitting the great increase of the Prussian territory which had resulted from the war. Early in August, 1866, the French ambassador at Berlin formally demanded that Prussia

of the south German states with those of the north. As soon as the candidature of Prince Leopold became known, it was denounced in the French legislative assembly as an aggression of Prussia, and as an effort of that power to surround France with enemies by placing on the Spanish throne a monarch hostile to France. A large part of the French people demanded that the emperor should take firm measures to prevent the success of the "Prussian scheme," and compel that government to withdraw Prince Leopold's name. The King of Prussia declared that he had

nothing to do with Prince Leopold's candidature, and that he had no power to forbid or command the acceptance of the Spanish crown by his relative. Prince Leopold, as a measure of peace, at once resigned his candidature of his own will. This did not satisfy France, however, and M. Benedetti, the French minister at Berlin, was instructed to demand of the King of Prussia an assurance that the candidature of Prince Leopold should not be renewed. M. Benedetti repaired to Ems,

out for Berlin, which he reached on the 15th.

The king's conjecture was correct. It was announced in Paris that the King of Prussia had insulted the French ambassador, and excited crowds filled the streets demanding war. On the 15th of July the French government declared war against Prussia, and orders were issued for the immediate concentration of the French army on the German frontier. The news of this declaration was communicated to King



RUINS OF THIONVILLE AFTER THE BOMBARDMENT.

where the king was staying at the time, and on a public promenade urged upon him the demand of the French government. King William not only refused to give the pledge required of him, but declined to continue the conversation on the subject. This interview took place on the 13th of July, and the next day the German governments were officially informed of it by telegraph. As it was certain that the refusal of King William would be made by France a pretext for war, he at once set

William upon his arrival at the railway station at Berlin by Count Bismarck. Orders were at once issued by the Prussian government for placing its forces and those of the confederation in the field. The federal council met on the 16th and indorsed the course of King William, and promised him its hearty support, and on the 19th the confederate diet assembled and took measures for a vigorous prosecution of the war.

France had relied largely upon the sup-

posed hostility between north and south Germany; and in so doing had committed a fatal error. However the German states might differ among themselves, they regarded France as a common enemy, and remembered the slavery of their fathers under the great Napoleon too well to wish to repeat the experience in their own persons. Moreover, France was avowedly seeking to interfere in a purely German

the war were carried on with rapidity. It was clearly understood that Germany was acting in self-defence, and that France was fighting for the recovery of her lost supremacy in Europe.

The German forces numbered over one million of men. As in the war with Austria, they were really directed by the great soldier, General Von Moltke. The chief command of this immense force was held



THE BATTLE OF GRAVELOTTE.

question, and one very dear to the hearts of the German people. South Germany would neither unite with the enemy of the Fatherland, nor remain neutral in such a struggle. On the 16th of July the south German states formally notified the King of Prussia that their forces were subject to his orders, and the Crown Prince of Prussia at once left Berlin and assumed the command of the united forces of south Germany. Great enthusiasm prevailed throughout the Fatherland, and preparations for

by the King of Prussia, who, though an old man, took the field in person. A part of this force was retained in Germany for the defence of the country, and the remainder was organized into three armies and hurried forward to the Rhine with a rapidity and precision which excited the admiration of the world. By the end of July all three armies were in position. The first, under General Von Steinmetz, held the right of the German line, and took position near Treves; the second, under Prince Frederick

Charles, held the centre, and occupied Rhenish Bavaria; while the third, under the Crown Prince Frederick William of Prussia, held the left, and occupied the right bank of the Rhine, from Manheim to Rastadt. The third army was composed of the south German forces and three Prussian army corps.

The German commanders had expected an immediate invasion of their country by the French, and were astonished at the delay upon the part of their enemy. Some fruitless petty encounters took place, but the French made no effort to advance, and the King of Prussia resolved to invade the French territory and thus save Germany from being made the scene of hostilities. The forward movement was begun by the third army, and on the 4th of August the French were defeated at Weissenburg in the first battle of the war. The third army then crossed the border and entered France. On the 6th the crown prince attacked the right wing of the French army under Marshal MacMahon, at Wörth, and after a stubborn conflict, in which both sides lost heavily, the French were routed, and MacMahon was unable to collect the scattered fragments of his corps. Leaving the Baden troops to lay siege to Strasburg, the crown prince moved leisurely across the Vosges mountains. On the 6th of August the first and second armies attacked the main army of the French, under Marshal Bazaine, at Saarbrücken, and stormed and carried the Heights of Spicheren in splendid style, and forced the French to retreat upon the fortress of Metz. The success of the crown prince at Wörth and the victory at Saarbrücken broke the whole French line, and the next day all the German armies were in France. While the third army was moving through the Vosges, the first and second armies advanced towards Metz.

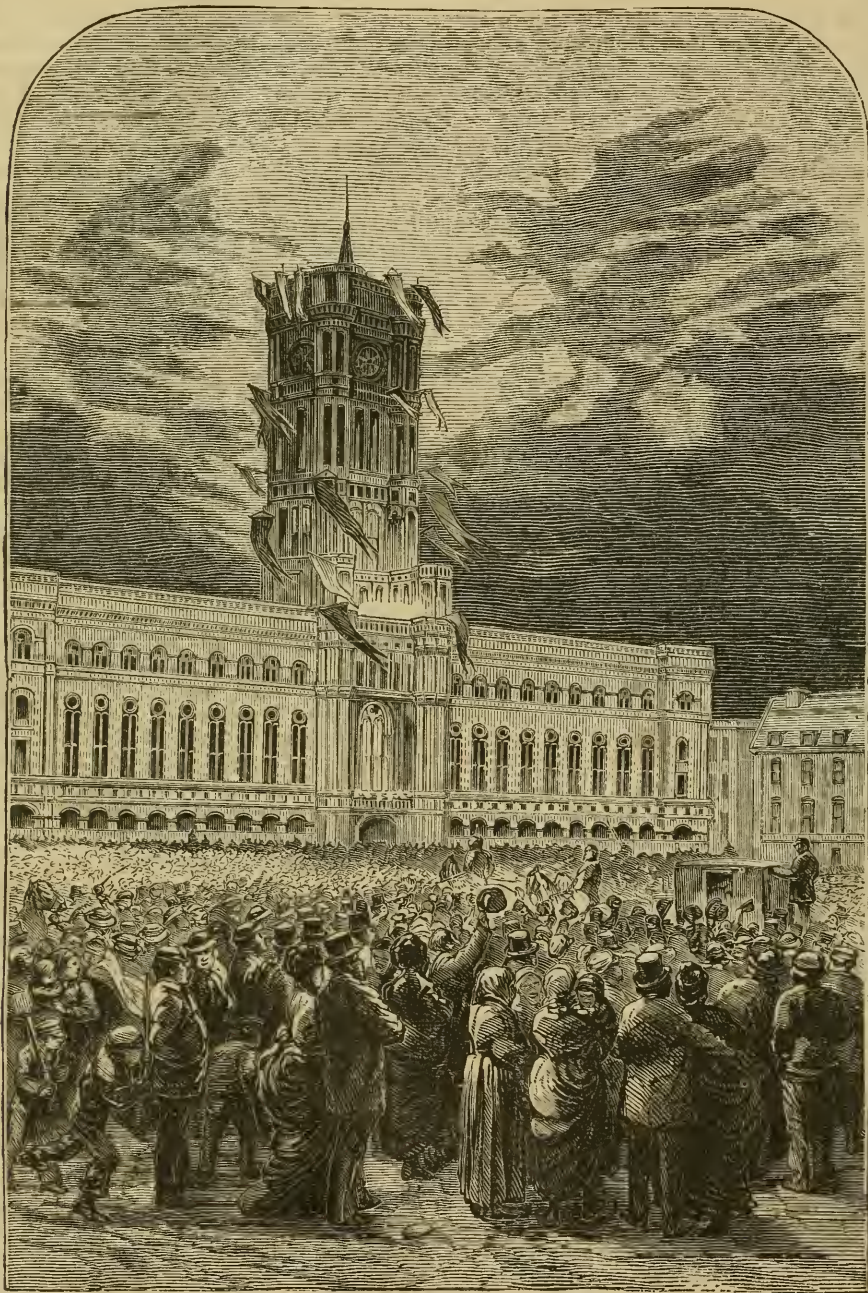
Marshal Bazaine, the French commander, made the fatal mistake of endeavoring to hold Metz. At length, perceiving his error, he resolved to retreat towards Chalons, where MacMahon was rapidly assembling a new army. He began this movement too late, and conducted it too leisurely. His withdrawal was begun on the 14th of August, and was at once detected by the Germans, who attacked the French rearguard at Courcelles and defeated it. Von Moltke took advantage of the delay in the French movements, caused by this battle, to

throw portions of the first and second armies across the Moselle for the purpose of seizing the roads by which the French were retreating. He meant to force them back upon Metz and shut them up in that fortress. While these movements were in progress, the third army, which had reached the neighborhood of Nancy, was ordered to halt there, in order to be able to render assistance to the other armies in case of need. On the 16th Bazaine, having passed a short distance beyond Metz, was attacked by the German forces which had crossed the Moselle. The battle took its name from the village of Mars le Tour, around which it was fought. It is called by the French the battle of Vionville. It continued throughout the entire day, and was contested with great stubbornness by both sides. The result was that the French army was forced back nearer to Metz, and the retreat of Bazaine was brought to an end. The 17th was passed by both armies in preparing for the decisive encounter. The German forces by great exertions were concentrated in their new position, and by the morning of the 18th Von Moltke had about 190,000 infantry, 24,000 cavalry, and over 600 pieces of artillery in readiness. Bazaine took up a strong position near Gravelotte, and strengthened his line by constructing a series of intrenchments and rifle pits. The French forces numbered 110,000 infantry, 10,000 cavalry, and 260 pieces of cannon. On the 18th of August the great battle of Gravelotte was fought, and was one of the most gallantly contested fields of history. The French were defeated and driven back towards Metz, within the fortifications of which they took refuge. The Germans at once invested the fortress and shut up the French army within their encircling line, thus rendering it useless for the remainder of the campaign.

These brilliant successes far exceeded the most sanguine anticipations of the German leaders. They made sure the safety of Germany from invasion by the French, and carried dismay into France. They were won at a heavy cost, however. The Germans admitted a loss of 16,000 men in the battle of Mars le Tour or Vionville; and at Gravelotte the losses were so heavy that the Prussian government shrank from publishing the returns. The flower of the German army fell that day.

The defeat of Bazaine's army and the

investment of Metz left the forces of the | Prussian crown prince free to resume their | army. A fourth army was formed of troops

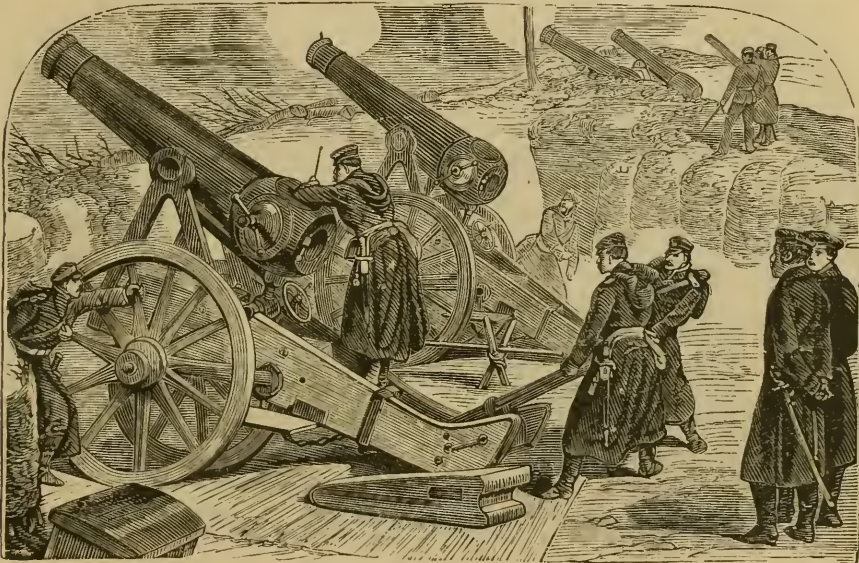


REJOICINGS AT BERLIN OVER THE GERMAN VICTORIES IN FRANCE.

advance. The prince was ordered to move | which had until now belonged to the sec-
from Nancy, where he had awaited the | ond army, was placed under the Crown
issue of the battles before Metz, upon Cha- | Prince of Saxony, and was called the army

of the Meuse. The Saxon crown prince was ordered to co-operate with Prince Frederick William in the movement upon Chalons, and the King of Prussia assumed the supreme command of the third and fourth armies, which moved steadily towards Chalons. They had gotten as far as Ligny, at which place the Prussian crown prince established his head-quarters, when news came that Marshal MacMahon had broken up his camp, had passed through Rheims, and was marching rapidly towards the Meuse. It was evident that he was seeking to relieve Bazaine at Metz, and the third and fourth German armies at once wheeled to the right, and hurried on in pursuit of

artillery was rapidly placed in position to cannonade the helpless mass gathered within the town. The bombardment was prevented by the surrender of the French army by General de Wimpffen, who had succeeded MacMahon, who had been severely wounded in the battle. The Emperor Napoleon III. had accompanied MacMahon's army, and now surrendered himself to the King of Prussia, and was assigned the Castle of Wilhelmshöhe, near Cassel, as a residence. By this surrender 84,000 men, 50 generals and 5,000 other officers became prisoners to the Germans, with all their artillery, arms, and stores. The officers, who gave their parole not to serve again during the war, were set



GERMAN SIEGE BATTERY BEFORE PARIS.

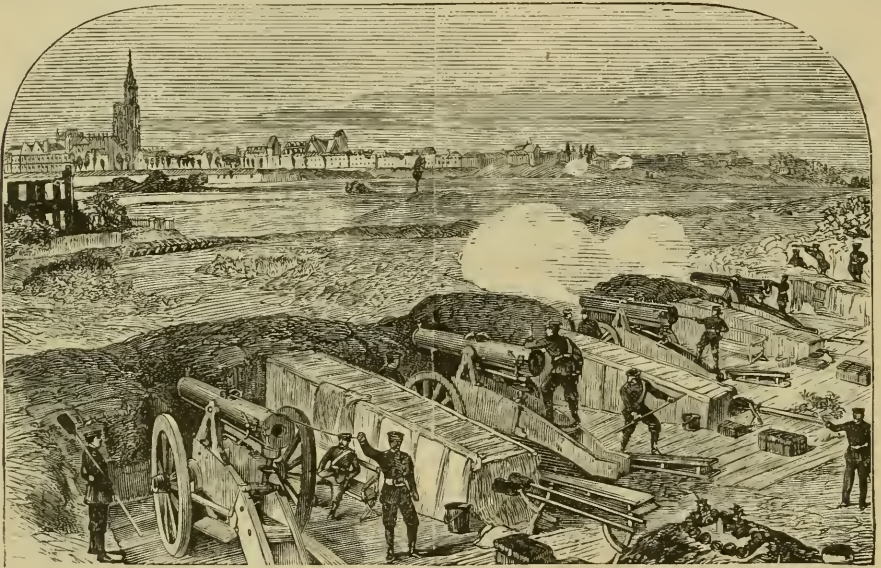
MacMahon. The French commander concentrated his army near Vouziers, and on the 28th of August moved towards the Meuse at Beaumont. On the 30th of August the French were attacked by the Germans near Beaumont and driven towards Sedan. The result of the German victory was that their army held the roads leading from the Meuse toward Metz. The effort of MacMahon to reach Metz was thus completely baffled, and Von Moltke now prepared to crush his army by a final blow. On the 1st of September the decisive battle of the campaign was fought before Sedan, and after a terrible struggle the French were driven into the town of Sedan, which the Germans at once surrounded. Their

at liberty, but the troops were sent to Germany as prisoners of war.

It was hoped in Germany that this disaster would bring the war to an end, but the German commanders did not share this hope, and as soon as the fruits of the victory at Sedan were secured, marched promptly upon Paris. The Government of the National Defence, which had succeeded the empire, would not consent to make peace upon the German terms, which were nothing less than the cession of Alsace and the German part of Lorraine, and the war went on. By the middle of September the Germans were in front of Paris, which was completely invested by them; the third army establishing itself on the south and

southeast of the city, while the fourth held the country on the north and northeast of Paris. On the 19th of September a French column under General Ducrot made a determined effort to prevent the investment, and on the 30th another attempt was made by General Vinoy. Both were unsuccessful. The Prussian crown prince established his head-quarters at Versailles, where, also, on the 5th of October, King William established his head-quarters. On the 13th and 21st of October the French made two determined but unsuccessful attempts to break through the German lines. Frequent encounters occurred between the opposing

October, Marshal Bazaine, who had made several vigorous but unsuccessful efforts to break through the German investment, surrendered his army and the fortress of Metz to Prince Frederick Charles. The force surrendered by him consisted of three marshals, 6,000 officers and 173,000 men. It was the most important capitulation in history. The first and second armies were left free by the surrender of Metz to take the field against the French in other quarters. The first army was placed under General von Manteuffel. A force was left behind to occupy Metz and hold Lorraine in subjection, and the remainder hastened towards



BOMBARDMENT OF STRASBURG.

forces, to the general disadvantage of the French.

The French now raised by extraordinary efforts a third force, called the army of the Loire, which it was hoped would compel the Germans to raise the siege of Paris. A fourth army was formed in the northern departments, under General Faidherbe, to co-operate with the army of the Loire.

The energy of M. Gambetta, who had escaped from Paris in a balloon, and had assumed dictatorial powers in the provinces, did not save France from fresh reverses. Strasburg, which had been besieged by the Baden troops since the battle of Wörth, surrendered on the 27th of September, and the ancient town passed once more into the hands of the Germans. On the 27th of

the northwest to attack the French under General Faidherbe. The second army, under Prince Frederick Charles, hastened to the Loire to the assistance of the Germans engaged in that quarter.

Before the fall of Metz the operations on the Loire had assumed a most important character. On the 12th of October General von der Tann occupied Orleans, after driving the French, under General La Motterouge, out of that city. On the 8th of November, being threatened by a greatly superior force of the French, Von der Tann withdrew from Orleans. On the 10th he was attacked by the army of the Loire, now under command of General De Paladines, and was defeated—the only victory gained by the French during the war. Von der

Tann fell back to Toury, where he was joined by the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg with reinforcements sent from the army before Paris, to enable him to hold the French in check until the arrival of the second German army, now on its march from Metz. The grand duke won some successes over the French forces near Chartres, and a few days later Prince Frederick Charles arrived with his forces and assumed the general command.

General Trochu, the commander of the garrison of Paris, concerted a plan with General De Paladines to attempt a simultaneous movement for the relief of Paris. The army of the Loire was to attack and drive back the forces of Frederick Charles, and advance upon Paris by way of Fontainebleau. At the same time General Ducrot with a force of 60,000 picked troops was to cut his way from Paris through the German lines on the Marne, and unite with the army of the Loire. The success of these movements would compel the Germans to raise the siege of Paris. On the 28th of November the army of the Loire began its forward movement, and attacked the Prussian left at Beaune la Rolande. After a battle of six hours the French were forced to withdraw. Heavy skirmishing succeeded this battle, and on the 2d of December the French again attacked the German army, striking this time at their centre, but were forced back. On the morning of the 3d the Germans assumed the offensive, drove back the French line at all points, broke it into three separate parts, and forced each to retreat by a separate route, every step carrying them farther apart. On the 4th the German army reoccupied Orleans. The French army was now divided into two separate columns, one commanded by General Bourbaki, and the other by General Chanzy, who was given the chief command of the army of the Loire. The effort of Ducrot to break the investment of Paris was made in gallant style on the 29th and 30th of November, but was unsuccessful. The French were driven back at every point, and the German line was maintained intact.

The efforts of the Germans in the north of France were very successful. The towns and fortresses of that section were rapidly occupied by them. The French were defeated near Amiens on the 27th of November, and on the 28th Amiens was surrendered to General Manteuffel. After the recovery of Orleans by the Germans in December,

Manteuffel moved from the Somme towards the coast, and on the 5th of December defeated the French at Buchy, in consequence of which victory Rouen fell into his hands. On the 8th a German corps occupied Dieppe. While Manteuffel was thus engaged, General Faidherbe, having recruited his army, advanced rapidly towards Amiens to recover that city. Manteuffel by forced marches reached Amiens before him, and defeated him near that city on the 23d of December. He again defeated the French at Bapaume on the 2d and 3d of January, 1871. On the 19th of January General von Goeben, Manteuffel's successor, defeated Faidherbe at St. Quentin.

In the meantime Prince Frederick Charles had advanced against the army of the Loire, and had forced it back into Brittany. After several encounters, he inflicted upon it a severe defeat at Le Mans on the 11th of January, 1871.

The column which retreated from Orleans on the 3d of December under General Bourbaki halted at Bourges, where it was reinforced and organized as a separate army. On the 5th of January, 1871, Bourbaki, in accordance with orders from Gambetta, set out from the Loire to raise the siege of Belfort, on the eastern border of France. He reached the vicinity of Belfort on the 14th of January, but found the besieging force strengthened by the army of General Von Werder, who had succeeded in reaching Belfort ahead of him. In a series of engagements on the 15th and 16th of January Bourbaki attempted to force the German position, but was defeated, and forced to retreat. Manteuffel, who had been detached from his command in the north, now arrived, and took command of the German forces. He intercepted Bourbaki's retreat, and forced him to choose between surrendering his army and withdrawing into Switzerland. Bourbaki chose the latter, and crossed the Swiss border. His forces were at once disarmed by the Swiss authorities. His army consisted of 84,000 men.

Paris in the meantime had been hard pressed by the Germans, who, on the 21st of January, began to bombard the city. This bombardment was kept up steadily until the surrender of the city. The French made several desperate efforts to break up the investment, but their sorties were invariably repulsed. Hunger began to try the patience of the Parisians, and the Gov-

ernment of the National Defence was obliged to quell an insurrection in the city. The last sortie of the French was made on

the movement for the union of Germany had been revived in the Fatherland, and the successes of the German army had been



HOISTING OF THE GERMAN FLAG OVER MONT VALERIEN.

the 19th of January, and was repulsed, and on the 28th of January Paris was formally surrendered to the German army.

During the progress of the war in France

so many appeals to the national sentiment in favor of this union. The glory achieved was the common gain of Germany, as were the more substantial results of the war.

Influenced by the feelings aroused by the struggle, the south German states came to desire a close union with the northern confederation. About the middle of October they sent plenipotentiaries to Versailles to give formal expression to their wishes. On the 15th of November treaties were signed with Hesse and Baden, with Bavaria on the 23d, and with Wurtemberg on the 25th of November, for the union of these states with the confederation. These treaties were approved by the North German Diet and the South German Parliaments, and the Northern Confederation was changed to a *German Confederation*. The union of the Fatherland was now an accomplished fact, and the rejoicings of the German people were deep and sincere. This event was soon followed by one of equal importance. On the 4th of December the King of Bavaria proposed to the other German sovereigns and to the free towns that the President of the Confederation should receive the title of German Emperor. This proposal was agreed to, and the imperial crown was formally offered to the King of Prussia, and accepted by him. On the 18th of January, 1871, in the presence of a brilliant assembly of German princes and officers of the army, held in the Hall of Mirrors in the Palace of Versailles, King William was solemnly proclaimed Emperor in Germany.

The surrender of Paris closed the war. It was followed by an armistice of three weeks, during which the French people organized a government competent to conclude a permanent peace. The preliminaries of peace were signed on the 26th of

February, 1871, by Count Bismarck and the south German plenipotentiaries, in behalf of Germany, and by MM. Thiers and Favre, on the part of France. By the terms thus agreed upon France ceded to the German empire the province of Alsace, with the exception of Belfort, and the German part of Lorraine, including Metz and Thionville; and agreed to pay Germany



WILLIAM I., EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

the sum of 5,000,000,000 francs as an indemnity for the expenses of the war.

On the 1st of March a portion of the German army entered Paris, and occupied a small part of it. On the 3d they evacuated the city. The preliminary treaty of peace being ratified by the French National Assembly at Bordeaux, the German troops were withdrawn to the frontier departments placed in their possession as security for the execution of the treaty, and the war was over. A final treaty of peace was con-

cluded at Frankfort by Count Bismarck and M. Favre, on the 10th of May. It was substantially the same as the preliminary treaty. The results of the war made Germany the first military power in Europe.

The emperor left Versailles for his own country soon after the close of hostilities, and on the 17th of March made his triumphal entry into Berlin, where he was received with enthusiasm.

On the 21st of March the first diet of the new empire met at Berlin. It at once set to work to make such changes in the German constitution as were demanded by the creation of the empire. This task was completed in about a month. The new constitution is substantially that of the German

ness of the state. The imperial chancellor is also the minister for foreign affairs. Though important privileges were reserved by the states in establishing the empire, there would seem to be little doubt that the tendency of affairs is to weaken these privileges and strengthen the power of the imperial government.

During the year 1871 the work of organizing the German empire was completed without difficulty or interruption. The large payments exacted from France enabled the government to meet its financial needs without imposing new taxes. Count Bismarck was raised to the rank of prince, and was appointed by the emperor chancellor of the empire, and to his energetic



ENTRY OF THE GERMAN ARMY INTO PARIS.

Confederation. The empire consists of twenty-five states, including the three free cities. Each state is left free to manage its domestic affairs, and may receive and send diplomatic representatives. Matters affecting the general welfare of the states are under the exclusive control of the imperial government; and the imperial diet is charged with legislation upon all such questions. The executive power is intrusted to the emperor, who has the right to form alliances, conclude treaties, declare war, and make peace. He is represented in the diet by the imperial chancellor, whom he appoints, and who presides over the federal council, and directs the busi-

ness of the work was mainly due.

One of the most remarkable events of the year was the sudden and bitter opposition of the mass of the Roman Catholic clergy to the unity of Germany under the supremacy of Prussia. This hostility was in some way connected with the new dogma of papal infallibility. During the sessions of the Vatican Council the German bishops had been most active in their hostility to the doctrine, but immediately upon its promulgation accepted it without hesitation, and commanded their followers to do likewise. About the same time they began an open opposition to the empire, and from

their pulpits denounced it in such seditious language that the imperial government was compelled to take severe measures against them. A bill was passed by the diet prescribing severe punishments for seditious language uttered in the pulpit. Only the gravest reasons of expediency induced the German government to depart from the policy of religious toleration. Had the new doctrine been a religious matter only, it would not have been noticed. It had a political bearing also, however, and the German priesthood determined to direct its full force against the empire established under Protestant supremacy. The contest was but a renewal of the old efforts of Rome to make the political system of Germany subservient to her, and the German government could not tolerate it. It therefore made the Catholic clergy responsible to the law for the attacks they aimed at the empire from their pulpits, and decisively proclaimed that the pulpit should not be made a place from which to incite sedition with impunity. The law applied to all religious sects, but as the Catholic clergy were the only ones who sought to make trouble, they alone experienced its effects. The law was openly disregarded, and the government was obliged during the next year to apply its penalties to a number of the Catholic clergy. The Jesuits had been for some time established in Germany. They were now especially active in the opposition to the imperial government; and in 1872 the German Parliament passed a law expelling them from the empire. Their establishments were broken up, and they were compelled to remove to other countries. In the same year the Prussian Parliament took the control of the primary education of the young out of the hands of the clergy, both Protestant and Catholic, and confided it to officials appointed by the state. The measure was acquiesced in by the Protestants, but was bitterly denounced by the Catholics.

The Orders of the Redemptorists, Lazarists, the Sacred Heart (composed of ladies) and some others, being closely connected with the Jesuits, shared their fate, and were compelled to leave Germany. In November, 1872, a conference of the German Catholic bishops was held at Fulda, and denounced the measures of the government against the religious orders as a persecution. In December the pope, in an allocation, in severe terms censured what he termed the "im-

udence" of the measures adopted by the German government. The emperor replied to this by promptly breaking off all diplomatic intercourse with the papal court.

In 1873 a bill was introduced by the government into the German Parliament, establishing civil marriage in the empire, and doing away with the necessity of baptism as a condition of the exercise of civil functions.

In the Prussian Parliament still more liberal measures were introduced; the design being to place Prussia, with respect to the various churches, on the footing occupied by the other Protestant states. The Catholic bishops refused to obey these laws. This open rebellion compelled the government to enforce its authority. Heavy fines were imposed upon the bishops for their disregard of the laws, and it was even necessary to imprison some of them. The government withdrew the pecuniary support it had given the Catholic clergy and institutions until the latter should return to their obedience to the laws. The pope now addressed to the emperor a strong letter of remonstrance, in which he affected to believe that the emperor did not approve of the measures of his government, expressed the hope that "the cruel laws against the church" would be repealed, and intimated that the papacy possessed some undefined rights to the allegiance of even Protestant sovereigns. The emperor, after a long interval, replied that in a constitutional state like Prussia, every law required the approval of the sovereign, and that he was in full sympathy with the measures of his government. He declared that the Catholic bishops had drawn their punishment upon themselves, and had wantonly disturbed the peace of the empire by their seditious refusal to obey the laws.

One of the measures to which the Catholic bishops objected most strongly was the law relating to the education and discipline of the clergy. It directs that parish priests shall not be appointed without the previous sanction of the government, and clerical students are required to pass through a course of instruction in the national universities. In this way the Prussian government hopes to *Germanize* the Catholic clergy, and to make sure of implanting in them some element of patriotism.

A new element was added to the contest by the legal position claimed by the Old Catholics. These were Catholics who re-

fused to accept the decree of the Vatican Council. They claimed that the pope and the bishops who adhered to the Vatican decree had abandoned the Catholic Church, and that they (the Old Catholics) were its representatives. As that church had been regarded in Prussia as one of the state churches, previous to 1870, they claimed, as its true representatives, to be entitled to the pecuniary support granted to it by law. The state government of Germany refused to accept this view, but at the same time declined to treat the Old Catholics as seceders from the Catholic Church, holding that the question was one of the internal government of that church with which the state had no right to interfere. Accordingly Prussia recognized the missionary bishop

of the Old Catholics as a bishop of the Catholic Church, and granted him a salary.

The quarrel between the empire and the Catholic Church has grown deeper every year. It is still unsettled, and bids fair to remain an open question for many years to come.

In September, 1872, the Emperor of Austria visited the German emperor at Berlin, and was cordially received, and in 1873 the Emperor William and the King of Italy visited Vienna. These visits were significant of the fact that Austria had accepted in good faith the changes in Germany and Italy, and was determined to take her place and do her duty honestly in the new arrangement of European affairs.

BOOK XIX.

THE HISTORY OF FRANCE.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE TREATY OF VERDUN.

Geographical Position of France—Ancient Gaul—The Cimri—The Belgæ—The Phœnician Colonies—The Greek Towns—The Gauls Cross the Alps—Destruction of Rome—Gallia Cisalpina—The Romans in Gaul—Aix Founded—Narbonne—Quarrel Between the Ædui and Sequani—Ariovistus Seizes a Part of Gaul—Julius Caesar Made Proconsul of Gaul—He Defeats Ariovistus—Conquers Gaul—Revolt of the Belgæ—It is Suppressed by Caesar—Uprising of the Gauls—Vercingetorix—He is Beaten by Caesar and Surrenders—Gaul Tranquillized by Caesar—Lyons Made the Capital—Gaul Under the Romans—The Institutions of Primitive Gaul—The Druids—Claudius Drives the Druids from Gaul—Revolt of Civilis—Sabinus—Introduction of Christianity into Gaul—Persecutions of the Christians—St. Denis—St. Hillary—State of Gaul During the Decline of the Roman Empire—Constantine Protects the Christians—The Germans Invited into Gaul—Julian Conquers them—The Great German Invasion—The Visigothic Kingdom—The Burgundians—The Franks—Kingdom of Aëtius—Invasion of the Huns—Battle of Chalons—St. Genéviève—Childeric—Situation of Gaul at the Fall of the Roman Empire—The Franks—Clovis Becomes King of the Franks—Reasons for Transferring the Narrative to the History of Germany—Gaul a German State.

MODERN France comprises the largest part of the region known by the Romans as Gallia Transalpina. It occupies the western end of the central part of the continent of Europe, and comprises an area of about 204,091 square miles. It is bounded

on the north by the North Sea and the Strait of Dover, and on the northwest by the English Channel, which separate it from England; on the east by the Alps, the Jura, and the Vosges Mountains, which respectively divide it from Italy, Switzerland, and the German Empire; on the south by the Pyrenees, which divide it from Spain, and by the Mediterranean; and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean and Bay of Biscay.

At some unknown period of antiquity this region was colonized by the Gauls, a tribe of warriors of Celtic descent, who are believed to have migrated from central Asia. They took possession of the wide region extending from the Rhine to the Atlantic and from the Mediterranean to the North Sea. From them this country acquired the name of Galltachd or Gaul. Somewhat later, the Cimri, another great Celtic race, invaded western Europe—perhaps about the middle of the seventh century before the Christian era. They entered Gaul from the northeast, and after a prolonged and desperate struggle with their Gallic kinsmen, obtained final possession of a large extent of country north of the Loire, including the peninsula of Armorica. Another Celtic nation, the Belgæ, took possession of the region east of the Rhine. There they were thrown into constant contact with the Germans, and

came to resemble them very much in manners and character. About two hundred years after the invasion of the Cimri, the Belgæ crossed the Rhine and conquered northern Gaul. Being of the same race as the Gauls already settled there, the Belgæ easily assimilated with them in course of time; but still retained many of their German characteristics. They gave to their country the name of Belgica. These nations constituted the inhabitants of ancient Gaul.

At a very early period the Phœnicians established colonies on the Mediterranean coast of Gaul, and are believed to have been the first to open and work the mines of the Cevennes. Later on they were supplanted by the Greeks, who became possessed of their colonies, founded others, and introduced into all the superior civilization of Hellas. About the year B. C. 600 some Greek refugees from Phœcia, in Asia Minor, founded the city of Marseilles. Antibes, Nice, Agde, and some other towns, all owe their existence to the Greeks. These people were content with their colonies and did not seek to extend their influence into the interior of Gaul.

The Gauls, who were driven from their possessions by the Cimri, emigrated into the adjoining countries. They twice crossed the Alps and overran northern Italy, and a portion passed the Pyrenees, entered Spain and became mixed with the Iberians of that country, from which they took the name of Celtiberi. About B. C. 390 the Senonian Gauls (Senones) passed the Apennines, and advanced upon Rome. They defeated the Roman army upon the Allia, captured Rome, and burned it, as we have related elsewhere. They were induced to withdraw only upon the payment of a costly ransom.

The Gauls now established themselves permanently in northern Italy, and were a constant terror to Rome until the victories of the Consul Decius, in B. C. 295, of L. Æmilius and Atilius, in B. C. 284, and of Claudius Marcellus, in B. C. 223, broke their power. After a long struggle all the Italian possessions of the Gauls were conquered by Rome, and northern Italy was organized as a Roman province under the title of Gallia Cisalpina. The Alps were thus constituted the boundary between the free Gauls and Rome, about B. C. 191.

Half a century passed away, and Rome began to cast longing eyes at the Gallic possessions beyond the Alps. The Greek

colony of Massilia or Marseilles, being at war with the neighboring Gauls, appealed to Rome for aid, and a powerful army was despatched to its aid under the Consul Opimius, B. C. 154. The Gauls were defeated by the Romans and became tributary subjects to Marseilles. Some years later the Romans defeated the Salyes on the lower Rhone; took formal possession of the conquered territory, and established their first colony in Gaul by founding the city of Aquæ Sextiæ, or Aix, in Provence, B. C. 123. From this point the Romans extended their conquests rapidly, and in B. C. 121 organized their possessions in Gaul as a province, their dominions corresponding very nearly with the modern Dauphiné and Provence. In B. C. 118 the colony of Narbo Martius, or Narbonne, was founded, and became the Roman capital of southern Gaul. The province acquired from this city the name of Gallia Narbonensis, and extended from the Garonne and the Pyrenees to the Alps and the borders of Italy.

Towards the middle of the first century before the Christian era, two Gallic tribes, the Ædui, inhabiting the region afterwards known as Burgundy, and the Sequani, occupying upper Alsace, became involved in war. The Sequani appealed to the Germans, who dwelt beyond the Rhine, for aid. A vast German army, under Ariovistus, crossed the Rhine and defeated the Ædui. The German leader then demanded of the Sequani the cession of the third part of their lands as the price of his aid. The Sequani refused, and united with their former enemies to drive out the Germans. Ariovistus defeated the combined tribes in a great battle, in B. C. 60, and at once occupied their territory, pushing his advance up to the very frontier of the Roman province. Gaul had ceased to be independent, and the only question to be decided now was whether it should be the prize of the Germans or the Romans. The latter had watched the progress of Ariovistus with open impatience, as they had for some time seriously contemplated the conquest of the whole of Gaul.

Gallia Cisalpina and Gallia Narbonensis were ruled at this time by Julius Cæsar as Proconsul, B. C. 58. He had foreseen the approaching contest with the Germans, and had quietly prepared for it. The Germans soon gave Rome a valid ground for war by making incursions into eastern Gaul. Cæsar sent a message to Ariovistus, and informed

him that if he wished to live on terms of peace with Rome, he must confine himself strictly to the right bank of the Rhine. The German leader haughtily answered that he held his province in Gaul by the same right by which Rome held hers, and defied Cæsar to meet him in the field. Upon receipt of this message, Cæsar at once marched against Ariovistus and inflicted a terrible defeat upon him in the plains of Alsace. The German army was routed with a loss of over 50,000 men, and the survivors fled in dismay over the Rhine. A little later Ariovistus died from rage and shame at his defeat.

This defeat destroyed the German power in Gaul, and Cæsar at once prepared to add that country to the Roman dominions. In B. C. 57 the tribes of northern Gaul formed a league against the Romans, and took the field with an army of over 300,000 men. The Remi alone refused to join the confederation and made an alliance with Cæsar. In the campaign which ensued Cæsar conquered the greater part of the regions known in modern times as Normandy and Brittany. The next year the whole of Armorica or Brittany was subdued, and in the same year Crassus, one of Cæsar's lieutenants, compelled the submission of nearly all the Aquitanian tribes, who dwelt south of the Garonne.

In B. C. 55, during the absence of Cæsar in Brittany, the Eburones, a Belgic tribe, dwelling on the banks of the Meuse, rose in insurrection, massacred one of the Roman legions stationed among them, and besieged another, under Q. Cicero, in its camp. Cæsar returned to Gaul as soon as informed of the danger, and with a force of but 7,000 men cut a passage through the Belgæ into the camp of Cicero. In the spring of B. C. 53 the Romans subdued the Eburones, utterly exterminated them, and compelled Ambiorix, their leader, to seek safety in the difficult region of the Ardennes.

The next year, B. C. 52, the Gauls rose in general revolt against the Romans. They were led by Vercingetorix, a young man of noble birth and commanding influence among the Arverni, and who was destined to prove himself a commander of unusual merit. He arranged the outbreak with great secrecy, and summoned the Gauls to meet him at Gergovia, the chief town of the Arverni. An immense army gathered there at the appointed time, and the troops, with cheers, hailed Vercingetorix as their

commander. It was in the winter, and Vercingetorix supposed that the Romans would not be able to take the field against him until the spring.

Cæsar was in Italy when he received the news of the uprising of the Gauls. He at once set out for Gaul and reached it in an almost incredibly short time. Disregarding the severities of the winter, he collected his troops, marched into the country of the Arverni, and ravaged it far and wide. Avaricum (Bourges) was taken after a memorable siege, in spite of the efforts of Vercingetorix to relieve it, and nearly the whole of its 40,000 inhabitants were put to the sword. Vercingetorix retreated to Gergovia, a place of great strength, and repulsed the attack of Cæsar upon the town. The Romans were obliged to raise the siege and retire northward. Vercingetorix followed in pursuit, and came up with Cæsar near Dijon. A bloody battle ensued, in which the Gallic leader was beaten. He threw himself into the strongly fortified town of Alesia, in the country of Mandubii, which was at once besieged by the Romans. The position was so strong that Cæsar determined not to risk an assault upon it, but to reduce it by a blockade, and erected works of circumvallation on an enormous scale. Vercingetorix thereupon dismissed his entire force of cavalry, with orders to appeal to the Gauls to join him in a final effort to secure the independence of their country. In answer to this appeal an army of nearly 250,000 men assembled under Vergasillaunus, and attempted to force Cæsar to raise the siege of Alesia. Cæsar defeated the relieving army of the Gauls in three engagements, scattered it, never to be reunited, and took Vergasillaunus prisoner. These successes sealed the fate of Alesia. Seeing that a capitulation was inevitable, Vercingetorix, arrayed in his best armor and mounted on a superbly caparisoned charger, rode into the Roman lines the day after the last battle, and presenting himself before Cæsar, cast his arms at the conqueror's feet in token of his submission. He was kept a prisoner for several years, and then, having graced the triumph of Cæsar at Rome, was put to death in his dungeon. The fall of Alesia really settled the fate of Gaul, but it was some time before the entire country was reduced to submission.

Having conquered Gaul, Cæsar proceeded to organize it as a Roman province. He

treated the natives kindly, and as far as was consistent with the establishment of Roman institutions among them, permitted army, in which they constituted the legion of the "Alauda," so called from the figure of a lark on the front of the helmet. These



VERCINGETORIX SURRENDERS TO CÆSAR.

them to retain the privileges of local government. He induced the best of the conquered warriors to enlist in the Roman troops were given the privileges of Roman citizens. The Gauls of Belgium and Aquitania also enlisted in large numbers in the

Roman army, and greatly distinguished themselves in the subsequent civil wars. The conquests of Cæsar were erected into a Roman province, to which the name of Gallia Comata was given.

Upon the establishment of the Roman empire by Augustus, Gaul was made an imperial province; that is, it was placed under the immediate government of the emperor. It was divided into four great administrative districts. These were Gallia Narbonensis, in which no change was made; Aquitania, which was enlarged, and extended from the Loire to the Pyrenees and the Cevennes; Gallia Lugdunensis, which reached from the Loire to the Rhone and the Saone, and northward to rivers Oise, Somme, and Marne; and Gallia Belgica, which embraced all northern Gaul as far as the Rhine, and extended along that river almost to the Lake of Constance.

The seat of government was fixed at Lugdunum or Lyons. This city, founded in B. C. 42, grew with remarkable rapidity, and within fifteen years became the most flourishing town in Gaul. It was always a favorite residence of the Roman emperors. Four well-built roads extended from Lyons to the various parts of the province. Every effort was made to Romanize the Gauls and attach them to the empire, as well as to destroy all their old ties and associations. They were well treated, and the privileges of Roman citizenship were liberally, though judiciously, extended to them. Civilization made rapid strides throughout the province. Flourishing schools were established at Bordeaux, Toulouse, Arles, Vienne, Autun, Rheims, and other cities, and those of Arles and Autun in time became so famous as to be counted worthy rivals of the most celebrated academies of Greece and Italy. The Gauls eagerly sought the benefits of education, and ere long natives of the country were to be found in all the branches of the Roman service. The cities founded by the Romans, especially in the south of Gaul, were adorned with handsome buildings and noble public works, of which the Pont du Gard, the triumphal arch and theatre at Orange, and the amphitheatre and the "Maison Carrée" at Nismes, are notable examples. By the middle of the first Christian century Gaul was thoroughly imbued with the civilization of Rome, and was making great advances in it yearly.

The change thus accomplished was great indeed. The primitive Gauls had main-

tained an aristocratic or oligarchical form of government, the most remarkable feature of which was the extraordinary power of the Druids. Cæsar informs us that in his time the whole political power of Gaul was divided between the Druids and the knights or nobles. The mass of the people were serfs or slaves. They could not be bought or sold, and ill-treatment of them was punished by a fine, but in all other respects they were completely in the hands of the nobles. Each noble was surrounded by a number of them, who constituted a special class of retainers, whom he was bound to protect against all persons; the retainers on their part were obliged to defend his person and maintain his interests with absolute devotion. The noble supported them, and they readily shared all his dangers. If he fell in battle, or was killed, it was the duty of his clients to sacrifice themselves on his tomb, that they might share his fate in the future life. It is said that no instance was ever known of an attempt to evade this obligation.

The Druids stood at the head of the Celtic religious organization. They were divided into the inferior priests; the bards, who were supposed to be divinely inspired, and whose influence over the people was immense; and the Druids proper. The last class were exempted from all civil and military obligations, and passed their lives in the solitudes of the forests, engaged in theological and metaphysical studies and meditations. They taught, says Cæsar, "that souls do not perish, but pass after death into other bodies; considering this as a most powerful stimulus to bravery and courage, since it tends to remove altogether the fear of death." A solemn conclave of the Druids was held every year at a sacred place in the country of the Carnutes. This assembly constituted also a high court of appeal. Causes of all kinds were brought before it. Those who refused to accept its decisions were excluded by it from the sacrifices—a punishment much dreaded by the Gauls, as it banished the offender from the society of his people and incapacitated him for any public function. The Druids were not only ministers of religion and judges of the law; they were the physicians of the people, philosophers, professors of such of the arts and sciences as were known to the Celts, poets, genealogists, and historians. They monopolized all the culture and intellectual power of their race, and

their influence over their people followed as a natural result.

The religious rites of the Druids were often cruel and bloody. Human beings were frequently sacrificed in order to gain the favor of the gods, or to avert the death or illness of some individual; it being believed that the gods required a human life for every life granted. Sometimes a huge frame of wicker, made in the shape of a man, was filled with human beings—generally condemned criminals or captives taken in war—and was set on fire, the wretched beings perishing in the flames.

Augustus did not attempt to persecute or proscribe the Druidical religion in Gaul, but he spared no pains to undermine it and draw the Gauls from it. He refused the privileges of Roman citizenship to all who took part in the ancient worship, and especially in the human sacrifices, and endeavored to combine the old worship with that of the gods of Rome in such a manner as to make the latter supplant the former. He was very successful, and in the course of a few years almost the entire nobility and the more influential classes abandoned Druidism. It still retained its hold upon the lower classes, but it ceased from this time to influence the course of affairs in Gaul. The Emperor Claudius determined to strike a death-blow at the old faith, and in A. D. 43 issued a decree forbidding the Druidical worship under pain of death, and banishing all classes of the Druids from Gaul. They fled to Britain; but the vengeance of the emperor pursued them, and they took refuge in the mountains of Wales and Scotland. Their chief stronghold in the isle of Anglesey was taken with terrible slaughter by the Roman general Suetonius Paulinus.

The general tranquillity which pervaded Gaul was broken in A. D. 69 by an insurrection of the tribes of Belgic Gaul, led by Claudius Civilis. He proclaimed the "Empire of the Gauls," and set up Julius Sabinus, who claimed descent from Julius Cæsar, as emperor. After some reverses, the Romans put down the outbreak. Civilis submitted, together with his people, and they were granted amnesty. Sabinus escaped, and, with his wife Eponina, took refuge in a subterranean cavern. They remained in concealment there for nine years, but were at length discovered. Sabinus was loaded with chains and taken to Rome, where he was put to death. His heroic

wife demanded to share his fate, and was executed with him.

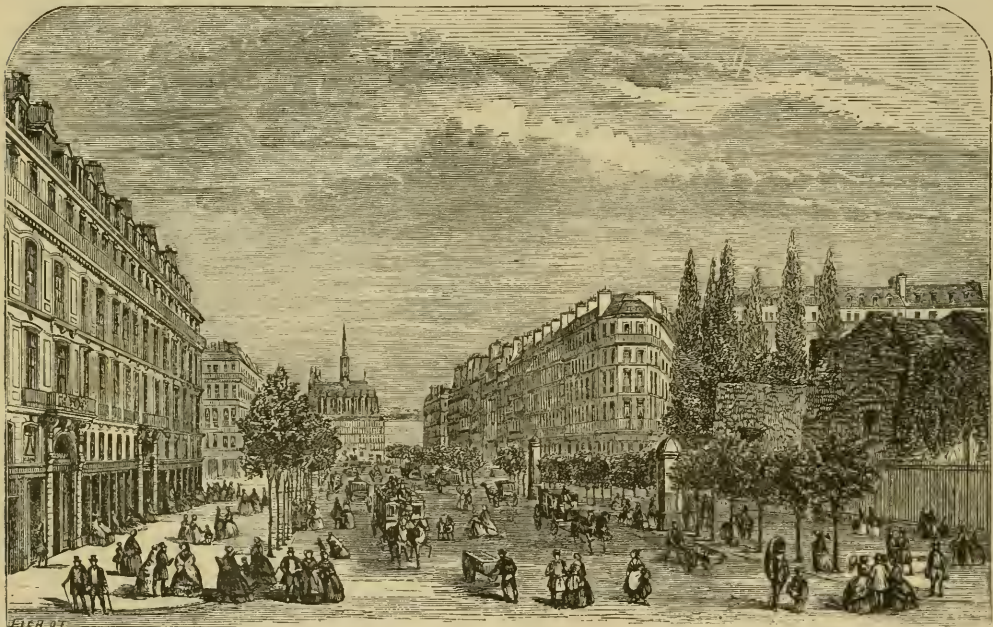
This was the last effort of the Gauls to regain their freedom. A long period of unbroken tranquillity followed, during which the province made great advances in refinement and luxury. The national character suffered, and the Gauls became as indolent and apathetic as they had been fierce and restless in their primitive days.

At some time during this period the Christian religion was introduced into Gaul. The exact date of this event is not known. Some writers hold that St. Paul, in his journey into Spain, passed through Gaul and sowed the first seeds of Christianity there; others place its introduction at a later period. The first definite information we have on the subject is the arrival in Gaul, about A. D. 155, of a band of Christian missionaries from Asia Minor, led by Pothinus and Irenæus, disciples of St. Polycarp, Bishop of Smyrna. They were very successful in their labors, and planted the church firmly upon the soil of Gaul. Twenty years later Marcus Aurelius inaugurated a cruel persecution of the Gallic Christians, and in A. D. 202 Septimius Severus renewed the persecution in a still more cruel form. These trials did not destroy the new faith; but, as elsewhere, the constancy of the martyrs proved the means of spreading Christianity. About A. D. 250, Fabian, Bishop of Rome, despatched a band of missionaries to Gaul. They were led by Dionysius, better known as St. Denis, Saturninus, Stremonius, Martialis, Trophimus, Gratian, and Paul, who founded the sees of Paris, Toulouse, Clermont, Limoges, Arles, Tours, and Narbonne. Nearly all these bishops suffered martyrdom during the reigns of Valerian and Diocletian, but their work was taken up and carried on by faithful successors, and from their time we may date the permanent Christianization of Gaul. By the opening of the fourth century the church was firmly established in all the principal cities of the province. During the fourth century St. Hillary, Bishop of Poitiers, successfully combated the Arian heresy and prevented it from spreading over Europe; and St. Martin, Bishop of Tours, established the monastic system in Gaul. The Christian religion spread steadily throughout the province, in spite of the efforts of the emperors to destroy it, and when Constantine came to

the throne was already rapidly becoming the predominant faith of Gaul.

Gaul fell into a sad state of disorganization and suffering during the period of the decline of the empire. A formidable insurrection of the peasants occurred during the reigns of the Emperors Maximian and Diocletian. In the rearrangement of the empire, in A. D. 292, Gaul was divided into seventeen provinces, and made part of a prætorian prefecture. The administration of Gaul was confided to the Cæsar Constantius Chlorus, who fixed his head-quarters at Arles. He was mainly occupied in the effort to defend the Rhine frontier against the constant efforts of the Germans to pass

With their aid Constantius conquered his rival; but when the struggle was over, the German allies of the emperor refused to return to their own country, and the frontier provinces were given up to them. The Salian Franks seized the isle of Battavia and the larger part of Brabant and Hainault. They ravaged the country with fire and sword, and sacked and burned to the ground Trèves, Cologne, Mayence, Worms, Spire, Strasburg, and thirty-four other flourishing cities of Gaul. Constantius despatched an army to the relief of Gaul, under his cousin Julian, in the beginning of A. D. 356. Julian defeated the Germans at Cologne, Sens, and Strasburg, drove



BOULEVARD SÉBASTOPOL, PARIS, SHOWING THE RUINS OF THE PALACE OF THE EMPEROR JULIAN.

it. He was succeeded by his son Constantine the Great, who defeated a formidable horde of Franks who were ravaging the northeastern provinces, and drove them back into Germany, A. D. 310. Like his father, Constantine protected the Christians, and when he became sole Emperor of Rome established Christianity as the religion of the empire.

The death of Constantine was followed, as we have seen, by a struggle between his successors, which resulted in the triumph of Constantius. In this war both Constantius and his rival Magnentius sought the assistance of the Germans beyond the Rhine.

them over the Rhine, and compelled them to sue for peace. Julian then returned to Paris, which he made his favorite residence. He enlarged and improved the city, and built him a palace on the left bank of the Seine, the ruins of which still exist. While residing here he was proclaimed Augustus, or emperor, by the army, in A. D. 360.

Upon the death of Julian the Germans whom he had defeated reappeared on the Rhine, and in order to gain any advantage over them the emperors were obliged to employ the services of barbarian mercenaries. The division of the empire under Arcadius and Honorius greatly weakened

it and encouraged the Germans to a corresponding degree. They increased their pressure upon the Rhine frontier, and in A. D. 398, Trèves, the capital of Gaul, was surprised, sacked, and destroyed by them. Honorius sent an army against them under the great Stilicho, but this able general could do no more than hold back the tide of invasion for a while. The savage hordes of Asia were moving in an irresistible torrent into northern Europe, and the nations of that region were being pressed steadily upon the Roman empire. Yielding to this pressure, the Germans marched upon the frontiers of Gaul. Their way was impeded by their kinsmen, the Ripuarian Franks, who, as we have seen elsewhere, were the allies of Rome. They remained faithful to their alliance, and sought to defend the Rhine frontier, but were decisively defeated. On the night of the 31st of December, 406, the Germans passed the Rhine and swarmed into Gaul. They were followed from time to time by other tribes, and the invaders spread themselves over a large part of Gaul, which they held permanently.

When the Roman legions in Britain heard of the irruption of the Germans into Gaul, they threw off their allegiance to the feeble Honorius, and set up as emperor an adventurer named Constantine. He had a considerable following, and gained the assistance of the Burgundians and Franks by confirming them in the possession of the lands they had seized in Gaul. With their aid Constantine made himself master of southern and central Gaul, and routed an army sent against him from Italy by Honorius. He next invaded Spain, and won some successes, but after a reign of three years his good fortune deserted him, and he was defeated and compelled to surrender to the forces of Honorius. He was promised his life, but Honorius did not scruple to violate his pledge, and Constantine was put to death, A. D. 411.

The fall of Constantine was followed by a period of confusion and anarchy, the history of which is almost unknown. During this period three powerful German nations planted themselves firmly in Gaul. These were the Visigoths in the south, the Burgundians in the east, and the Franks in the north and west.

Alaric, the King of the Visigoths, died in A. D. 410, after the sack of Rome, and during the invasion of Italy. He was succeeded by his brother-in-law Adolphus, or

Ataulphus. He had married Placidia, the sister of Honorius, who had been taken prisoner by Alaric. As a means of inducing the Goths to quit Italy, Honorius conferred upon Adolphus the southern provinces of Gaul. The Visigoths at once crossed the Alps, and defeating the last of the pretenders who had followed Constantine, subdued and took possession of the country assigned them. In 418 a new treaty was made with Honorius, by which the limits of the Visigothic kingdom were clearly defined. It embraced the whole of the Roman Aquitania. Adolphus was assassinated in A. D. 415, but transmitted his kingdom intact to his successors.

The Burgundians came into Gaul at the time of the great invasion in 406. They took possession of Alsace; and, somewhat later, were given by Honorius the province of Gallia Sequanensis as a reward for defeating and slaying the pretender Jovinus. They gained some other territory, and their kingdom extended from the Lake of Geneva as far as Coblenz on the Rhine. The Rhone and the Allier separated them from the Visigoths on the east, and the Mediterranean formed their southern border. Lyons, Geneva, Basle, Autun, and Langres were their principal cities. The kingdom of Burgundy, thus formed, existed for more than a century, and was finally absorbed by the empire of Charlemagne.

Both the Visigoths and Burgundians were Christians at the time of their settlement in Gaul. They had adopted the Arian heresy, however.

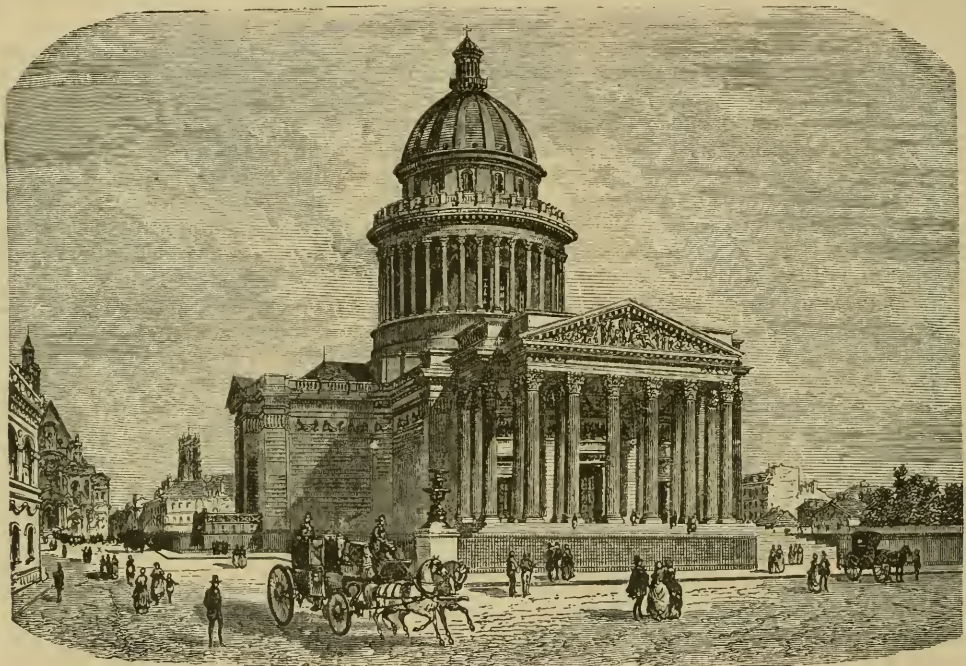
The Franks, as we have seen in our account of them in the history of Germany, passed the lower Rhine, and occupied the country between that river, the Scheldt, and the Ardennes Mountains. By degrees they made themselves masters of nearly the whole of Belgium, and finally pushed their conquests as far as the Somme. In A. D. 413 they captured and plundered for the fourth time the Roman capital of Trèves, and somewhat later seized Cologne and the whole region between the Rhine and the Meuse. As we have seen, the Franks comprised a confederation of a number of kindred tribes, the chief of which were the Salians, or Sali, the Ripuarii, the Sicambri, the Bracteri, and the Chamavi. They gave their name at an early day to the region held by them; it was called Francia, or the land of the Franks. By degrees, as we have seen, the Salian Franks became the

predominant tribe, and founded the kingdom of the Franks.

During the reign of Valentinian III. the imperial general Aëtius undertook to restore the Roman authority in Gaul. He won some signal successes over the Visigoths, the Burgundians, and the Salian Franks, and seemed on the point of realizing his designs. His progress was checked by the sudden appearance of the Huns under Attila in Gaul. The Huns crossed the Rhine in February, 451, and ravaged the country as they advanced. Metz was taken by storm and destroyed, and the barbarians

Chlodio. The battle of Chalons and its results have been related elsewhere, and we need not repeat the narrative here.

During the reigns of Avitus and Majorian, Gaul was governed by the patrician Ægidius, whose high qualities won him the admiration of the Franks. These deposed their king, Childeric, and elected Ægidius to their throne. Eight years later Childeric was recalled from his exile by his people, and a war broke out between the Franks and Ægidius. The Franks regained all the territory of which they had been deprived by Aëtius, drove the Romans from Paris,



CHURCH OF SAINTE-GENÉVÈVE (THE PANTHÉON), PARIS.

moved westward towards Paris. The people of that city were on the point of flying from it in terror when their courage was revived by a peasant girl named Geneveva, who declared to them in the name of heaven that the barbarians should not come within sight of the walls. Attila verified her prediction by turning aside from Paris towards the Marne. The grateful Parisians have, in all subsequent ages, honored Geneveva under the name of St. Genéviève as the patron saint and protectress of their city.

Attila moved towards Chalons, whither he was followed by Aëtius, whose ranks had been reinforced by the Visigoths under their king, Theodoric, and the Franks under

and forced them back to the Loire. Ægidius died in 465, and was succeeded by his son Syagrius, who made Soissons his capital, and reigned over the districts of the Oise, the Somme, the Marne, and the Aisne. During the reign of Syagrius, the Western empire fell, never to be re-established. The Eastern Emperor Zeno acknowledged the royal title of Odoacer, the Gothic King of Italy, and entirely abandoned all effort to retain Gaul as a part of the imperial dominions.

“It was impossible to foresee which of the several powers among which Gaul was then divided, or whether any of them, would ultimately obtain the dominion of

the country. At first sight the chances seemed in favor of the Visigoths, whose monarchy, now reaching to the banks of the Loire, comprised at least a third part of Gaul, while toward the south it stretched beyond the Pyrenees, into the heart of Spain. But there was one great obstacle to the complete establishment of the power of the Visigoths in Gaul; they professed an heretical form of Christianity—they were Arians, while the mass of the Gallo-Roman population was firmly attached to the primitive Catholic faith. This difference of belief engendered among the orthodox bishops and clergy a deep aversion to the Visigothic rule, and the influence of the priesthood being then predominant, it was evident that the final arbitration lay mainly in their hands. Amid the general decomposition of the ancient social system, the lower orders had learned to look up to the church as their most powerful defender; it was the bishop who administered justice, redressed grievances, appeased tumults, sheltered the fugitive in the asylum of his palace, and alleviated by his charity the miseries of war. An authority thus deeply rooted and universally respected was not likely to accept the dominion of a race of foreign heretics, who lost no opportunity of oppressing and persecuting, even to imprisonment and death, the professors of the true faith. The bishops looked round for some new element by means of which the wreck of society might be reconstructed; and they were led, by virtuous motives, to fix their hopes upon the Franks, who, although still pagans, seemed open to any powerful influence, and offered a promising field for missionary enterprise. The Franks were at that moment in the rudest state of barbarous ignorance, unskilled in military science, and to all appearance quite unfit to cope with such a vigorous empire as that of the Visigoths; but, armed with the patronage and co-operation of the church, their ultimate triumph was secure, for the Gallic nation, as distinguished from the extraneous races of the barbaric invasion, was thus engaged in their favor. Such, doubtless, was the secret of the great social revolution at the close of the fifth century in Gaul. 'It was the church,' as M. Michelet observes, 'that made the fortune of the Franks.'

Childeric, King of the Salian Franks, died in 481, and was succeeded by his son Chlodwig, or Clovis, then but fifteen years old.

This event is usually regarded as the foundation of the French monarchy. From this time until the treaty of Verdun, after the fall of Charlemagne's empire, the history of France and the history of Germany are one and the same. France, as we have seen in our account of Germany, now passed under the dominion of the Germans. For this reason the writer has deemed it best to relate the events of the reigns of Clovis and his successors, down to the division of Charlemagne's dominions, in the history of Germany. The reader is referred to the Second and Third Chapters of Book XVIII for the narrative, which it is unnecessary to repeat here.

CHAPTER II.

FROM THE TREATY OF VERDUN TO THE DEATH OF LOUIS IX.

The Treaty of Verdun Assigns France to Charles the Bald—He Establishes his Authority—Ravages of the Northmen—Charles Seizes a Part of Burgundy—Becomes Emperor—The Successors of Charles—Charles the Fat—Paris Besieged by the Normans—Charles the Simple—The Northmen are Given Normandy as the Price of a Peace—Rollo—Normandy Organized—Weakness of Charles—Louis d'Outremer—Hugh Capet Found the French Monarchy—Robert the Pious—Is Separated from his Wife by the Church—Introduction of Southern Civilization into France—Religious Awakening—Erection of Churches—Persecution of the Jews—Henry I.—Famine in France—The Truce of God—William of Normandy—Establishes his Authority over his Duchy—Philip I.—William of Normandy Conquers England—War Between Normandy and France—Philip's Quarrel with the Church—The Crusades—Louis VI.—Extent of the French Dominions—Enfranchisement of the Communes—Different Constitutions of the Boroughs in the North and South of France—Growth of the Royal Power—Wars of Louis with Henry I. of England—Louis VII.—Sets Out on the Second Crusade—Its Failure—Divorce of Queen Eleanor—She Marries Henry Plantagenet—Henry Becomes King of England—Origin of the Enmity Between France and England—Philip Augustus—Marries Isabella of Hainault—His Policy—War with England—Philip and Henry Agree to Join the Crusade—Philip Aids the Rebellion of Richard Cœur de Lion—The Third Crusade—Philip's Jealousy of Richard—Returns to France—Leagues with John Against Richard—Agnes de Méran—War Between Philip and John—Gains of Philip—The Albigensian War—Prince Louis' Expedition to England—The War in Languedoc—Death of Philip—Louis VIII.—Louis IX.—His Good Reign—War with England—Louis Joins the Crusade—His Death—Is Canonized.

THE Treaty of Verdun assigned France to Charles the Bald, but deprived that country of its natural frontier of the Rhine, as the division was made according to the language of the inhabitants of the

dominions of Louis the Gentle. "Now that a tongue was considered a bond of nationality, the French were contented to surrender to Lothaire, the emperor, a long strip of territory, running the whole way up from Italy to the North Sea, including both banks of the Rhine, and acting as a wall of partition between them and the German-speaking people on the other side!"

the islands and mainland of Denmark and Norway, these fierce rovers swept across the North Sea, and soon made France one of the chief objects of their attacks. They were pagans, and, cherishing a bitter hatred toward Christianity and its followers, never spared a monk or a monastery. In their light but strong and swift galleys they could easily ascend the navigable rivers, and no storm was fierce enough to keep



THE TREATY OF VERDUN.

Charles the Bald found his new kingdom in a state of anarchy. Brittany, Aquitaine, and Septimania or Languedoc were practically independent, and it required a long and severe struggle to reduce them to a state of semi-allegiance to him. During this period the kingdom was exposed to the ravages of the fierce Scandinavian freebooters, known as Northmen, and in later times as Normans. Starting from

them from the open sea. Their leaders were warriors and poets, and animated their followers with wild songs of the deeds of their ancestors. They soon reached the Straits of Gibraltar in their forays, and extended their ravages to the shores of the Mediterranean. In A. D. 841 they ascended the Seine as far as Rouen and pillaged and burned that city. Every year their depredations were repeated, and in 845,

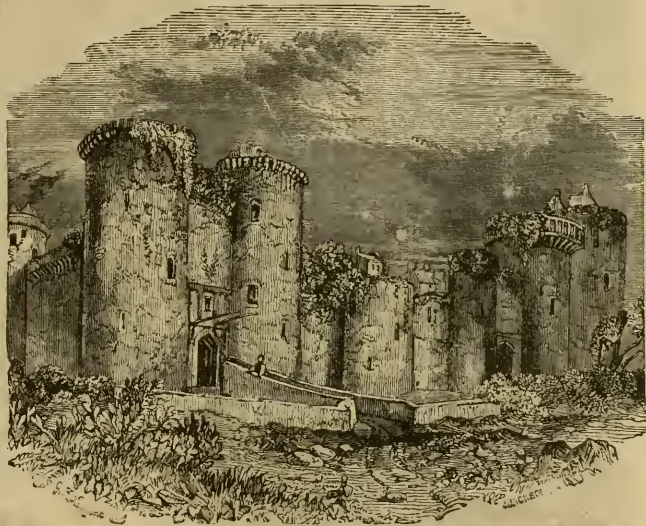
under their famous leader, Regnor Lodbrog, they reached Paris. Charles the Bald abandoned his capital without a blow, and the Norsemen plundered the city and its rich churches and abbeys, and then consented to make terms with Charles, who purchased their withdrawal by the payment of 7,000 pounds of silver. In 857 they again took Paris, and massacred a large number of its inhabitants. Returning in 862 they met with a vigorous resistance from Robert the Strong, whom Charles had made Count of Paris and governor of the region between the Seine and the Loire. In spite of the gallant efforts of Count Robert, the weakness of Charles enabled the Normans to inflict serious damage upon France during the next five years. In A. D. 866 Count Robert was slain in an engagement with the famous pirate chief, Hastings.

The Emperor Lothaire died in A. D. 855, leaving his dominions to his three sons. One of these sons, Lothaire, King of Lorraine, died in A. D. 869, and though his dominions, in the absence of direct heirs, should have gone to his eldest brother, the Emperor Louis, Charles the Bald took advantage of the occasion to increase his own kingdom at the expense of Lorraine by the addition of the western districts between the Meuse and the Scheldt—Cisjurane Burgundy—and the counties of Lyons and Vienne. The death of the Emperor Louis in August, 875, enabled Charles to gain a still greater advantage. He promptly crossed the Alps, entered Italy, and induced the pope to espouse his cause and crown him emperor on Christmas day, A. D. 875. This brought on a war with his brother Louis, the German, who invaded France in 876, but the death of Louis in August of the same year brought the struggle to a close, and in 877 Charles himself died.

Charles was succeeded by his only surviving son, Louis the Stammerer, who died a year and a half later, A. D. 879, leaving his throne to his two sons, Louis III. and Carloman, who reigned conjointly—Louis in the north of France, and Carloman in Aquitaine and Burgundy. During this

reign Duke Boso, the brother-in-law of Charles the Bald, rebelled, and with the general consent of the people of those regions made himself King of Burgundy and Provence. His capital was established at Arles. The kingdom thus set up maintained its separate existence for more than a century and a half. Louis died in August, 882, after having decisively defeated the Northmen under their leader Hastings at Sancourt, near Abbeville. Carloman followed him in 884.

The direct heir to the crown being a mere infant, the nobles conferred the sovereignty upon the Emperor Charles the Fat, the son of Louis the German. In A. D. 885 the Northmen, under their famous leader Rollo, laid siege to Paris in over-



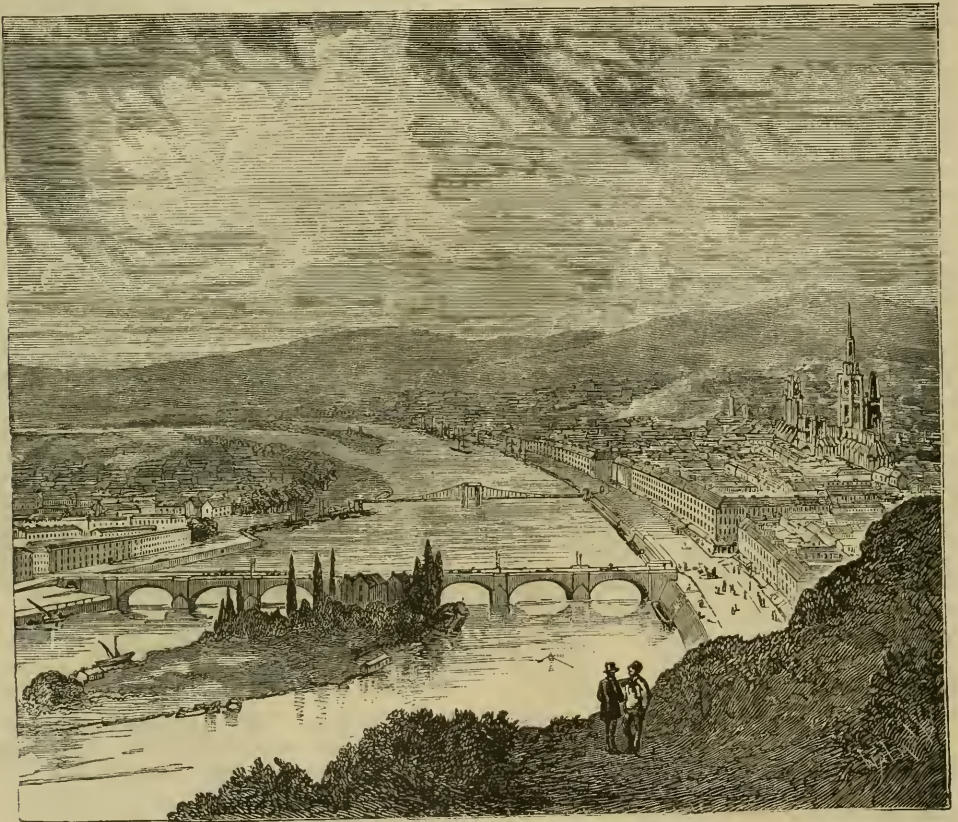
CASTLE OF ROUEN.

whelming force. The city was bravely defended for eighteen months by Eudes, the son and successor of Count Robert the Strong. After a long delay Charles marched from Germany to the relief of Paris, but on reaching the vicinity weakly consented to purchase the withdrawal of the Northmen by the payment of 800 pounds of silver. The whole empire was disgusted by the weakness and incompetence of Charles, and he was deposed in A. D. 887.

The nobles now offered the crown of France to Count Eudes, the heroic defender of Paris, in grateful recognition of his services. Eudes had already been made Duke of France by the Emperor Charles. His authority as king was firmest in Anjou,

but it was not recognized in Aquitaine, and was merely nominal south of the Loire. A powerful party adhered to Charles the Simple, the last survivor of the Carolingian house, and after a brief struggle, Eudes generously ceded to his young opponent the sovereignty of the region between the Seine and the Meuse. At his death in A. D. 898 he enjoined the barons who surrounded him to transfer their allegiance faithfully to Charles the Simple. Robert, the brother of Eudes, succeeded him as Duke of France,

and in addition that he and his followers should cease their depredations and embrace Christianity, A. D. 912. The region thus granted to Rollo took from its new settlers the name of Normandy. Rollo made Rouen his capital, and he and his followers having now an interest in the land, kept back their rude countrymen from further aggressions, and so constituted a most effectual protection to France from this hitherto exposed quarter. When Rollo went to take the oath of fealty to his new sov-



ROUEN, THE OLD CAPITAL OF NORMANDY.

but the crown passed, in accordance with his wish, to Charles.

The reign of Charles the Simple is chiefly noted for the permanent settlement of the Northmen in France. Under their leader, Rollo, they harassed the kingdom so greatly that Charles, who was too poor to bribe, and too weak to resist them, purchased a peace by granting to Rollo, or Rolf, as a perpetual fief, a large portion of northwestern France, with the feudal sovereignty of the duchy of Bretagne or Brittany, on con-

dition that he and his followers should cease their depredations and embrace Christianity, A. D. 912. The region thus granted to Rollo took from its new settlers the name of Normandy. Rollo made Rouen his capital, and he and his followers having now an interest in the land, kept back their rude countrymen from further aggressions, and so constituted a most effectual protection to France from this hitherto exposed quarter. When Rollo went to take the oath of fealty to his new sov-

reign, he was told that it was necessary to kneel and kiss the king's foot. He indignantly started back and refused to perform the humiliating ceremony. The French courtiers insisted upon the point of etiquette, however, and Rollo ordered one of his men to come forward and perform the act for him. The rough soldier, stooping down, lifted the king's foot with such rudeness that the monarch was thrown violently backward from his seat. The Northmen burst into a shout of laughter, and as the French

were in no condition to resent the insult, they suffered it to pass without remark. Rollo received the hand of the Princess Gisèle, the daughter of Charles, in marriage, and became one of the most useful and loyal of the king's subjects. He proved himself a wise, able, and prudent ruler, and under him Normandy rose rapidly to a high state of prosperity. "The ruined churches were rebuilt, the towns walled and fortified, the land carefully cultivated, justice impartially administered. The barbarian Northmen adopted with marvellous facility the language and manners of the nation among whom they had settled, and Normandy became in the course of a few years celebrated throughout France for its advancement in the arts of industry, commerce, and civilization."

The weakness and incapacity of Charles the Simple became more apparent every year. The government was entirely in the hands of his minister, Haganon, a man of low birth, whose insolent use of his power brought about a rebellion of the nobles. Charles was defeated, and fled into Lorraine, attended by Haganon, and Robert, Duke of France, the brother of Count Eudes, was crowned king at Rheims, in A. D. 922. Charles attempted to regain his crown, and a bloody battle was fought at Soissons, in which, though Robert was slain, Charles was utterly defeated, June, 923. Rudolph of Burgundy was chosen the successor of Robert. Charles made another effort to regain his crown, but was made captive, and with one brief interval of freedom passed the remainder of his life in prison. He died in October, 929. Upon the first capture of Charles, his widow and infant son fled to England, and took refuge with her brother Athelstan, the Saxon king. The young Louis, who, from his early exile, received the name of Louis d'Outremer, was carefully educated by his uncle, and in after life displayed more vigor than was commonly manifested by the members of his family. Upon the death of King Rudolph, in A. D. 936, Hugh the Great, Duke of France, and Dukes Herbert of Vermandois, and William Longsword of Normandy, recalled Louis d'Outremer from his exile, and placed him upon the throne. Hugh became alarmed for his own power by the independent spirit of Louis, and at length renounced his allegiance, and declared himself a vassal of Otto the Great of Germany. The Duke of Normandy and

some of the other great nobles followed his example, and the German king invaded France and reduced Louis to great extremities in spite of his gallant struggle for his crown. In the midst of these troubles King Louis was killed by a fall from his horse in A. D. 954.

Hugh the Great, who was the real ruler of France, though he never claimed the royal title, now bestowed the crown upon Lothaire, the son of Louis. Two years later (956) Hugh died, and was succeeded as Count of Paris and Duke of France by his eldest son, Hugh Capet, so called because of his wearing habitually in after years when he came to the throne an abbot's cap instead of a crown. Upon the death of the Emperor Otto the Great, Lothaire attempted to regain possession of the duchy of Lorraine, or Lotharingia. This effort was defeated by the energy of Otto II. In 978 Otto invaded France with an army of 60,000 men, and encamped before Paris, which was defended by Hugh Capet. The approach of winter compelled the emperor to retire into Germany, and a reconciliation was effected in 980; Lothaire renouncing his pretensions to Lorraine, contrary to the advice of Hugh Capet and the wishes of the French people. He died in 986, and was succeeded by his son Louis V., surnamed *Le Fainéant*, who reigned but a little more than a year. He died in May, 987, and with him ended the Carolingian line in France. The French nobles passed by Charles, Duke of Lower Lorraine or Brabant, the only brother of Lothaire, because of his worthless character, and conferred the throne upon Hugh Capet, who was crowned at Rheims, July 1st, 987.

With the accession of Hugh Capet the real history of the French monarchy begins. His elevation to the throne was regarded as the triumph of the French nationality over what had generally been regarded as the foreign rule of the Carolingians. The dynasty which he founded continued to rule France in unbroken succession until the outbreak of the French Revolution in the eighteenth century. Hugh reigned nine years, and proved himself an able and sagacious sovereign. The first years of his reign were disturbed by the efforts of Charles of Lorraine to obtain possession of the throne, but they proved futile, and the power of Hugh was firmly established. Charles was made a prisoner, and died after a few months confinement in 992. Hugh

endeavored to secure the adhesion of the powerful nobles of the south, and was also careful to win the support of the church by bestowing rich possessions upon the clergy. He also restored to the monasteries throughout his dominions the privilege of free election, which had been discontinued since the reign of Charles the Bald. Having secured the succession by causing his son Robert, surnamed the Pious, to be crowned at Orleans, Hugh died peacefully at Paris, which had once more become the capital of France, on the 24th of October, A. D. 996, in the fifty-seventh year of his age.



HUGH CAPET.

Robert the Pious succeeded his father without opposition. He was in his twenty-fourth year, and had been a pupil of the famous Gerbert, afterwards Pope Sylvester II., under whom he had gained a fair education. He excelled in music, and passed his time in the composition of hymns, and in acts of charity, to which his benevolent and amiable disposition inclined him. Having married his cousin Bertha, a union within the degrees prohibited by the church, the kingdom was laid under an interdict by Pope Gregory V., and after some years of

spirited opposition to the ecclesiastical authorities, Robert was obliged to part from his faithful wife, whom he never ceased to regret, in order to regain for his people the enjoyment of their religious rites, of which they had been deprived during the interdict.

In A. D. 1006 Robert the Pious contracted a second marriage with Constance, the daughter of the Count of Toulouse, a woman of imperious will and overbearing disposition, who ruled her husband with a rod of iron. The chronicles of the times abound in anecdotes showing the meek patience with which the king endured her tyranny, and the affectionate ingenuity with which he shielded others from it. Constance brought in her train and attracted to her court a large number of the gay and polished natives of Aquitaine, who introduced the superior civilization and elegance of the south into the northern provinces.

The general belief in the near approach of the end of the world, which overspread Christendom at this time, was felt in a marked degree in France. It expressed itself in a movement in which all classes joined for the restoration and improvement of the churches and religious houses, and the erection of new edifices of this character. "It was the beginning of that wonderful architectural movement of the Middle Ages, which has covered Europe with its glorious monuments of Christian art and Christian self-devotion. The Abbey of St. Martin at Tours, the splendid Church of St. Aignan at Orleans, the Cathedrals of Perigueux, Angoulême, and Cahors, are among the many remarkable foundations dating from the reign of Robert the Pious, to which were added, later in the century, the magnificent Abbeys of Cluny, Vezelai, and St. Sernin at Toulouse."

In the midst of this religious enthusiasm, the news arrived of the profanation and destruction of the Holy Sepulchre by Hakem, the Fatimite Khalif of Egypt. The Jews were suspected of having instigated this outrage, and were everywhere, especially in France, attacked, and numbers

were put to death with great cruelty. At Sens the attack upon them was directed by the gentle King Robert himself, A. D. 1016.

The last years of Robert were vexed by the revolt of his sons, who were driven into rebellion by the insolent and factious conduct of their mother Constance. Robert took the field against them, and after a bloody campaign in Burgundy, compelled them to submit. The king never rallied from the shock which this unnatural conflict caused him. He fell ill immediately after the peace, and died at the Castle of Melun in 1031, after a reign of thirty-five years.

Constance endeavored to set aside the claims of her elder son Henry in favor of her favorite and youngest son Robert, and the kingdom was once more plunged into civil war. Eudes, the great Count of Blois, Chartres, and Champagne, supported the queen mother with such vigor that Henry was obliged to ask aid of Duke Robert of Normandy. With the aid of Robert, whose fearless and reckless conduct during this war won him the name of "Robert the Devil," Henry compelled his mother and her followers to submit. In the settlement of the kingdom he generously provided for his mother, and bestowed the duchy of Burgundy upon his brother Robert, whose descendants held it for more than three centuries. Constance, overcome with mortification at her defeat, died at Melun in July, 1032. As payment for the assistance rendered him by Robert of Normandy, Henry was obliged to cede to that prince Gisors, Chaumont, Pontoise, and the whole district called the Vexin, lying between the Oise and Epte. By this acquisition the frontier of Normandy was advanced to within twenty miles of Paris.

About this time a fearful famine, which lasted three years, prevailed throughout France, and inflicted the most terrible suffering upon the country. The church availed itself of the general consternation and despondency to impose a check upon the evil practice of private war, by the proclamation of the "Truce of God," which has already been referred to. Though never rigidly enforced, the truce was never abolished, and it greatly mitigated the miseries of private war, and by aiding the progress of agriculture and commerce, which were placed under its special protection, it did much towards the restoration of social order and public confidence.

Robert the Devil, of Normandy, was suspected of having obtained his crown by the murder of his elder brother Richard III. He gave color to this suspicion a few years later, after having compelled the Duke of Brittany to become his vassal, by undertaking a pilgrimage to the Holy Land. He named his illegitimate son William his successor in case he should never return, and the barons willingly accepted his choice and swore allegiance to the young duke, then a lad of seven. Robert set out on his pilgrimage, reached Jerusalem, but died at Nicæa, in Bithynia, on his return, A. D. 1035. The Norman barons, upon learning the death of their duke, refused to acknowledge William on the ground of his illegitimacy. William was supported at first by Henry of France, but the king at length turned his arms against the young duke. William inflicted a decisive defeat upon the king at Mortemer in 1058, and by the victory of Varaville compelled Henry to abstain from interference with the affairs of Normandy, and established his own authority firmly over his duchy.

Henry I. died in August, 1060, and was succeeded by his eldest son Philip, the child of his third wife, a Russian princess. Philip I. was a child of eight years at this time, and for the next seven years the kingdom was wisely administered by his guardian, Baldwin V., Count of Flanders, who was also his uncle. The death of Baldwin in 1067 left Philip, though not yet fifteen, his own master. He was possessed of fair abilities and a good education, but from an early age he manifested a strong tendency to voluptuousness and debauchery, which soon became the leading traits of his character. During his minority William of Normandy undertook the memorable expedition which made him master of England. Before attempting it, William visited his youthful suzerain at St. Germain-en-Laye, and solicited his aid; but the counsellors of the king induced him to decline William's request, as they feared that success would make William too powerful a neighbor, while in case of failure France would lay herself open to the just enmity of England. William was not disheartened by this refusal, and carried his enterprise through to a triumphant success. Having conquered England, he was crowned king at Westminster on Christmas day, A. D. 1066.

The union of the English to the Norman crown made William a more powerful sov-

ereign than Philip, who was his feudal suzerain, and this aroused the jealousy of the latter, who in 1075 took the field against William in support of Alan, Count of Brittany, who had rebelled against his Norman liege. Uniting his forces with those of Alan, he compelled William to raise the siege of Dol and retire with considerable loss. Somewhat later Philip encouraged Robert Courthouse, William's eldest son, to rebel against his father. That prince for several years maintained a desultory warfare in Normandy, but failed to accomplish any decisive result. William for a long while bore these aggressions of Philip with extraordinary patience, but at length determined to put a stop to them. He demanded of Philip the restoration of the Vexin district, which the crown had unlawfully recovered during his long minority. Philip met this demand with an insulting refusal, and William marched into the disputed district, ravaged it with great severity, and took and burned the town of Mantes. He was thrown from his horse amid the ruins of the town and severely injured. His attendants removed him to Rouen, and afterwards to the monastery of St. Gervais, near that city, where he died six weeks later, September 10th, A. D. 1082.

The habitual immorality of Philip now brought him in conflict with the church. His private revenues being too small to defray the cost of his infamous pleasures, he undertook to increase them by the sale to the highest bidder of bishoprics and other ecclesiastical dignities. Gregory VII. was at this time pope, and such wholesale simony aroused his indignation. He gave the king his choice between a cessation of the practice and excommunication and deposition. Philip, afraid to face the stern monk of the Vatican, chose the former alternative, and for a while obeyed the papal mandate. When Gregory's hands were tied by the struggle with Henry IV. in the war of investitures, the French king relapsed into his old ways, and the pope deemed it best not to proceed to extremities against him.

In 1092 Philip, notwithstanding that his Queen Bertha had been a good wife and had borne him several children, imprisoned her in the Castle of Montreuil, having grown weary of her. In the same year he seduced and carried off Bertrade de Montfort, the wife of the Count of Anjou, the most beautiful woman in the kingdom. The countess had exacted from the king a promise that

she should share his throne, and Philip had no difficulty in finding two bishops who pronounced the blessing of the church upon the infamous union. The Count of Anjou, the husband of Bertrade, and the Count of Flanders, the stepfather of Queen Bertha, took up arms against Philip, but this danger was averted. The church then stepped in, and in 1094 the guilty pair were excommunicated, and Philip was forbidden to use any of the ensigns of royalty until he should abandon Bertrade and do penance for his sin. Philip, who really cared very little for the papal anathema, nevertheless desired to save his crown, and made an outward submission to the pope, who took no further notice of his acts. Philip continued to live with Bertrade, and had her crowned queen at Troyes. She bore him four children, whose legitimacy, however, was never admitted. In the meantime Queen Bertha died broken-hearted in her prison at Montreuil. The beginning of the excitement which led to the crusades now arose to draw attention from the private life of the king, and, occupied with his zeal for the recovery of Jerusalem, the pontiff allowed the king and Bertrade to live together without further molestation to the end of their days.

The origin and events of the crusades will be related in another place. No event of importance occurred in France after the departure of the first army of the cross. All eyes were fixed upon Palestine, and peace and order prevailed at home.

Philip I. died in 1108, after a reign of over forty-seven years—one of the longest in the history of France. He was succeeded by his son Louis VI., called *Le Gros* (the Fat), in consequence of his corpulency, who was one of the ablest and best sovereigns that ever sat on the French throne. At the time of his accession the immediate dominions of the King of France consisted of the five cities of Paris, Melun, Etampes, Orleans, and Sens, with the district surrounding each. These towns were separated from each other by the strong fortresses of nobles, who interrupted the communication between them, and carried on a regular system of brigandage, pillaging travellers, and seizing and imprisoning them in their dungeons, from which they could only escape by payment of a heavy ransom. Public law was trodden under foot by these marauders, and no such thing as order or security existed in any part of the kingdom. The first care of Louis VI. was to put a

stop to this state of affairs, and he accomplished this by encouraging the people to combine and resist the rapacious and seditious barons. Suger, Abbot of St. Denis, whom he made his confidential friend and prime minister, induced the church to give the king and the commons a hearty and effective support in their contest with the nobles. This struggle, which lasted for eight years, resulted in what is known in French history as the "Enfranchisement of the Communes." Encouraged by the king, the various communes united for defence against their feudal lords, and compelled them to grant them not only a bare security of personal freedom, but those great privileges of internal organization and self-government by which the commons, or *tiers état*, became one of the great constituent orders of the state and a check upon the power of the great feudal nobility. Much as Louis contributed to this movement, he did not originate it. "The foundation of the communes was the work, not of Louis VI., nor of any other sovereign, but of the citizens themselves, the result of a simultaneous insurrectionary movement throughout France, for defence against oppression, the maintenance of the rights of property and the protection and development of commerce. Louis did not originate the movement, but he contributed to its success by making himself the champion of public order, by laboring to redress wrongs and reform abuses, and by asserting the supremacy of the crown over all its vassals, most of whom had thrown off all idea of subordination." The forms of municipal government adopted varied in the north and south of France. In the south the cities had never lost the municipal privileges bestowed upon them by the Romans. They now simply asserted them by choosing their own magistrates, and arming for the common defence. In the north the liberties of the towns were generally wrung from the feudal lord. There was also a third class of towns, consisting of those which were voluntarily enfranchised by their feudal lords, and granted personal freedom, security of property, and certain commercial privileges, but which did not possess the right of choosing their own magistrates or conducting their own government.

Another result of this organization of the communes was the increase of the royal power. The sovereign was frequently

called upon to mediate between the nobles and the people; both sides regarded his decision as final; and hence he came to be recognized as the supreme power of the state. Most of the boroughs were required to pay an annual contribution to the royal treasury, and to furnish a stated force of militia upon the requisition of the king. With the supplies thus obtained, the French kings were enabled to extend their domains and make their authority respected by their rebellious vassals. Assisted by the counsels of Suger, Louis ruled his kingdom so firmly and intelligently that he not only restored the power of the crown, and revived the prosperity of the country, but enlarged his dominions to something like their natural and ancient dimensions. The best proof of his merits as a ruler is the strong affection which his people bore him.

The reign of Louis VI. was marked by several wars. Robert of Normandy, returning from the Holy Land, was captured by his brother Henry I., who had become King of England, and imprisoned for life in Cardiff castle. His son, William Cliton, escaped from the pursuit of Henry, and appealed to Louis of France to place him in possession of his father's duchy of Normandy. Louis responded to his appeal, and a war of several years ensued with Henry. William was killed in 1128, and thus the chief cause of the quarrel between France and England was removed. Henry, in order to strengthen himself in France, married his only daughter, the Empress Matilda, to Geoffrey Plantagenet, the eldest son of Foulques V., the reigning Count of Anjou. This was a shrewd move, for in 1129 Foulques abdicated his dominions in favor of Geoffrey, and set out for the Holy Land, thus bringing one of the most important portions of France under the influence of the English crown. Henry I. died in 1135, and was succeeded on the English throne by Stephen of Boulogne, who also claimed Normandy. That duchy was contested by Geoffrey Plantagenet in right of his wife, and a bloody struggle ensued for its possession. Geoffrey was worsted, and the son of Stephen gained the duchy with the assistance of the French king. Louis gained another advantage near about the same time. William X., Duke of Aquitaine, in order to atone for his many crimes, went on a pilgrimage to the shrine of St. James of Compostella in Spain, where he died in April, 1137. Before setting out he

named his only daughter Eleanora the sole heiress of his dominions, and placed her under the guardianship of Louis VI., on condition that she should be given in marriage to the son of the king, called Louis le Jeune to distinguish him from his father. Louis VI. eagerly accepted the offer which brought to the heir to his crown almost the whole of France, south of the Loire, and the marriage was solemnized in August in the Cathedral of Bordeaux. The king himself died on the day previous to the marriage, and Louis VII. became king. His kingdom extended from the river Somme and the borders of Flanders to the Adour and the base of the Pyrenees.

The reign of Louis VI. was a period of great intellectual activity in France, and is illustrated by such names as Roscelin, St. Anselm, Peter Abelard, William de Champeaux and St. Bernard.

Louis VII. inherited neither the talents nor good sense of his father. In 1141, four years after he began to reign, he quarrelled with the pope about the right to nominate an Archbishop of Bourges. The pope was supported by the Count of Champagne, between whom and Louis war broke out the next year. Louis was obliged by his superstitious fears to yield two years later, and added another victory to the triumphs of the Holy See. He took part in the struggle between the houses of Blois and Anjou for the possession of Normandy, by siding with Geoffrey Plantagenet, and secured him in the possession of that duchy. In the end a compromise was effected, by which Stephen retained the English throne during his life, and Geoffrey's eldest son Henry was named as Stephen's heir. In 1147 Louis VII. left France to take part in the Second Crusade. He gained no credit in this expedition, and after visiting Jerusalem, and failing to capture Damascus, and lingering in Palestine for a whole year for very shame, Louis returned to France in 1149. His kingdom had been well administered in his absence by the Abbot Suger, one of the wisest statesmen France ever produced, and who had vainly striven to prevent the king from engaging in the crusade, and Louis found his estate in excellent condition upon his return. The death of Suger in January, 1152, deprived the king of his best counsellor. The death of this great man was followed by the principal political blunder of Louis' life. He had had cause during his visit to Palestine to

suspect the fidelity of his wife, Queen Eleanora, and upon his return had confided his trouble to Suger, who begged him for the good of France to conceal and overlook, if possible, the misconduct of the queen. The high-spirited queen despised her incompetent husband, and the breach widened between them daily. Both parties demanded a separation, and in March, 1152, the Council of Beaugency pronounced their marriage null and void, on the convenient plea of the affinity existing between them. Eleanora, resuming her rank as Duchess of Aquitaine, assumed the government of her hereditary dominions, and thus stripped the French crown of more than half of its possessions. Six weeks later, Eleanora bestowed her hand upon Henry Plantagenet, Duke of Normandy and Count of Anjou. In October, 1154, Henry became, by the death of Stephen, King of England, and the most powerful sovereign of Europe. Thus was laid the foundation of the life-long enmity which existed between these two sovereigns. Louis was no match for Henry, who managed to gain the advantage of him at every turn, but he gave his rival no little trouble in the course of his reign. He gave shelter and protection to the exiled primate of England, Thomas à Becket, and aided and abetted the rebellion of Queen Eleanor and her sons Henry, Geoffrey, and Richard against Henry. Upon the suppression of this rebellion, however, he was glad to make peace with England. He died on the 18th of September, 1180, and was succeeded by Philip II., called Augustus, his son by a third marriage with Alice, the sister of the Count of Champagne.

Philip was fifteen years old. His surname of Augustus is said by some writers to have been given him because of his having been born in the month of August; others regard it as synonymous with "Great." Soon after the commencement of his reign, he married Isabella, the daughter of Count Baldwin of Hainault, and niece of Philip of Flanders, who received as her dowry the town of Amiens and the promise of a part of Flanders at the death of her uncle. Philip's first act of importance was indicative of the future policy of his reign—to increase the power of the crown at the expense of the great feudatories. He compelled the powerful Duke of Burgundy, who had robbed the church and refused restitution, to make ample reparation for the in-

juries he had inflicted, and to submit himself to the clemency of the sovereign. Upon the submission of the duke, he treated him with a wise generosity. In 1182 he gave another proof of the decisive energy of his character by banishing the Jews from his kingdom and confiscating their synagogues to the church, and by denouncing heavy penalties against profane swearers, blasphemers, gamblers, and the heretical sect of the Paterini, of the last of which many suffered death.

War broke out again in 1187 between France and England, and a considerable part of the English possessions in Berry was overrun by the French king before Henry could arrive. A truce was arranged before a battle was fought, and Philip and Henry met near Gisors in 1188 to arrange a definite peace. At this meeting the news was received of the capture of Jerusalem by Saladin, and the venerable Archbishop of Tyre made a powerful appeal for aid against the Moslems. The kings, losing sight of their own interests, arranged a settlement, and solemnly pledged themselves to assume the cross and rescue the Holy City from the infidel. Their example was followed by the chivalry of France, England, and Normandy, and two years were assigned for preparations for the crusade.

In spite of this arrangement, however, the next summer witnessed the renewal of the war. Philip found an ally in Richard Cœur de Lion, the son of Henry of England, who openly rebelled against his father, and did homage to Philip for his continental possessions. Henry was obliged to sue for peace, and to sign a humiliating treaty, by which he made an unqualified submission to his rival, renounced all claim to the sovereignty of Berry, purchased by a heavy payment the restoration of the towns captured by the French, and consented that all the barons who had taken arms in behalf of Richard should remain the vassals of that prince. He died from grief and mortification in 1189, and was succeeded by his son Richard.

Philip Augustus, and Richard I. of England, set out to join the Third Crusade in 1190, and reached Palestine early in the spring of 1191. Their first operation was the siege of Acre, of which Richard was the hero, as he was indeed of the whole crusade. Philip, who was a statesman rather than a warrior, bitterly resented the glory

of his rival, and upon the surrender of Acre left Palestine and returned to Europe, having first bound himself by a solemn oath to respect the rights and territories of Richard. He repaired at once to Rome, where he endeavored to persuade the pope to absolve him from this oath, but Pope Celestine III., to his credit, refused to grant his request. Failing in his effort, Philip returned to France, fully resolved to strike a blow at Richard at the first opportunity. The occasion soon offered itself. John, the brother of Richard, was busy plotting to make himself King of England and Duke of Normandy, and Philip at once entered into his plot. John did homage to the French king, not only for Normandy, but for England also, and Philip proceeded to overrun the dominions of Richard in France. The English king, in the meantime, had been captured by the Duke of Austria, who was his enemy, on his return from the Holy Land, and was held a prisoner for more than a year. He recovered his liberty just as Philip and John believed that their schemes were about to be crowned with entire success. Richard soon appeared in Normandy at the head of his barons, won back the territory taken from him by Philip, and inflicted a stinging defeat upon him at Fretteval, near Vendome, on the 15th of July, 1194. Hostilities went on without any decisive result for either side until January, 1199, when Pope Innocent III., a bold and resolute pontiff, interfered, and compelled both parties to make peace. A treaty was concluded allowing each king to retain his actual possessions. In April of the same year the death of Richard relieved Philip of his ablest antagonist. Philip thereupon embraced the cause of Arthur, Duke of Brittany, the nephew of King John, who disputed with his uncle the crown of England and Normandy, but Philip did not yet proceed to an open rupture with John. He was too deeply involved in a quarrel with the church to undertake the hazard of a foreign war.

After the death of his first wife, Isabella of Hainault, Philip had contracted a marriage with Ingelberga, the daughter of the King of Denmark, a princess described as beautiful, virtuous, and amiable. At his first meeting with her, however, he conceived such an aversion to her that he compelled the bishops to dissolve the marriage. The queen appealed to Rome, and the pope refused to sanction the acts of the French bishops.

In spite of this refusal, however, Philip married the beautiful Agnes de Méran, daughter of the Marquis of Istria. Pope Celestine III. endeavored to turn him from his purpose, but in vain. Celestine's successor, Innocent III., was a pontiff after the style of Gregory VII., and commanded Philip to put away Agnes and take back his lawful wife. Upon the refusal of the king to do this, the pope placed the whole kingdom under an interdict, and for eight months the churches were closed, and the people were deprived of all the rites of their religion, except the baptism of infants and the extreme unction for the dying. The growing discontent of his people obliged Philip to yield, and he put away Agnes, who died a few weeks later. Ingelberga was reinstated in her outward position, but in private the king treated her with brutal severity. Upon the submission of the king the interdict was removed from France.

The quarrel of Philip Augustus with the pope concerning his marriage prevented him from taking any active measures against John of England in support of the claim of Arthur of Brittany to the English crown. A compromise was therefore arranged, by the terms of which the Infanta Blanche of Castile, the niece of John, was given in marriage to Prince Louis, the eldest son of Philip, John bestowing on his niece as a dowry the sum of 30,000 marks of silver and the city and county of Evreux. He also declared her the sole heiress of his continental dominions in case of his dying without direct heirs. Philip undertook that Arthur should renounce all his pretensions to John's dominions, and should do homage to John for his duchy of Brittany. These matters being arranged, Prince Louis and Blanche of Castile were married on the 23d of May, 1200.

Peace was not yet to be restored. John, becoming violently enamored of the beautiful Isabella of Angoulême, the affianced bride of Hugh de Lusignan, Count de la Marche, repudiated his own wife, Hawise of Gloucester, and carried off Isabella and married her. The Count de la Marche demanded justice, and his demand being supported by the nobles of Poitou and Limousin, Philip, as the feudal lord of all, summoned John to appear at his court of Paris, in May, 1202, and answer the charges brought against him. John disregarded the summons, and war instantly ensued. Philip promptly invaded Normandy and reduced

several important towns. John attempted to defend his territories, and captured the Count de la Marche and Arthur of Brittany, whom Philip had put forward to head the uprising in Poitou against his uncle. The fate of Arthur is shrouded in mystery, but the common belief at the time was that he was murdered by King John's own hand in the Castle of Rouen and thrown into the Seine, April 3d, 1203. This barbarous crime made John an object of bitter hatred to his people. Poitou rose against him and ranged itself on the side of the French king. Normandy was the next object of Philip's operations, and by the spring of 1204 the entire duchy was overrun by him and annexed to the crown of France. In 1205 the districts of Saintonge and Angoulême were subdued and annexed by Philip. In 1206 John crossed the channel and made a feeble effort to regain his lost territories, but after some trifling successes was obliged to make peace. He renounced all claim to the sovereignty of Normandy, Brittany, Maine, and so much of Anjou and Tourraine as lies north of the Loire, ceding also to Philip the city of Poitiers and the surrounding territory. Thus in three years' time Philip had nearly doubled the size of his kingdom, for he had also acquired the provinces of Vermandois and Artois, and soon after added Auvergne to these. These accessions of strength made France, next to the German empire, the most powerful and populous state of Europe.

The French king was now a powerful territorial sovereign, and had steadily carried forward the policy upon which he had conducted his reign—the advancement of the royal power at the expense of that of the nobles. In the south a series of events greatly increased his authority and possessions. The people of southern France, being an enlightened community in which the arts and sciences were liberally cultivated, and a spirit of inquiry encouraged, had never rendered to the Roman see the blind and unquestioning obedience which characterized the north. In the course of time there had sprung up a sect in Languedoc known as Albigenses, who denounced the ambition and corruption of the court of Rome, denied the supremacy of the pope, and the doctrines of the sacrifice of the mass, purgatory, and image worship. Innocent III. resolved to crush out these bold heretics, and turned them over to the ter-

rible tribunal known as the Inquisition, which was given power to search out and punish their heresy. Raymond VI., Count of Toulouse, was the protector of the Albigenses, whose belief he shared. The papal messengers endeavored to induce him to surrender his subjects to the tortures of the Inquisition, and failing in this, threatened him with the vengeance of the pope. Indignant at this insult to his lord, one of the attendants of the count slew one of the papal envoys in January, 1208. Innocent III. thereupon declared Raymond excommunicated and deprived of his throne, and proclaimed a crusade against him. A large army was assembled at Lyons in the summer of 1209, and placed under the orders of Simon de Montfort. War was immediately begun. It lasted six years, and resulted in the conquest of Languedoc by the crusaders with the most horrible cruelties. Raymond was deprived of his territories, which were bestowed upon Simon de Montfort. The sufferings inflicted upon the Albigenses form one of the darkest records in history.

Philip Augustus took no part in this war. In 1213, Innocent III., who had laid England under an interdict, invited him to undertake the conquest of that country. Philip collected an immense army at a heavy expense, and was on the point of setting out, when he was forbidden by the papal legate to attack England, which John had made a fief of the holy see. Although thoroughly indignant at such treatment, Philip obeyed the papal mandate. He turned northward and marched against the Count of Flanders, who had thrown off his allegiance and had allied himself with the Emperor Otto IV., the nephew of John of England. This action threw Philip on the side of Frederick of Hohenstaufen, and was a great gain for the young king. Philip gained important advantages over the Flemish count, who, to check him, formed a coalition against France, comprised of the emperor, John of England, and all the great nobles of the Low Countries. The decisive battle of this war was fought at Bouvines, between Lille and Tournay, on the 27th of August, 1214. The imperial army, commanded by the Emperor Otto in person, was about 150,000 strong, and contained a body of English archers commanded by the Earl of Salisbury, the illegitimate brother of King John. Philip attacked this army with an inferior force, and in one of the hardest fought battles in

history routed it with immense loss, taking many of its leaders prisoners, among them the Count of Flanders and the Earl of Salisbury. The victory put an end to the power of the Emperor Otto, and settled the dispute for the empire in favor of Frederick II. John of England, who had utterly failed to accomplish anything, and had retreated within the farthest limits of Poitou, obtained a truce for five years on payment of 60,000 marks. The Counts of Flanders and Boulogne forfeited their fiefs, and the former was imprisoned for life. The principal result of the war was the moral prestige acquired by the crown and monarchy of France.

Upon the return of John to England the discontents of the barons of that kingdom broke out in the struggle which resulted in the granting of Magna Charta, the foundation and bulwark of English liberty. The pope bitterly denounced the great charter, and forbade the king and the barons, on pain of excommunication, to observe it. The barons refused to yield to the pope, and war again broke out between them and the king. The barons, driven to despair by the unscrupulous king, invited Prince Louis, the son of the King of France, to come over and assume the English crown. Louis with great difficulty obtained his father's consent to his enterprise, and sailed for England in May, 1216, from Calais. He landed at Sandwich, where he was joyfully received, and was conducted to London and proclaimed King of England in right of his wife, Blanche of Castile, who was a granddaughter of Henry II. John retreated to the northern counties, and lost ground so rapidly that the enterprise of Louis seemed on the point of being crowned with entire success. The sudden death of John, on the 19th of October, 1216, instantly changed the whole state of affairs. England was freed from her tyrant, and the heir to the crown was an innocent child. The barons deserted Louis with remarkable rapidity, and ranged themselves on the side of the young Henry III. Thus deserted by his partisans, the situation of Louis became critical. The pope excommunicated him and his followers, and his father declined to come to his assistance. He was beaten at sea and on land in several engagements, and shut up in London. Driven to capitulation, he renounced all right to the English crown and was permitted to withdraw into France.

In 1216 Raymond of Toulouse and his chivalric son set up their standard for the recovery of their rights. They were joyfully welcomed by their people, and in the fall of the next year entered their capital of Toulouse in triumph. Simon de Montfort at once besieged Toulouse, but was killed in June, 1218. All Languedoc immediately renewed its allegiance to the Count of Toulouse, and drove out the son and heir of de Montfort. Pope Honorius III. proclaimed another crusade, and invited Philip Augustus to possess himself of the territories of Count Raymond. Philip put an army in the field under his son, Prince Louis, but after an inglorious failure the prince abandoned the crusade. Count Raymond died in 1222, and was succeeded in his estates by his son, Raymond VII. The next year Philip Augustus died, after a reign of nearly forty-three years. He was the first king of the national monarchy of France, for under him France first assumed the character of a united nation, and he was by far one of the ablest and best sovereigns that ever ruled in France. He was prudent, energetic, firm and persevering, and however selfish his policy may have been towards others, he ruled his people with wisdom and with justice. Few if any of his successors excelled him in these qualities. He was a generous friend to the city of Paris. He enlarged and re-fortified it, and adorned it with noble edifices. Better than all, he liberally encouraged its rising schools, and sought to make it the intellectual centre of Europe. In the kingdom at large he did much to establish a regular administration of justice, and to put into operation a proper fiscal system.

At the death of Philip the crown passed to his eldest son, Louis VIII., who opened his reign with a war with Henry III. of England. After two campaigns a truce of five years was concluded, and Louis was able to give his attention to the more important struggle in Languedoc. The Council of Bourges, in 1225, had excommunicated Count Raymond VII. of Toulouse, and had transferred his possessions to Louis of France. In the summer of 1226 Louis advanced into Languedoc with a large army, and by the middle of the autumn was master of all the important towns except Toulouse, where Raymond still held out. At the close of the campaign Louis died at Montpensier, in Auvergne, on the 8th of November, 1226, leaving his crown

to his young son, Louis IX., then twelve years of age.

During the minority of Louis IX. the kingdom was ruled by his mother, Blanche of Castile, as regent. She was a woman of strong good sense and firm will, and governed wisely and well. Immediately after the death of her husband a coalition of some of the principal nobles of the kingdom was formed for her overthrow, but she successfully maintained her authority, and after a struggle of five years compelled the insurgent barons to submit, A. D. 1231. During her regency the Albigensian war was brought to a close, to the advantage of the French crown. A treaty was signed at Paris in 1229 between the king (Louis IX., who had been crowned in the meantime), the papal legate and Raymond of Toulouse. A small portion of his former territories was granted to Raymond in fief during his life. At his death this territory was to pass to Alphonso, Count of Poitiers, the brother of the King of France, who was to wed Jeanne, the only daughter of Raymond. The remainder of Languedoc was definitely united with the French crown. The marriage between Alphonso and Jeanne took place in 1241. In order to consolidate the conquest the Inquisition was established at Toulouse in 1229, and for long years the people of southern France groaned under the tortures of this infamous tribunal.

In 1234, Louis, being nineteen years old, married Marguerite, daughter of Raymond Beranger IV., Count of Provence, aged thirteen, a bride selected for him by his mother. Queen Blanche had carefully educated her son, and though she had inclined him too much towards superstition, she had successfully laid the foundations of the noble character which was in after years to render this good king deservedly illustrious.

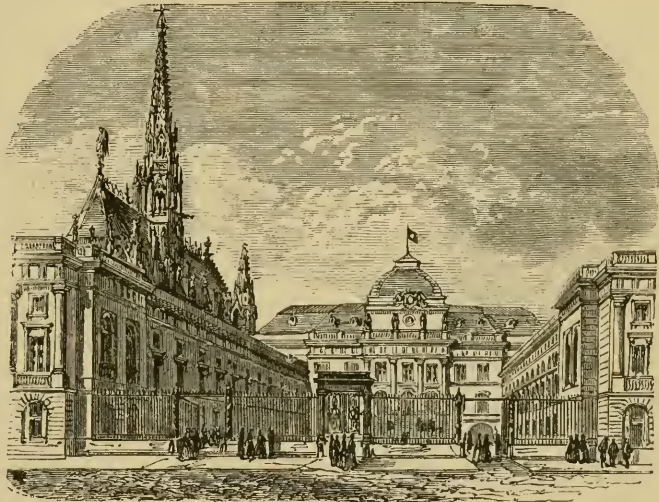
In 1241, upon the marriage of his brother Alphonso with Jeanne of Toulouse, Louis invested him with the government of Poitou and Auvergne, according to the provisions of their father's will. This act brought to a crisis an extensive conspiracy among the barons of Poitou against the sovereign claims of Louis IX. and his family, based on the ancient connection of Poitou with the royal house of England. The conspiracy was headed by the Count de la Marche, on whom Queen Isabella had conferred her hand within a few months after the death

of King John, and who wished to recover for her son, Henry III., the former possessions of the English crown. Louis took the field in support of his brother, and Henry III. crossed over from England to the assistance of his friends; but in the battle of Saintes, fought July 22d, 1242, the English and their allies were beaten. The insurgent barons returned to their allegiance, and Henry III. was obliged to accept a truce of five years, which was signed in March, 1243. By this treaty all of Aquitaine as far as the Gironde passed to the French crown. Another important result of the war was the loss of independence by the feudal nobility and the firm establishment of the supremacy of the crown over its vassals. From this time feudalism began to decline, and the monarchy to grow stronger. The royal house of France received another accession of strength in 1246 by the marriage of Charles, Count of Anjou and Maine, the king's brother, to the heiress of Provence.

In August, 1248, Louis sailed for Palestine to engage in the holy war, leaving the government in the hands of his mother during his absence. He was unsuccessful, and was defeated and captured by the Sultan of Egypt, who released him upon the payment of a heavy ransom and the conclusion of a ten years' truce. The death of his mother in 1253 recalled the king to France. He reached Paris in September, 1254.

For the next sixteen years France enjoyed the blessings of the presence and the wise government of her excellent king. Throughout the kingdom justice was scrupulously administered, and so perfect was the confidence reposed in the king by all classes that his decisions were accepted without question. He was accessible to all his subjects, and patiently investigated and redressed all complaints laid before him. His rule was marked by moderation, but also by firmness, and the power of the crown advanced steadily. In 1259, feeling

that Philip Augustus had unjustly acquired some of the possessions of the English crown, he voluntarily restored to Henry III. the districts of Limousin, Périgord, Mercy and Saintonge. Henry, on his part, surrendered his claims to Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Touraine and Poitou. The English king and his barons subsequently paid Louis the highest tribute in their power by agreeing after years of sanguinary strife to submit their quarrel to his arbitration. When Pope Urban IV. offered him the crown of Sicily in 1262, Louis refused it, as he would not accept anything which was not rightly his, nor would he allow his son Robert to accept it. Charles of Anjou was less conscientious, and readily accepted the pope's offer. Louis would not discour-



PALACE OF JUSTICE, PARIS.

age him, but at the same time granted him no active aid. He was no doubt glad to have him removed from France. The history of Charles' conquest of Sicily has been related.

Since the close of the last crusade Louis had been determined to undertake another effort for the Christian cause, and although discouraged by the pope himself, held to his purpose. The successes and cruelties of the Sultan Bibars, who rapidly overran the Christian possessions in Asia, determined the king to lose no time. In 1270 he sailed from France, and strangely proceeded to attack Tunis, in Africa. Before he could accomplish anything he died on the 25th of August, 1270, at the age of fifty-six, and

after a reign of forty-four years. He was not a great king, judged by ordinary standards, but he was "an ever memorable instance of the inherent power of high moral and religious principle, when faithfully and consistently carried out through a whole life." Though he was neither a very learned man nor a great commander, and though he frequently forbore through his extreme moderation and conscientiousness to seize advantages which were justly his, he exercised more than any sovereign of his day a wide-spread and commanding influence upon Europe, and no king ever had the good fortune of more effectually promoting the advancement and the happiness of his people. Voltaire has summed up his character in the terse but just remark: "It is not given to man to carry virtue to a higher point." The merits of Louis were rewarded by the church. In August, 1297, he was canonized by Pope Boniface VIII.

CHAPTER III.

FROM THE DEATH OF LOUIS IX. TO THE DEATH OF CHARLES V.

Cession of Toulouse to the French Crown—France also Gains Navarre—War of the Houses of Aragon and Anjou in Sicily—The Sicilian Vespers—Philip Invades Aragon—His Death—Philip the Fair—Results of his Reign—Brings the War with Aragon to a Close—War with Edward I. of England—Flanders Annexed to the French Crown—Revolt of the Flemings—Battle of Courtrai—Peace with Flanders—Philip's Quarrel with the Pope—Seizure of the Pontiff—Death of Pope Boniface VIII.—Philip Procures the Election of Clement V.—The Infamous Compact—Destruction of the Templars—Martyrdom of Jacques du Molay—Death of Clement and Philip—Character of the King—Louis X.—Philip V.—The Salic Law—Charles IV.—Troubles in England—Queen Isabella—Philip VI.—Navarre and France Separated—Expedition of Philip to Flanders—Quarrel with Edward III. of England—Robert of Artois—War Between France and England—The Flemings Embrace the English Cause—The English Defeat the French Fleet off Helvoetsluys—Truce Between France and England—Disputed Succession in Brittany—The Countess de Montfort—Murder of the Barons of Brittany—Edward Invades France—Battle of Crecy—Siege of Calais—Truce with England—Death of Philip—Dauphiné Annexed to France—The Dauphin—John the Good—Arrests Charles the Bad of Normandy—War Breaks Out in Aquitaine—Battle of Poitiers—Surrender of King John—His Captivity—The Dauphin Charles Becomes Regent—Insurrection in Paris under Etienne Marcel—Meeting of the States General—Insurrection of the Jacquerie—The Peace of Breigny—Release of King John—The Second Duchy of Burgundy Founded—Charles V.—War with Pedro the Cruel of Castile—The War with England Renewed—Successes

of the French—Death of the Black Prince—Annexation of Brittany—Revolt of the Britons—Death of Du Guesclin and Charles V.

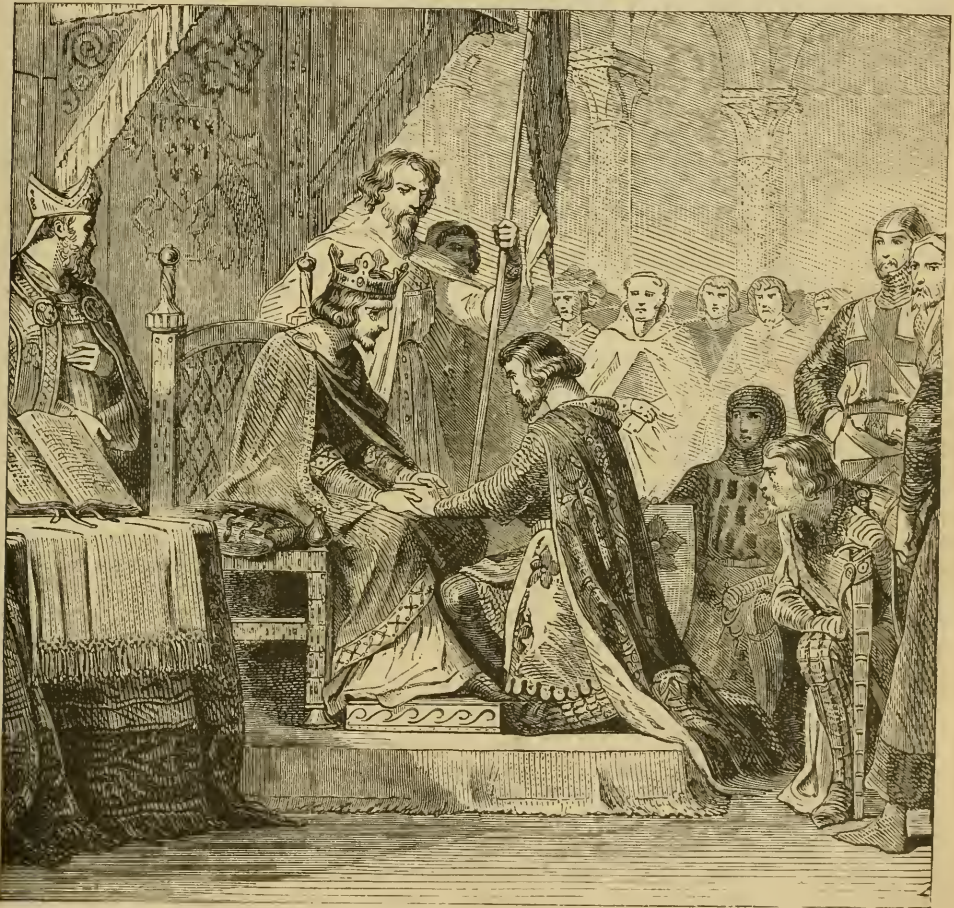
PHILIP III., surnamed "the Bold," the eldest son and successor of Louis IX., made a mournful entry into his capital on the 21st of May, 1271. He brought with him the dead bodies of his father, his wife Isabella, his sister Isabella, Queen of Navarre, and his uncle Alphonso, Count of Poitou and Toulouse, and his wife Jeanne. His character was in marked contrast with that of his father. His education had been neglected, and his character was feeble, superstitious, and without an element of greatness. The death of Alphonso and Jeanne without heirs brought the whole of their extensive possessions to the king. Of these the pope now received a part in virtue of an agreement with Raymond of Toulouse. This consisted of the city of Avignon and the surrounding country, known as the county of Venaissin. It remained in the possession of the Holy See until the French Revolution of 1789. The possessions of the crown were also increased by the death of the king's brothers, Jean Tristan and Pierre, without heirs, by which the crown gained Valois and Alençon. In 1274 Henry, King of Navarre, died, and his widow, a French princess, fled to the court of Philip for protection. Philip received her kindly, and when her daughter became of a marriageable age wedded her to his son and heir, thus uniting the crowns of France and Navarre. Champagne also belonged to the crown of Navarre, and thus passed into the hands of the son of Philip. In 1284 Philip went to war with Aragon in support of his uncle Charles of Anjou, King of Sicily. The massacre known as the Sicilian Vespers had made this a popular measure in France, and the king did not lack the hearty support of his people. He invaded Aragon in the spring of 1285, and captured Gerona after a siege of nearly three months; but his other operations were unsuccessful, and he was compelled to retreat into France. On reaching Perpignan he died on the 5th of October, 1285, at the age of forty. On the 11th of November of the same year, his antagonist, Pedro II. of Aragon, died, of the same malignant fever that ended the life of Philip.

Philip IV., surnamed "the Fair," succeeded to his father's crown. His reign of twenty-nine years is one of the most impor-

tant in French history. He increased the royal power to such an extent that in his hands it became a despotism. The independence of the great vassals was totally destroyed, and they were reduced to complete submission to the crown. The king persistently advanced the bourgeoisie or middle classes, and while he protected them against the nobility, skilfully made them the subservient instruments of accomplishing his plan of absolute rule. In his reign

the people. Philip the Fair also struck the first successful blow at the vast fabric of the papal power which had overshadowed every state of Europe, and shattered it so completely that it ceased to be formidable.

Philip began his reign by bringing to a close the war with Aragon, which had proved fatal to his father. Charles of Valois, upon whom the pope had bestowed the Aragonese crown, renounced his claims



EDWARD III. OF ENGLAND DOES HOMAGE TO PHILIP VI. OF FRANCE.

the forms of feudalism began to be replaced by civil institutions. Throughout the kingdom justice was administered in the name of the king, and the Parliament of Paris became the recognized organ of the supreme central administration. The states general, or the great legislative body of the nation, appears in this reign in its modern constitutional form, consisting of the three distinct and equal orders of nobles, clergy, and tiers etat, or representatives of

to it, and the King of Aragon agreed that his brother James should restore Sicily to the house of Anjou. It was not possible to accomplish this, and Sicily continued independent of the French kingdom at Naples. This settlement was brought about through the mediation of Philip's kinsman, Edward I. of England. In spite of this service, Philip took advantage of Edward's difficulties with Scotland to attempt to seize his duchy of Guienne or Aquitaine.

The pretext was a quarrel between some English and Norman sailors in the port of Bayonne, which brought on a fierce war between the merchant seamen of the two nations, unsanctioned by either government. In 1293 the English gained such advantages that Philip interfered and summoned Edward as Duke of Aquitaine to appear before him in January, 1294, and answer for the conduct of his subjects. Edward appeared by his representative, who was his brother Edmund, Earl of Lancaster. Philip demanded that Aquitaine or Guienne should, as a mere matter of form, be placed in his hands until the matter could be adjusted; but when he had gotten possession of the principal towns of that duchy, he threw off the mask, declared Edward contumacious by reason of his failure to appear in person, and pronounced all his fiefs forfeit to the French crown. Edward at once took the field to maintain his rights, and was supported by the Duke of Brittany, the Count of Flanders, and Adolph of Nassau, King of the Romans. The war began in Gascony in 1294, and was continued for two years with the general advantage on the side of the French. The war of Edward with Scotland prevented him from making a determined effort, and frequent insurrections of the Welsh also hampered him. Pope Boniface VIII. attempted to bring about a peace, but without success, and drew upon himself the bitter enmity of Philip. In 1297 Philip invaded Flanders with a strong force, and reduced that country to submission. The pope now tendered his mediation a second time; it was accepted by all parties, and a treaty of peace was signed between England and France in June, 1299. In accordance with its terms Edward I. married Marguerite, the eldest sister of Philip, and his son Edward, Prince of Wales, was affianced to Philip's daughter Isabella, then six years old. Edward abandoned by this arrangement the cause of his ally, the Count of Flanders, and Philip left his Scotch allies to the vengeance of Edward.

The peace with England left Flanders at the mercy of Philip the Fair, and the year 1300 saw a strong French army, commanded by Charles of Valois, over the border. Donai, Bethune and Damme surrendered without a blow. The Count of Flanders threw himself into Ghent, and prepared for a desperate resistance; but seeing the hopelessness of his position,

yielded to the representations of Charles of Valois, who assured him that the French king was kindly disposed toward him, and surrendered the city, together with himself, his two sons, and his principal nobles. Charles at once sent his prisoners to Paris, where they were treated with the harshness which their knowledge of Philip's unscrupulous character might have led them to expect. Count Guy and his sons were confined in the gloomy fortress of the Chatellet, and the Flemish barons in the various fortresses near Paris. Philip declared Flanders forfeited, and annexed it to the French crown. A few months later he visited that country with his queen, Jeanne of Navarre, and was joyfully received by the Flemings, with whom Count Guy had never been popular. A richer prize had never fallen to the lot of the French king, and Philip went back to Paris in high glee, leaving as his viceroy in Flanders Jacques de Châtillon, a man well suited to represent the most unscrupulous of kings.

It was not long before the Flemings discovered that in accepting the French king as their lord they had placed themselves in the hands of a stern tyrant, who regarded their ancient privileges with contempt. The exactions of the king soon began to cripple their commerce, and the insolent viceroy trod their liberties beneath his feet. At length a resolute blow was struck for their freedom. One night in March, 1302, the tocsin sounded at midnight in Bruges, and the citizens springing to arms put all the French to death, to the number of three thousand. Châtillon fled to Paris, and Philip at once sent an army, under Robert of Artois, into Flanders to chastise the burghers into submission. This splendid force was defeated by the Flemings at Courtrai on the 11th of July, 1302. So great was the slaughter of knights and higher officers that their gilt spurs were collected by the bushel after the battle. Among the slain were the Count of Artois, the commander of the French army, and Châtillon, the viceroy.

Philip met this disaster with characteristic firmness, and at once set to work to repair it. A truce for a year was arranged with the Flemings, and by the end of this time the vigorous measures of the king enabled him to take the field at the head of an army of 70,000 well-equipped troops, while he assailed the northern coast of Flanders with a fleet of Genoese galleys, which he had

taken into his pay. The Flemings were defeated in a naval battle by this fleet, and Philip gained an important victory over their army eighteen days after the campaign opened, August 18th, 1304. The Flemings were made of stouter material than the king had supposed, and rallying from their reverse within three weeks' time, again confronted him with an army of 60,000 men. Their resolute patriotism extorted the admiration of the French king, and he offered them an honorable peace. By the terms of the treaty, which was signed on the 5th of June, 1305, Philip invested the eldest son of the late Count Guy de Dampierre with the county of Flanders in fief, and engaged to respect the ancient liberties and privileges of the people. The Flemings on their part paid the king a large indemnity for the expenses of the war, and as a guarantee of the payment of this sum, placed four of their principal towns and all French Flanders in his hands. Thus closed the first of the struggles by which the valiant burghers of Flanders preserved the liberties of their country.

Philip had conducted the war with the Flemings in the midst of a bitter quarrel with the pope. This quarrel had begun towards the close of the last century, but it did not gather full strength until the fourteenth century had opened. In order to raise the means necessary to carry on his government, the king included the clergy in the tax levied upon the nation. The reigning pontiff, Boniface VIII., was a man of haughty, overbearing temper, and dreamed of bringing back to the papacy the power it had enjoyed during the days of Gregory VII. and Innocent III. Philip had a truer understanding of the age in which he lived, and knew that such an effort on the part of the pope was hopeless, and he did not hesitate to advance the royal power at the expense of that of the church. It seemed but right to the king and the nation that the clergy, who owned a very large proportion of the wealth of the kingdom, should bear their share of the burdens of the state. The pope had long been watching for an opportunity to humble the French king, and seizing this occasion he issued in 1296 a bull forbidding the clergy to pay any tax or subsidy to any secular prince without the consent of the Holy See, and forbade any such prince to demand or accept such payment on pain of excommunication. Philip met this step with a decree for-

bidding the exportation from the kingdom, without the royal consent, of any gold or silver, coined or uncoined, plate, jewels, arms, horses, or military stores. Though the pope was not named in this edict it was directed at him, as the measure rendered it impossible for him to receive the large income which was paid him annually by the French clergy. The pontiff, alarmed by the prospect of losing his revenues, receded somewhat from his position, and a reconciliation was seemingly effected between Boniface and the French king.

The jubilee of 1300, in which Boniface beheld Rome crowded with devout pilgrims from all parts of Christendom, led him to form a wrong estimate of the moral strength of the papacy in Europe, and so elated him with pride that he renewed all his pretensions, and most unwisely proceeded to take measures by which he hoped to compel the submission of Philip. He had to deal, however, with a king who scrupled at nothing to accomplish his ends, who feared not the spiritual weapons of the pope, and who was wise enough to know that the day had gone by when they could be used against the master of a compact and powerful kingdom. Philip had demanded the homage of the Vicomte of Narbonne and the Bishop of Mauguellonne, who held their fiefs of the church. The pope forbade them to obey, and sent to France as his legate to arrange the matter with the king the Bishop of Pamiers, who was personally obnoxious to Philip, who suspected him of treasonable designs. The legate treated the king with such insolence that Philip arrested him, and placed him in the custody of the Archbishop of Narbonne. The pope thereupon issued a bull, couched in language the most insulting to Philip, summoning the French bishops to meet in council at Rome, and there arrange a plan for the settlement of the disorders with which he considered that France was afflicted. Philip caused the bull to be publicly burned in Paris, and for the first time summoned the states general, which body met in April, 1302, and enthusiastically pledged him the support of the kingdom in his contest with the pope. A few months later Boniface issued the famous bull "Unam Sanctam," in which he asserted the claims of the papacy with more audacity than ever. "There are two swords," he declared: "the spiritual and the temporal. . . Both are in the power of the church: the one, the spiritual, to be

used by the church, the other, the material, for the church; the former that of the priests, the latter that of kings and soldiers, to be wielded at the command and by the sufferance of the priest. One sword must be under the other, the temporal under the spiritual. . . . The spiritual instituted the temporal power, and judges whether that power is well exercised. . . . If the temporal power errs it is judged by the spiritual. . . . We therefore assert, define, and pronounce that it is necessary to salvation to believe that every human being is subject to the Pontiff of Rome." On the 13th of April, 1303, the pope excommunicated Philip. The king retaliated by charging Boniface with a series of scandalous crimes, and demanding that he should be tried by a general council of the church.

Philip now resolved to get the pope into his power by seizing his person. Whether he meant to punish him, or merely to prevent him from committing further acts of hostility, is uncertain; but that he intended to seize him is clear. Boniface made it known that on the 8th of September he would publish a bull deposing the French king and forbidding his subjects to render him any further allegiance. Two partisans of Philip—William de Nogaret, a distinguished lawyer, whose ancestors had been persecuted by the Inquisition at Toulouse; and Sciarra Colonna, a younger son of the noble Roman family of that name—resolved to lose no time in carrying out the known wishes of the king, though it would seem that they had no orders from him to that effect. The pope was residing at his native city of Anagni. De Nogaret and Colonna hastened to Italy, and at the head of a few hundred armed men stormed the palace of the pope, compelled his defenders to surrender, and forced their way into the presence of the aged pontiff, who received them seated on his throne, crowned with the tiara, arrayed in the stole of St. Peter, and grasping the keys in his hand. Though deserted by all his friends, the intrepid old man did not quail in the presence of his enemies. Nogaret overwhelmed him with furious reproaches, and it is said that Colonna struck him with his iron gauntlet, and was with difficulty prevented from killing him on the spot. The pope was then placed on a vicious horse, with his face towards its tail, and led through the town to prison. Two days later the people of Anagni rose against the soldiers, drove

them and their leaders from the town, and released the pope, who hastened to Rome to take vengeance on his enemies. The shock of the outrage, and his own ungovernable temper, added to the infirmities of age, were more than the pontiff could endure. He was seized with a fever which resulted in frenzy and death, according to some accounts. Other, and perhaps more trustworthy writers, describe him "as sadly but quietly breathing his last, surrounded by eight cardinals, having confessed the faith and received the consoling offices of the church." He died on the 11th of October, 1303.

Philip, though relieved from the violence of Boniface, pursued his memory with unrelenting hostility. He demanded of the new pope, Benedict XI., the formal condemnation by a council of Boniface for heresy and other crimes. Benedict refused to pursue the memory of his predecessor, and pronounced a sentence of excommunication upon the persons concerned in the arrest of Pope Boniface, and all others who might in any way have aided or encouraged their acts, among whom it was evident that he included the King of France himself. A month later the pope died suddenly, and it was believed that he was carried off by poison administered by the agents of the French king.

Philip was now determined that the next pope should be a Frenchman, and one who would consent to be his dependant and his tool. By bribing the cardinals he succeeded in obtaining their promises to ratify his nomination. He then summoned to his presence Bertrand de Goth, Archbishop of Bordeaux—a man as unscrupulous as himself—and offered to make him pope if he would swear to comply with six conditions. Five of these were named to him on the spot. They were to remove all the ecclesiastical censures pronounced upon Philip and his followers; to grant him a tenth of the revenues of the church in France for five years; to condemn the memory of Boniface VIII.; to restore the Colonna family to their honors; and to confirm as cardinals several persons nominated by Philip. The sixth and last condition Philip reserved to be named at a subsequent time and place, but the archbishop swore a solemn oath to grant it when demanded of him. The infamous bargain being closed, Philip caused the archbishop to be elected pope, and he took the name of Clement V., June, 1305.

He was crowned at Lyons, and fixed his residence at Avignon instead of Rome, as has been related. By this change he placed himself in the power of Philip, and it was not long before he found him a relentless master. Clement promptly fulfilled the five conditions Philip had named to him, and awaited with no slight anxiety the announcement of the sixth.

The order of the Knights of the Temple, since their expulsion from Palestine, had continued to exist as one of the richest and most powerful institutions in Europe. They formed a body of 15,000 veteran knights, exempt from the royal jurisdiction, and governed by their own peculiar laws and officers, and were established in every country of Europe. Their enormous wealth, their pride and avarice, and their insolent treatment of the people rendered them unpopular wherever they were established. They had aroused the hostility of Philip by their resistance of some of his tyrannical measures, and he resolved to destroy them. The prospect of confiscating all their vast wealth in France made him all the more determined to proceed against them. To accomplish the destruction of an order so largely ecclesiastical and under the immediate protection of the pope, it was necessary to secure the aid of the church. When, therefore, Clement V. was fairly seated upon the papal throne, Philip named to him his sixth condition which he had sworn to grant, and which was the destruction of the Templars. The pope at first shrank from the measure in horror, but he was helpless in Philip's hands, and was obliged to do his master's will. Jacques du Molay, the Grand Master of the Templars, and the leading officers of the order, were invited into France on the pretext of taking measures with the pope for a new crusade. They were received with distinction at first by Philip, and were then seized and thrown into prison on the 13th of October, 1307. The property of the order throughout France was seized by the officers of the crown, and all the knights in the kingdom were arrested and imprisoned. The Templars were accused by the king of idolatry, atheism, Mohammedanism, and a number of infamous practices. With all their faults, they were doubtless innocent of the charges brought against them by Philip. Numbers of them were compelled by torture to confess the crimes of which they were accused, and the confessions thus ob-

tained were used to establish the guilt of the order. Others bravely endured their sufferings and protested their innocence to the last. Nevertheless, with the evidence he had collected, Philip procured the condemnation of the order by the states general in May, 1308, and compelled the pope to consent to the sacrifice of the Templars. Many of the knights were burned at the stake, where they died with the unshaken courage which had rendered their order invincible in battle. In March, 1312, the pope, in the Council of Vienne, solemnly abolished the order of the Templars throughout Europe, and bestowed their lauded estates and all their privileges upon the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem. Two-thirds of the movable property of the Templars was given to the King of France to compensate him for the expenses of the prosecution. This amounted to a very considerable sum. The last victims of Philip were Jacques du Molay, the Grand Master, and the Preceptor of Normandy, who, after being kept in prison for seven years, were burned at the stake at Paris in March, 1314. They protested their innocence to the last, and died with a fortitude which drew tears from the spectators.

A few weeks later Clement V. died—April 20th—and on the 29th of November, 1314, Philip himself followed the pope to the grave. He was one of the most unscrupulous of the French sovereigns, and he was one of the most successful. He failed in nothing that he undertook. He humbled the church in his treatment of Boniface and Clement, and by crushing the Templars struck the hardest blow that had yet been delivered to the feudal nobility. He restored the supremacy of the civil law, and protected the common people against the aggressions of the nobles, though he did not respect their rights himself. His great talents and the success of his measures justly entitle him to be classed among the great kings of France. Yet with all his talents he was so unscrupulous, rapacious, vindictive, and cruel that he won no permanent good for his country, and left a character which is noted chiefly for its dishonesty.

Philip was succeeded by Louis, the eldest of his three sons, all of whom subsequently became kings of France. Louis X., surnamed "le Hutin," reigned two years, and during this time a violent reaction set in from all classes—the nobles, clergy, and

commons—against the despotism established by Philip. Each won back some portion of its lost rights, and had there been a wise and disinterested leader to guide the movement, it might have resulted in the permanent establishment of a free constitution in France. As it was, the nobles managed to exalt themselves at the expense of the commons. Louis died in June, 1316, leaving no heir. About four months later his queen, Jeanne of Navarre, gave birth to a son, who died in six days, and is not usually reckoned among the Kings of France.

Philip, the brother of Louis X., had been appointed regent at the death of that king, and upon the death of his infant nephew he caused himself to be solemnly crowned king at Rheims on the 9th of January, 1317. The Duke of Burgundy claimed the kingdom for his niece, the Princess Jeanne, the daughter of Louis X. by his first wife, but the states general being summoned by Philip, enacted a law declaring females incapable of inheriting the crown of France. This measure is known as the "Salic Law," from its being based upon an obscure article from the old Salian code, which forbade the transmission of the allodial property of the tribe to women. It has since then remained an essential feature of French constitutional law. It at once silenced the opposition to the new king, and confirmed him in his usurpation, and in succeeding ages it proved of the greatest benefit to France by excluding foreign princes from the throne, and retaining the sovereignty in the hands of a race of native-born kings. Whatever were the faults of future sovereigns, it could never be said of them that they were not natives of the soil, and possessed of as deep an interest in the country as any of their subjects.

Philip V., surnamed "the Long," reigned six years. He was a mild, generous prince, and was the author of many useful laws, one of which declared the royal domain inalienable. He died in 1322.

Charles IV., surnamed "le Bel," or "the Fair," the third and youngest son of Philip IV., succeeded his brother Philip, who left no son. He took advantage of the struggle between Edward II. of England and his subjects to attempt to get possession of the duchy of Guienne, and succeeded in capturing La Rochelle. Queen Isabella, the wife of Edward and the sister of Charles the Fair, was sent to Paris by her husband,

in May, 1325, to negotiate a peace; but she set to work immediately upon her arrival in France to plot against her husband, and was aided by her brother with men and money. She returned to England in September, 1326, and brought on the struggle which resulted in the overthrow and murder of Edward II. Upon the accession of Edward III., the French king restored to him the duchy of Guienne upon payment of an indemnity of 50,000 marks sterling. Charles died on the 31st of January, 1328, leaving no male heir. Two months later, his queen gave birth to a princess. By the death of Charles the direct line of the house of Capet, which had held the throne in unbroken succession of father and son for more than three centuries, was ended. In the popular sentiment this failure of heirs was a judgment sent by God for the punishment of the crimes of Philip IV.

The nobles of the kingdom, upon the birth of the princess, conferred the crown upon Philip, Count of Valois, grandson of King Philip III. He was the first cousin and nearest relative on the male side of Charles the Fair, and it was judged that under the Salic law the crown belonged of right to him. He was crowned at Rheims on the 29th of May, 1328, and is known as Philip VI. Philip was thirty-five years old, and was possessed of many good qualities. He was brave, generous and affable, and fond of pomp and display. He established a magnificent court, at which the great nobles, and the Kings of Bohemia, Navarre and Majorca, with their splendid retinues, habitually resided. In the midst of this magnificence the king was able silently to increase the power of the crown until the sovereign became as strong and as despotic as in the days of Philip the Fair.

Philip VI. began his reign by establishing the Count and Countess of Evreux on the throne of Navarre. The countess was the daughter of King Louis X., and but for the Salic law would have inherited the French crown at her father's death. In return the count and countess renounced their pretensions to the French crown. The Flemings having revolted against the Count of Flanders, that prince sought the aid of Philip, who promptly marched to his assistance, defeated the Flemings in the battle of Cassel, and re-established the count's authority. He now thought himself strong enough to summon Edward III. of England to appear at his court and do feudal homage

for his duchy of Guienne. Edward, who was not prepared to go to war, deemed it more prudent to obey, and did homage to Philip at Amiens in 1329. He made a secret reservation, in concert with his council of state, however, not to surrender his rights as an independent prince, but to vindicate them at the first propitious moment. He suffered six years to pass by, and during this time Philip succeeded in winning the enmity of Robert, Count of Artois, who had been one of his most devoted and useful friends, and who was his brother-in-law. Robert endeavored by a base imposture, and, as it was believed, by causing two of his relatives to be poisoned, to obtain a restoration of the county of Artois, of which he had been deprived in a previous reign. His fraud was detected, he was sentenced to perpetual banishment and his property was confiscated. He had fled the kingdom before this sentence was pronounced, and at once began to plot against Philip, whom he hated for not shielding him from the consequences of his crimes. Philip, fearful of his enmity, pursued him from country to country, and caused the different princes with whom he sought refuge to refuse him shelter. At length Robert fled to England, and was received with distinguished favor by Edward III., Philip's jealous and ever watchful rival, A. D. 1333.

The restless plotting at the English court of the Count of Artois induced Philip to bring matters to a definite issue. In the early part of the year 1366 he proclaimed Robert of Artois a traitor and an enemy of the state, and forbade all his vassals, of whatever rank, whether within or beyond the French territory, to receive or assist him on pain of confiscation of their fiefs. Edward accepted the insult as addressed to him, and regarding it also as a declaration of war on the part of the French king, began with energy to prepare for the struggle. The Flemings, under their leader, James Van Artevelde, the famous brewer of Ghent, now embraced his cause, and at the advice of Van Artevelde, Edward in 1337 formally assumed the title of King of France, which he claimed in virtue of his descent from Philip the Fair, who was his mother's father. The Flemings at once acknowledged him as their feudal lord, and in 1339 he crossed over to Flanders and invaded France from that direction. The first campaign was indecisive, and therefore unfavorable to the English, who retired into Hainault.

In the spring of 1340 Edward returned to Flanders with a powerful fleet and a strong body of troops. In the meantime a French army had been sent into Hainault, and the French fleet, consisting of 400 well-manned and equipped ships, was sent into the Flemish waters to prevent the landing of the English king. The French took position near the mouth of the Scheldt at Helvoetsluys. The English fleet came in sight in the afternoon of the 23d of June, and the next morning Edward attacked the French. The battle lasted until late in the afternoon. The French were overwhelmingly defeated with a loss of 30,000 men, and the capture of almost their entire fleet. The French navy was annihilated, and the maritime supremacy of England was established beyond all prospect of failure. The English loss was slight compared with that of the French. Edward himself was slightly wounded. A few weeks later he marched into France at the head of a large army, in which were 60,000 Flemings under Van Artevelde, and laid siege to Tournay. As in the previous campaign, however, he gained no advantage, and a truce was concluded, which was observed by both parties beyond the period named, until the middle of the summer of 1342. It might have grown into a permanent peace, had not a new source of trouble reopened the quarrel between the two kingdoms.

The succession to the duchy of Brittany was disputed between Charles of Blois, and John, Count of Montfort. The French king sustained the claim of Charles, who was his nephew, while Edward embraced the cause of Montfort, whom he created Earl of Richmond in addition to his Breton title. In August, 1341, Charles captured the town of Nantes, which was held by Montfort, took his rival prisoner, and sent him to Paris. The Countess of Montfort now took up the cause of her husband, and defended it with ability and gallantry. She threw herself into the town of Hennebon, and held it against her enemy until the arrival of a large reinforcement, sent by Edward to her assistance, compelled the French to raise the siege, 1342. Edward himself came over, but nothing definite was accomplished, and on the 19th of January, 1343, a three years' peace was signed between the two sovereigns, and included their allies and partisans on both sides. Neither party had any idea of observing the treaty, but Philip was the first to break it. Before the year was out he invited fifteen of the most pow-

erful barons of Brittany to a tournament at Paris, and then treacherously arrested them on an unsupported charge of intriguing with the English. On the 29th of November, 1343, they were beheaded without trial, by order of the king, and early in 1344 three Norman barons were seized and executed in like manner.

fire and sword. He then retreated to Flanders, followed by Philip with an army of 100,000 men. The French king endeavored to force his enemy to an engagement, in which he hoped his great preponderance of numbers would give him the victory. Edward skilfully eluded him till he had passed the Somme, and secured his retreat into Flanders. Then taking position on the edge of the forest of Crecy, about twelve miles from Abbeville, he awaited the approach of the French. Philip having failed to prevent the passage of the Somme by the English, crossed that river at Abbeville, and marched rapidly towards the English position, arriving before it on the 26th of August, 1346. He intended to defer the attack until the next day, but his advanced troops engaged without orders, and so brought on the battle. The French were decisively defeated, with a loss of 1,200 knights, 80 bannerets, 30,000 men-at-arms, and a large number of princes, counts, and superior officers. Among the slain were the Counts of Alençon and Flanders, and the veteran knight-errant, King John of Bohemia, now old and nearly blind. The English gave no quarter, and Philip, who had borne himself gallantly in the battle, seeing that the day was lost, fled from the field and took refuge in Amiens. The victory was due to the gallantry of the Prince of



QUEEN PHILIPPA PLEADING FOR THE CITIZENS OF CALAIS.

The murder of these nobles—for it was nothing else—excited a feeling of universal indignation against Philip. Edward, proclaiming that the treaty had been broken by the King of France, declared war against Philip in 1345, and the next year invaded France at the head of about 30,000 infantry. He landed at Cape La Hogue in Normandy on the 12th of June, 1346, and marched almost to Paris, ravaging the country with

Wales, who commanded the first division of his father's army, and the steadiness and skill of the English archers, before whose fatal volleys the undisciplined French were unable to stand.

From Crecy Edward marched to Calais and laid siege to the town, while his fleet blockaded it from the sea. It resisted him for eleven months, and was finally starved into submission. The town was surrendered

on the 4th of August, 1347. Edward at first intended to hang the principal citizens, but was induced by the entreaties of Queen Philippa to spare them. Edward established a large English colony in Calais, and for more than two centuries that town continued one of the most valuable possessions of the English crown. On the 28th of September of the same year, a ten months' truce was arranged between the two kings, and Edward went back to England. At the expiration of the truce hostilities were not resumed. During the years 1348 and 1349 the terrible plague known as the Black Death, of which we have already spoken, raged in France and England, and swept off thousands. Fifty thousand persons died in Paris alone, and among these were the Queens of France and Navarre. Philip himself died of a lingering sickness on the 22d of August, 1350, having reigned twenty-two years.

During the reign of Philip VI. two events of importance occurred. The king imposed a tax on salt, called the *Gabelle*, and thus originated the government monopoly of salt, which in after years became so profitable to the treasury, and so odious to the people. In the last year of the king's life, Humbert II., the Dauphin of Vienne, so called from the Dolphin or Dauphin which he bore as his device, retired into a monastery. Being without children, he ceded to Philip for the king's grandson, Prince Charles, his hereditary estates, in consideration of the sum of two hundred thousand florins paid to him by the king. One of the conditions of the cession stipulated that the province of Dauphiné should never be united to the crown of France. In consequence of this provision, and to mark the importance of the acquisition, when the young Prince Charles became King of France as Charles V., he ordered that the title of Dauphin should from that time be borne by the eldest son and heir of the reigning King of France.

John, surnamed "le Bon," or "the Good," ascended the throne at the death of Philip. He was in his thirty-second year, and resembled his father in character, being, like him, proud, obstinate, presumptuous, cruel, fond of pomp and luxury, display and pleasure. He was also brave and could be generous when he chose, and sincerely desired to be a true knight.

At the outset of his reign John seized and put to death the Constable of France,

Raoul de Nesle, without trial, and bestowed the office of constable upon his chosen comrade, Charles de la Cerda, and also gave him the county of Angoulême, which had been ceded to the crown by Charles the Bad, the new King of Navarre, upon the promise of other territories in exchange. John withheld these territories, and thus won the bitter enmity of Charles, who was destined to bring many afflictions upon France during this reign. He vowed vengeance against the Constable de la Cerda, and made good his words by causing him to be assassinated in his bed in January, 1354. King John at once prepared to invade Charles' territories of Navarre and Evreux, but as Charles was a most formidable antagonist, he consented to a reconciliation, which was arranged by their relatives. The reconciliation was a hollow pretence. The King of Navarre instigated the Dauphin Charles to place himself at the head of a party opposed to his father. John was rendered furious by this conduct. Upon learning it he proceeded at once to Rouen, where the dauphin, as Duke of Normandy, held his court, and arrested Charles the Bad with his own hands, and would have put him to death, had not the dauphin induced him to change his purpose. The King of Navarre was sent to Paris, and imprisoned in the Chatelet, where he was treated with great severity, April, 1356.

The quarrel of the King of Navarre was taken up by his brother Philip in the summer of the same year, and he with a number of the discontented French lords joined the Duke of Lancaster, and levied war upon the French king in Normandy. John took the field against them and drove them back, and laid siege to Breteuil, a fortress belonging to the King of Navarre. While thus engaged, he learned that the Prince of Wales, better known as the Black Prince, had marched out of his duchy of Guienne with an army of 8,000 men, and had advanced as far into the French territories as Bourges. John at once raised the siege of Breteuil, and hastened into Poitou by forced marches for the purpose of cutting the communications of the Black Prince and intercepting his retreat into Guienne. He succeeded in throwing his army of 60,000 men across the route of Edward, who, seeing that he must either fight or surrender, took up a strong position at Poitiers, where, undismayed by the immense superiority of the French, he

awaited their attack. On the morning of the 19th of September, 1356, King John made a gallant attack upon the English army, but was defeated. The French were thrown into confusion by the deadly volleys of the English archers, and broke and fled before the decisive charge of the Black Prince's line. Only one division, commanded by King John in person, attempted to stay the English advance, but this was beaten, and John himself was made prisoner. The French lost 2,500 nobles and knights, and between 7,000 and 8,000 common soldiers. The prisoners numbered more than two or three times the total force of the English army. Edward treated the captive king with the most respectful consideration, and generously endeavored to make him forget the loss of his freedom. He was taken to Bordeaux, and in the spring of 1357 was sent to England, where he was courteously received by King Edward, and assigned the old palace of the Savoy as a residence. Efforts were made, without success, to bring the war to a close; but a truce was arranged for two years from Easter, 1357.

The Dauphin Charles, who escaped from the fatal field of Poitiers, reached Paris ten days after the battle, and assumed the government as lieutenant-general of the kingdom. The capture of the king had thrown the whole kingdom into confusion. Charles summoned the states general at once, and it was evident that the commons intended to take advantage of the occasion to regain some of their lost rights. They were led by Etienne Marcel the head of the municipality, or mayor, of Paris, and Robert Lecoq, Bishop of Laon, men of great abilities and of sincere patriotism. Charles was obliged to yield to the demands of the commons, which were just and moderate, but at the same time secretly procured from his father an order to disregard all his promises as well as the acts of the states general. This brought on an insurrection of the people, who released Charles the Bad, and urged him to assert his claim to the crown, which would have been indisputable had it not been drawn from the female branch of the royal family. The insurgents murdered two of the most trusted advisers of the dauphin before his eyes and compelled him to sanction their measures. Charles was now a prisoner in the hands of Marcel, who could have used his power to compel the dauphin to grant

some permanent measure of constitutional freedom to the country, but instead of doing this, he allowed Charles to leave Paris and retire to Compiègne, where he was speedily joined by the nobility. The states general met and sustained him, and a strong reaction in favor of the royal cause set in. A civil war ensued, which lasted about five months, and resulted in the triumph of the dauphin. An episode of the war was the frightful insurrection of the Jacquerie, or peasantry—"a general rising of the enslaved peasants of the provinces against the nobles, prompted not so much by the love of liberty as by the desperation of utter and hopeless misery and a ferocious thirst of vengeance upon their tyrants." One battle sufficed to quell the revolt. No quarter was shown on either side, and the insurrection, though brief, was one of the most terrible known in history. The triumph of the dauphin over Marcel and his party was the extinction for a long period of any hope of imposing a constitutional check upon the arbitrary and irresponsible power of the French monarchs.

Charles of Navarre continued his war upon the kingdom for some time longer, and in August, 1359, the dauphin, in order to obtain peace, signed a treaty favorable to the Navarese king. At the same time it became known that the captive King John had concluded a treaty with Edward III. of England, ceding to him, in absolute sovereignty, Aquitaine, Normandy, Touraine, Poitou, Saintonge, and the Limousin—about one-half of the kingdom of France. The indignant dauphin summoned the states general, and the treaty was repudiated, with a patriotic declaration of the willingness of the French people to suffer any hardships rather than consent to such a shameful dismemberment of the kingdom. Edward, furious at the rejection of the treaty, invaded France in October, 1359, and though he gained no victory over Charles, compelled him to consent to a treaty known as the peace of Bretigny, in May, 1360. The terms of this treaty were almost as hard as those of the one that had been rejected. Aquitaine, Poitou, Angoumois, Limousin, and Saintonge, were ceded to Edward in full sovereignty; that is, independently of all homage to the French crown. Edward, on his part, renounced for himself and the Prince of Wales all claims to the crown of France, and all pretensions to Normandy and the other ancient

possessions of the Plantagenets north of the Loire. King John's ransom was fixed at three millions of crowns, to be paid in six annual instalments. The king was to be set free upon the payment of the first half million crowns, and was to place a number of the first lords of France in Edward's hands as hostages for the payment of the rest. Charles, with great difficulty, raised the necessary sum, and King John was set free. He was received with joy by his people, the exhausted condition of the country making peace at any price seems sweet to them.

In 1361 the reigning Duke of Burgundy died, and with him ended the direct line of this ancient house. King John, in the absence of direct heirs, claimed the duchy as the nearest male relative of the late duke, and disregarding the claim of Charles the Bad of Navarre, which was equal if not superior to his own, took possession of Burgundy, and added it to the royal domain. One of the hostages delivered by King John to Edward of England for the fulfilment of the treaty of Bretigny, was Louis of Anjou, John's second son. The young prince broke his parole, effected his escape from Calais, and hastened to Paris. John, who was a faithful knight, was deeply mortified by his son's breach of faith, and resolved to atone for it by returning to England and surrendering himself as a prisoner once more. Before leaving France he created his youngest and favorite son Philip, Duke of Burgundy. The young prince had fought like a hero at his father's side at Poitiers, and the king expressly stated in the grant that it was to reward him for his courage and devotion. This grant, though creditable to the king as a father, was an act of short-sighted and mistaken policy. Philip the Bold, as the new duke came to be called, became the founder of the later ducal house of Burgundy, which in the next century proved a formidable rival to the royal family of France. John returned to England in January, 1364, and was received with courtesy and distinction. A short time after his arrival he was seized with a fatal illness, and died on the 8th of April, at the age of forty-five.

Upon the death of his father, Charles V., called "le Sage," or "the Wise," came to the throne. Unlike his father, he was quiet and studious in his habits, was a well-learned man for the times, and was by nature cautious and prudent. His body was too weak to permit him to engage in the

rough life of a soldier, but he possessed the happy faculty so necessary in the head of a great state, of promptly recognizing and readily using the men best suited for carrying out his plans. It was this quality that led him to choose and to sustain with unwavering firmness as the principal leader of his armies the great soldier, Bertrand du Guesclin, who by the opening of this reign had given evidence of his remarkable military genius.

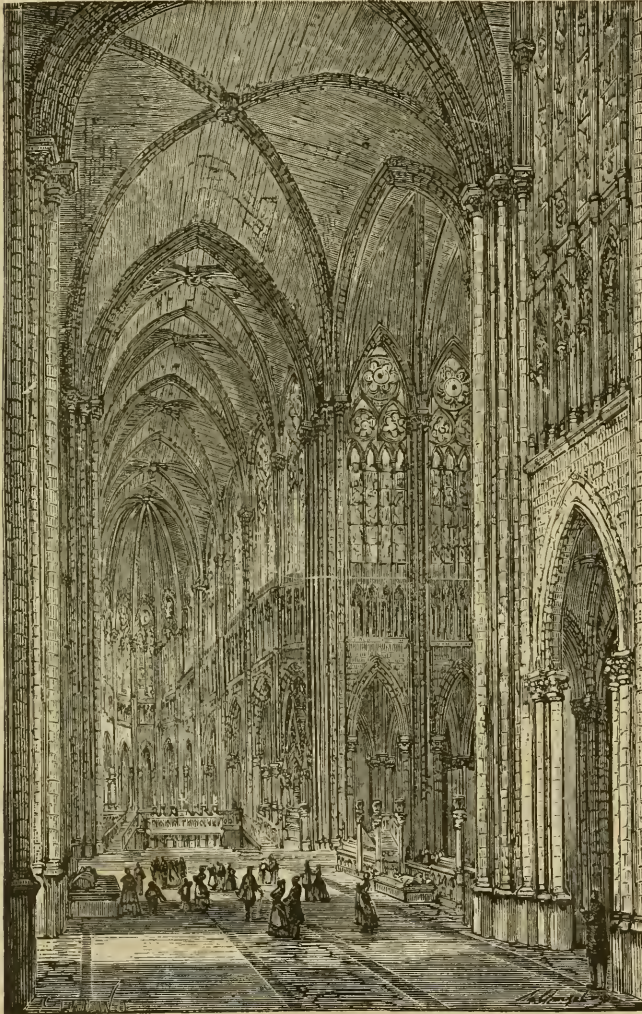
At the time of Charles' accession a civil war was raging in the Spanish kingdom of Castile between Pedro the Cruel and his natural brother, Henry of Trastamara. Henry, being driven into France, begged assistance from Charles, who in 1365 sent an army into Spain under Du Guesclin. The Castilians at once rose against Pedro, who was forced to fly, and Henry gained the throne without striking a blow. Pedro fled to the court of the Black Prince at Bordeaux, and succeeded in inducing him to enter Spain to his assistance at the head of 10,000 troops. On the 3d of April, 1367, a battle was fought at Navarette between the army of Pedro, commanded by the Black Prince, and that of Henry, commanded by Du Guesclin. The latter was routed with fearful slaughter, and Du Guesclin was captured. Henry escaped, and took shelter with the pope at Avignon. This war led to results the most important to the French kingdom. Pedro of Castile failed to furnish the funds to pay the troops of the Black Prince, whose army was composed of the mercenary soldiers known as the Free Companies, and Prince Edward was unable to raise the money for this purpose upon his return from Spain. The army broke up into numerous bands, and, discontented and indignant, began to commit such outrages in Edward's dominions that he was forced to demand their withdrawal. They then passed into France, and indulged in such excesses that the people of the suffering districts were furious against the Black Prince. In order to raise the funds to pay these troops, the Black Prince levied a heavy tax upon his subjects. The nobles remonstrated, and refused to pay the tax, and three of the most powerful in 1368 appealed to the King of France, as lord paramount, to protect them against the exactions of their prince. Charles had secretly encouraged this disaffection, and he had chosen his time well. The Black Prince was slowly dying of an incurable

disease, and Edward III. was old and infirm. The French people were very sore over the sacrifices made by the treaty of Bretigny, and the provinces ceded to England were anxious for a reunion with France. As a first step in the plan on which he had resolved, Charles secured the services of the free companies, and sent

now threw off the mask, and disavowing the treaty of Bretigny, summoned the Black Prince to answer before him the complaints of his vassals.

War now broke out simultaneously in the north and south of France. The cautious policy of Charles was successful, and the failure of the health of the Black Prince,

who became so ill that he was obliged to relinquish the direction of the war and return to England (A. D. 1370), gave the French a great advantage. By the close of the year 1372 Du Guesclin, who had been made Constable of France, had regained the whole district between the Gironde and the Loire. In 1373 Brittany was overrun, and the majority of the Breton fortresses fell into the hands of the king. Edward III. now despatched a powerful army to France under John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. The duke landed in France in July, 1373. Charles adopted the Fabian policy, and his generals steadily retired before the English commander, refusing to fight a decisive battle. "Let the storm rage," he said to his commanders; "retire before it; it will soon exhaust itself." The result vindicated his wisdom. By the time the Duke of Lancaster reached Bordeaux he had lost at least a third of his army by sickness, fatigue, capture, or death in the numerous petty attacks with which the French harassed them on their march; and out of 30,000 horses, 24,000 had died. The privations and sufferings of the winter



INTERIOR OF THE CHURCH OF ST. DENIS.

completed the work, and the English army was ruined without having been able to fight a single battle. The towns and castles of Gascony now rapidly deserted to the French side, and by the close of the year 1374 the only important places in France held by the English were

tem to Spain under Du Guesclin to restore Henry of Trastamara to the throne of Castile. The effort was successful. Pedro was defeated and captured, and soon after slain, and Henry, with whom Charles had concluded an alliance offensive and defensive, was acknowledged King of Castile. Charles

Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne. In June, 1375, a truce for two years was arranged by the pope. The next year the Black Prince died, and was followed by his father, Edward III., in 1377, and France was thus relieved of her two most inveterate enemies.

Immediately after the death of King Edward the combined fleets of France and Castile made a descent upon the English coast and ravaged the shores of the Isle of Wight and the neighboring counties. The possessions of the English in Guienne and the duchy of Brittany were entirely subdued and annexed to the crown, and the King of Navarre, being detected in another attempt against Charles V., was compelled to purchase peace by the surrender of several of the strongest castles of his kingdom. The annexation of Brittany took place in 1379. The measure gave great offence to the Bretons, who were unwilling to surrender their independence. They promptly rebelled against Charles, recalled their exiled duke, who landed at St. Malo in August, 1379, and was received with enthusiasm. All the Breton generals in the French service threw up their commands and joined their countrymen, and even the noble-hearted Du Guesclin, who was devotedly attached to Charles, resigned his office and retired from court. Charles begged the constable to resume his post, and Du Guesclin consented, but steadily refused to draw his sword against his countrymen. With an obstinacy singular in so excellent a sovereign, Charles persisted in his designs against Brittany, and hopelessly alienated the Bretons from the crown. Troubles now broke out in Languedoc, in consequence of the misgovernment of the Duke of Anjou. The English seized the occasion to possess themselves of several towns and castles along the frontier of Languedoc, and Charles sent Du Guesclin to expel them. Du Guesclin was seized with his last illness and died while besieging Châteaufort de Randau, and the governor of that place, who had sworn to surrender to none but Du Guesclin himself, brought the keys of the fortress to the tent of the constable and silently laid them on the breast of the dead hero. Du Guesclin was mourned throughout all France, and by none more deeply than by Charles V. The king caused his body to be brought to Paris, and buried him with almost royal honors in the Abbey of St. Denis, among

the Kings of France. Two months later Charles V. died, September 16th, 1380. In him France lost one of her best kings; for though his rule was despotic, he sincerely desired and constantly sought the good of his people, and his success in winning back the provinces held by the English was in itself enough to stamp him as one of the most illustrious of French sovereigns. He was the author of many wise and useful laws in his kingdom. Being a learned man himself, he was a liberal friend of learning. He founded the Royal Library at Paris, and gave great encouragement to the arts, especially to architecture. He built the vast and famous Hotel de St. Pol, at Paris, which became his favorite residence, and also began the fortress of the Bastille.

CHAPTER IV.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF CHARLES VI. TO THE DEATH OF LOUIS XII.

Charles VI.—The Regency—Philip, Duke of Burgundy—Preparations for the Invasion of England—Charles Assumes the Government—His Illness and Insanity—The Duke of Burgundy the Ruler of France—Peace with England—Hostility Between the Dukes of Burgundy and Orleans—Murder of the Duke of Orleans—The Armagnacs—Civil War—Henry V. of England Invades France—Battle of Agincourt—Alliance between the Queen and the Duke of Burgundy—Massacre of the Armagnacs—Murder of the Duke of Burgundy—His Son Joins the English—Treaty of Troyes—Marriage of Henry V. with the Princess Catharine—Death of Henry V. and Charles VI.—The Duke of Bedford Regent for Henry VI.—Charles VII.—Jacqueline, Countess of Holland—Coolness Between the Dukes of Bedford and Burgundy—Siege of Orleans—Jeanne Dare, the Maid of Orleans—Her Success—Charles VII. Crowned at Rheims—Capture and Death of Jeanne Dare—Reverses of the English in France—Reconciliation of the Duke of Burgundy with the French King—The English Driven out of Paris—The States General at Orleans—A Standing Army Formed—Treasonable Conduct of the Dauphin—Death of Charles VII.—Louis XI. Becomes King—His Character—Revokes the Pragmatic Sanction—Increases the Royal Territories—League of the Public Good—Treaty of Conflans—Louis Regains Normandy—Charles the Bold Becomes Duke of Burgundy—Enmity Between Louis and Charles—Visit of Louis to Peronne—Hard Terms Imposed Upon the King—He Evades them—Intervenes in the Affairs of England—Death of the Duke of Guienne—War Between France and Burgundy—Defeat of Charles the Bold by the Swiss—Death of Charles—Louis Seizes Burgundy and Picardy—War with Maximilian—Death of Louis—Charles VIII.—The Regency—Anne of Brittany—Marries Charles—Peace of Senlis—Expedition of Charles to Italy—Louis XII. Marries Queen Anne—Renews the Italian War—Failure of the War—Death of Louis XII.

CHARLES VI., surnamed "the Well Beloved," was not twelve years old at the time of his father's death. His four uncles at once began to quarrel over the regency, and at length agreed upon a compromise. The Duke of Anjou was proclaimed regent; the custody of the king's person was committed to the Dukes of Burgundy and Bourbon; and the Duke of Berry was made Governor of Languedoc and Aquitaine. By the dying command of Charles V., Olivier de Clisson, the trusted lieutenant of Du Guesclin, was made constable. The Duke of Anjou, a man of notorious avarice, soon brought on a violent commotion in the kingdom by his attempts to raise money by unpopular taxes. The troubles lasted nearly two years, and were with difficulty quieted. Peace being restored, the king, attended by his uncles, returned to Paris in May, 1382. Immediately afterwards the Duke of Anjou, who had been adopted as her heir by his cousin Joanna, Queen of Naples, set out for that kingdom. He died there in 1384, and the direction of the kingdom passed into the hands of Philip, Duke of Burgundy, the ablest of Charles's uncles. By the advice of the duke Charles entered Flanders with a large army, defeated the Flemings under Philip Van Artevelde, at Rosebecque, and restored the Count of Flanders to his throne, November, 1382. Elated by his easy victory over the champions of civil liberty in Flanders, Charles returned to Paris, and entering the city at the head of his army, proceeded to crush the popular party there and place the city under the most absolute despotism. The chiefs of the popular party were put to death, all the unpopular taxes were reimposed, and the king levied a fine of 960,000 francs upon the citizens, after which he graciously consented to pardon them for their share in the late disturbances. Rheims, Troyes, Châlons, Orleans, and the principal cities of northern France were punished in a similar manner. The civil wars which marked the latter part of Charles' reign were the direct result of this deliberate destruction of the rights and liberties of the people.

In January, 1384, the Count of Flanders died, leaving no male heir. Philip the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, who had married the only daughter of the Flemish count, succeeded to his dominions, which consisted of Flanders, Artois, the counties of Rhetel

and Nevers, and other territories in Champagne. He soon added the duchy of Brabant to his other possessions, and thus became one of the most powerful sovereigns of Europe. He promptly settled the troubles which had long existed between the Counts of Flanders and the people of Ghent, and peaceably extended his authority over the whole province. Philip had connected himself with one of the most powerful houses of Germany by marrying his eldest son to the daughter of Duke Albert of Bavaria, and he now brought about a marriage between his nephew, the King of France, and Isabella, the daughter of Duke Stephen of Bavaria—a union destined to be fruitful of trouble to France—A. D. 1385.

In 1386 a powerful army and a numerous fleet were collected for the invasion of England, but the expedition failed through losses by tempest and the quarrels of the leaders; and what the storms left of the fleet was captured or destroyed by the English fleet in the harbor of Sluys. An attempt to renew the expedition the next year also failed through the enmity of the Duke of Brittany toward the Constable De Clisson.

In 1388 Charles, being twenty-one years of age, was induced by the entreaties of his people and the advice of the Cardinal-Bishop of Laon to put an end to the regency and assume the control of the government. He accordingly relieved his uncles, the Dukes of Burgundy and Berry, from their duties, and these, not daring to resist, left the court. On the day of their departure the Bishop of Laon, who had advised their dismissal, was found dead, with evident marks of having been poisoned. The king, who had no taste for the duties of his station, left the government in the hands of his ministers, the most influential of whom was De Clisson, the constable. They concluded a three years' truce with England, and introduced many useful reforms into the government, so that these three years were passed in comparative tranquillity. The king's uncles now sought to destroy De Clisson, whom they hated. The constable was attacked and left for dead in the street one night in June, 1392, by a band of bravos led by a nobleman named De Craon, who had been instigated to the deed by the royal dukes. De Craon fled to the Duke of Brittany. The king, enraged at this attack upon one of the high-

est officers of the state, swore that he would signally avenge it. He demanded the surrender of De Craon, and upon the reply of the Duke of Brittany that he knew nothing of either De Craon or his offence, Charles took the field against his uncle to punish him for his complicity in the affair and his falsehood. On the march he was seized with a dangerous illness, which resulted in insanity. Though he recovered his reason to a certain extent soon after, he was never afterwards capable of sustained effort or close application. During the remainder of his life he was a hopeless imbecile, often breaking out into fits of violent mania, and sometimes, but rarely, enjoying lucid rational intervals. The king being incapable of administering the government, the Duke of Burgundy was placed at the head of affairs, and one of his first measures was to deprive De Clisson of his office and drive him into exile. During one of the lucid intervals of Charles a definite treaty of peace was concluded with England, and the Princess Isabella, a child of six years, was married to Richard II. of England, 1396.

The first eight years of the fifteenth century were passed in quarrels between the Dukes of Orleans and Burgundy for the possession of the regency of the kingdom. Philip the Bold died in April, 1404, but his son and successor, John the Fearless, continued all his father's pretensions and carried the quarrel with his rival to a still greater extent. On the 23d of November, 1407, the Duke of Burgundy caused the Duke of Orleans to be assassinated, and by destroying his enemy made himself the real master of the kingdom. In 1410 a league was formed by the young Duke Charles of Orleans and his brother, children of the murdered duke, the Dukes of Berry, Bourbon, and Brittany, Count Bernard d'Armagnac, and the Constable D'Albret, for the overthrow of the Duke of Burgundy. The head of this league was the Count d'Armagnac, whose daughter was married to the young Duke of Orleans, and the partisans of the house of Orleans were henceforth known by his name. He gathered a large army in southern and western France, and ravaged the country up to the gates of Paris. The next year, 1411, the Armagnacs got possession of Paris, but were driven out by the Duke of Burgundy and forced to retreat to Orleans. The duke then put to death large numbers of the adherents of the Armagnacs in Paris, and the streets of

the city flowed with the blood of the defeated party.

The position of the Armagnacs was now desperate. Outlawed by the king and pursued with brutal fury by the Duke of Burgundy, they had but one resource—to appeal to England for aid. Accordingly, in May, 1412, they entered into a treaty with Henry IV. of England, by which they agreed to assist the English to regain their former possessions in the south of France. Henry engaged to aid them with a force of 4,000 picked troops. These negotiations were discovered by the French king, and war ensued. The result of the struggle was that the Duke of Burgundy was driven from power and forbidden to come to Paris without the king's permission, and the Armagnacs remained complete masters of the government. The king being imbecile, the real ruler of the kingdom was the dauphin. The war closed in 1414, and reduced France to a very low condition.

Taking advantage of this weakness, Henry V. of England revived his claim to the French crown and demanded the hand of the Princess Catharine in marriage, together with the restitution of all the provinces ceded by England in the treaty of Bretigny, and of Normandy also. War was the alternative. The dauphin, knowing the weakened condition of the kingdom, did not resent the insult offered by England, but tendered Henry the hand of the princess, with a large dowry in money, and all of Aquitaine and Limousin. Henry at once rejected this proposition, and on the 14th of August, 1415, landed at the mouth of the Seine with a large army, and laid siege to Harfleur, which surrendered a month later. Being greatly weakened by disease in his army, Henry resolved to delay active operations until the next year, and marched northward towards Calais, intending to winter there. On his march he was attacked at Agincourt, on the 19th of October, by the French army, which sought to intercept his retreat. He inflicted a terrible defeat upon the French, who lost eight thousand knights of noble blood out of a total loss of ten thousand men. Among the slain were the Dukes of Alençon and Brabant and the Constable d'Albret, the commander of the French army. The Dukes of Orleans and Bourbon were captured. Henry, unable, from the weakened condition of his army, to follow up his victory, continued his withdrawal to Calais.

The Count d'Armagnac was now made Constable of France. The dauphin died in December, 1415, and was succeeded by his brother John, Duke of Touraine, who died in a little more than a year later. It was believed that he was poisoned by the constable. The king's third son, Charles, a boy of fourteen, now became dauphin. He was thoroughly devoted to the Orleanist faction, among whom he had been educated, and was entirely under the influence of the Constable d'Armagnac, who, in order to remove the queen from power, induced Charles to take measures to punish her for her scandalous life. Her paramour was seized, tortured, and drowned in the Seine, and the queen herself sent into an honorable but strict captivity in the Castle of Tours.

From this time Queen Isabella never ceased to regard her son with a furious and vindictive hatred. The Duke of Burgundy had maintained a sullen neutrality throughout the whole struggle with the English, and he and the queen had hitherto been declared enemies. They now had a bond of sympathy and union—their hatred of the Armagnacs. Before she had been long in confinement Isabella managed to open negotiations with the duke, who marched to Tours with a sufficient force, and released her. The queen now declared herself regent of the kingdom, and the civil war broke out anew and with increased fury. The English taking advantage of it, captured Caen, Bayeux and some other towns in Normandy. In May, 1418, the Burgundians were admitted into Paris by a citizen who had become angry with the constable, and a terrible massacre of the Orleanist faction ensued. The Constable d'Armagnac, several bishops, and a large number of nobles were cruelly put to death. For three days the streets of Paris were a general scene of massacre, the work of the Burgundians being taken up by a band of Parisian cut-throats called Cabochiens, led by a butcher named Capeluque. One of the leaders of the Orleanist party succeeded in securing the escape of the dauphin to Melun at the beginning of the massacre. A few weeks later, the queen and the Duke of Burgundy entered Paris, and were joyfully received. The Cabochiens began their bloody work again, and were with difficulty restrained by the Duke of Burgundy, who was obliged to hang Capeluque.

Early in 1419 Henry V. captured Rouen

and made himself master of all Normandy. Both of the parties which divided France sought to open negotiations with him, but he haughtily declined to treat with either, and marched to Pontoise, from which he threatened Paris. The danger of the conquest of the whole country by the English now caused the parties to the civil war to become friends for the time, but only for the time. Taunegny Duchâtel, one of the Armagnac chiefs, and the one who had effected the escape of the dauphin from Paris, knowing that no dependence was to be placed upon the professions of the Duke of Burgundy, resolved to put an end to his life. Accordingly while the duke was engaged in a conference with the dauphin on the bridge of Montereau, he was set upon and killed by Taunegny Duchâtel and other chiefs of the Armagnacs, September 10th, 1419.

This murder was productive of the most serious consequences. Philip, the son and successor of the murdered duke, at once went over to the English, sinking all considerations of patriotism in his desire to avenge his father. He was supported by the queen, who wished to punish her son, the dauphin. The Parisians also, who were warmly attached to the Duke of Burgundy, embraced the English cause. Negotiations were at once begun with the English by the queen's party, and in April, 1420, the idiot king, Charles VI., at the dictation of Queen Isabella and the Duke of Burgundy, signed the most shameful treaty ever subscribed by a French sovereign. It was agreed that Henry should marry the Princess Catharine; that he should be declared regent of the kingdom, and heir to the crown at the death of Charles VI.; that the crowns of France and England should henceforth forever remain united in one and the same person; and the parties to the treaty bound themselves to enter into no engagement or transaction whatever with Charles, "calling himself Dauphin of Vienne," except by the mutual and unanimous consent of all parties to the treaty. Thus was the afflicted Charles VI. compelled to betray his country and repudiate his own son. To such a low state had the civil war reduced the courage and patriotism of the French that this treaty—the most shameful transaction in their history—was received with joy throughout the northern part of the kingdom. The terms being settled, Henry V. and the Princess

Catharine were married with great pomp at Troyes, on the 2d of June, 1420.

Meanwhile the Dauphin Charles and his followers retired beyond the Loire. The provinces south of that river were favorable to the dauphin, who, notwithstanding his despicable character and his lack of military skill, was the last champion of the independence of the nation against foreign dominion. The death of Henry V., which occurred on the 31st of August, 1422, was a great advantage to the national party, as it removed their greatest antagonist. His son and heir was only nine months old. On the 21st of October of the same year, Charles VI. died at Paris. The infant Henry VI. was proclaimed his successor at Paris; and at the same time Charles VII., the rightful King of France, was proclaimed at Melun. John, Duke of Bedford, uncle of Henry VI., was made regent of the kingdom. His chief strength lay in his alliance with Philip of Burgundy. The national party made repeated efforts to detach Philip from his league with the English, but without effect, and in 1423 the union was made still stronger by the marriage of the regent to one of Philip's sisters.

Charles VII., surnamed "the Victorious," caused himself to be crowned king at Poitiers and established his government at Bourges, from which fact he was contemptuously styled by the English, "King of Bourges." His party, however, was by no means contemptible, as he was supported by nearly the whole of France south of the Loire, by the house of Anjou, and the Counts of Alençon and Clermont. Besides this, he had a large force of troops furnished by the Duke of Milan and the King of Scotland. The Scots were commanded by the Earl of Douglas, whom Charles created Duke of Touraine. The Scotch Earl of Buchan was made Constable of France. In 1423 and 1424 Charles was unable to gain any advantage, and was defeated in two pitched battles by the Regent Bedford.

A singular cause now prevented the English and Burgundians from acting together with the vigor necessary to follow up their successes. Jacqueline, Countess of Hainault and Holland, had contracted a distasteful marriage with the Duke of Brabant, the cousin of the Duke of Burgundy, who was his nearest relative and heir. Unable to endure her husband, the countess fled in 1421 from Hainault, and, obtaining

from the deposed Pope Benedict XIII. (Pedro de Luna) a dispensation dissolving her marriage, soon after bestowed her hand upon Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, a younger brother of the Regent Bedford. Philip of Burgundy, whose right of succession to Jacqueline's territories was endangered by this union, now interfered, encouraged the Duke of Brabant to resist, defied the Duke of Gloucester to mortal combat, and captured Jacqueline and placed her in confinement at Ghent, until the case could be decided by the legitimate Pope Martin V. A breach was thus opened between the English and the Burgundians, and Bedford lost faith in Duke Philip, whose defection from the cause he regarded as only a matter of time. The breach was still further widened by the decision of Pope Martin V., who dissolved the marriage of Jacqueline and Humphrey. Jacqueline escaped from the custody of Philip, and a sharp struggle ensued between the duke and herself, in which the countess was defeated. Humphrey submitted to the pope's decision and went back to England, and Jacqueline was compelled to recognize Philip as the heir to her dominions and to promise not to marry again without his consent. These matters caused a suspension for several years of the hostilities between the English and the French. Charles, however, failed to take advantage of this respite, and the jealousies and plots of his followers, together with the weakness of his own character, made his situation more embarrassing and critical with the lapse of time.

At length the Regent Bedford resolved to attempt a decisive campaign, and in October, 1428, laid siege to Orleans, the key to the whole region south of the Loire, which was defended by Dunois, one of the bravest of the French knights. It was understood on both sides that the failure of Charles to hold Orleans would be decisive of the fate of his kingdom. Dunois being severely wounded in a sally early in 1429, and the Count of Clermont having withdrawn from the city with 2,000 men, the people of Orleans were left alone to hold their city against the English. Reduced to extremities, and without hope of succor, they offered to surrender the city to the Duke of Burgundy, if the regent would consent to raise the siege. Philip agreed to the proposal, but Bedford, whose distrust of the Duke of Burgundy had steadily in-



JEANNE D'ARC AT THE STORMING OF ORLÉANS.

creased, refused to entertain it. Philip retired to Flanders in anger, and ordered all his vassals to withdraw from the English army.

At this juncture the French received an unexpected reinforcement in the person of Jeanne Darc, a young peasant girl from the village of Domremy, in Lorraine. She believed herself commissioned by Heaven to free her country, and succeeded in inspiring both the king and the people with her enthusiasm. Placing herself at the head of a force for the relief of Orleans, she defeated the English before that city, and compelled them to raise the siege, May, 1429. She succeeded in inducing the king to advance towards Rheims, and gained two victories over the English on the march, one at Jargeau on the 10th of June, and the other at Patay on the 18th of that month. Troyes was captured a little later by her energy and determination, and on the 17th of July the king entered Rheims and was recrowned with solemn pomp in the cathedral of that city.

Bedford, now thoroughly alarmed, renewed his alliance with the Duke of Burgundy, who came to Paris, and raised a considerable force for the defence of the capital. By his double-faced policy Philip succeeded in delaying Charles, and thus much precious time was lost by the king. The Maid of Orleans, as Jeanne Darc was now called, endeavored to infuse her own energy into the indolent Charles, but her efforts were thwarted by the mean jealousy of the confidants of the king. At last she induced the king to advance to St. Denis, in August, 1429, but her attack on Paris was brought to failure by the jealousy with which the French leaders regarded her, and the singular apathy and irresolution of the king. There was nothing now but for the royal army to retire beyond the Loire for the winter.

In the spring of 1430, Jeanne took the field again, leaving Charles sunk in indolence at the chateau of Sully. On the 23d of May she was captured by the Burgundians in a battle near Compiegne, and sold to the English. The Duke of Bedford refused to treat her as a prisoner of war, and had her burned as a sorceress or witch in the market-place of Rouen, May 30th, 1431. Charles VII., who owed her his crown, made no effort to save her, and she died a martyr for her country's freedom.

Bedford had expected that the death of Jeanne would turn the tide of fortune in his favor. He caused the young Henry VI. to be crowned king at Notre Dame, but the ceremony aroused no enthusiasm, and the conduct of the Parisians was so openly hostile that Henry soon withdrew to Normandy. Reverses came thick and fast upon the English. Chartres surrendered to the royal forces under Dunois, and Bedford himself was beaten in a pitched battle at Lagny. In November, 1432, the Duchess of Bedford, the sister of Philip of Burgundy, died, and the tie which bound the two dukes being thus severed, a coolness sprang up between them which was soon increased by the remarriage of Bedford without consulting or communicating with Philip. Disgusted with the English alliance, Philip broke openly with the regent, and entered into negotiations with King Charles. A reconciliation was arranged in 1435, and Bedford having died, Philip openly embraced the cause of his sovereign against the English. He made Charles pay liberally for this reconciliation. The king rendered ample satisfaction to the duke for the murder of his father, pleading his extreme youth at the time in extenuation of his share in the crime. He ceded to Philip the counties of Macon and Auxerre, and some other territories on the Somme and in Ponthieu. He also released him from all homage to the French crown, and recognized him as an independent sovereign. Thus, after twenty-nine years of civil war, France was united again. Isabella of Bavaria, the mother of Charles VII., who had brought so many woes upon the country by her reckless intrigues, died at Paris, three days after the treaty between Charles and Philip was signed. Universally despised, her funeral was performed at St. Denis with haste, and without any of the honors due to her rank.

The Duke of Burgundy now united his arms with those of the King of France, and in the spring of 1436 their combined forces drove the English out of Paris. A general amnesty was proclaimed by Charles, who was joyfully acknowledged king by the Parisians. The reign of violence had prevailed so long that brigandage had succeeded the war upon such a large scale that great efforts were necessary to put a stop to it. Many of the royalist soldiers formed themselves into predatory bands and spread

terror through the country. They were exterminated with a stern hand by the Constable de Richemont.

Charles, now secure in the possession of his crown, displayed an amount of energy and nobility for which no one had given him credit. In October, 1439, he summoned the states general at Orleans, and published in this assembly a measure of the highest importance. The old feudal levies of the nobles were abolished, and it was made high treason for the nobles to enroll troops without the royal permission. A regular military force was established for the defence of the kingdom, to be paid from the public treasury. The officers were to be appointed by the king. Thus was formed the standing army of France. It was the death-blow of feudalism in the kingdom. The measure was opposed by the Dukes of Bourbon and Alençon, and by some of the other nobles. The Dauphin Louis was persuaded to join the movement, but it failed to receive the popular support, and was sternly discountenanced by the Duke of Burgundy. The king soon put down the rebellion, and compelled the rebels to submit.

In 1444 a truce of twenty-two months was obtained by the English, who had sustained some sharp reverses in Gascony and Normandy, and a marriage was negotiated between Henry VI. of England and Marguerite of Anjou, niece of the Queen of France. The marriage took place at Nancy in the spring of 1445. In 1449 the war with the English was renewed. They were steadily driven from the soil of France, and at the close of 1453 they had lost all their conquests but the towns of Calais and Guines, with the narrow strip of adjacent territory.

The last years of the reign of Charles, which should have been his best, as he had freed the kingdom from his enemies and restored peace to France, were the most unhappy of his life. He gave himself up to his mistresses and favorites, and neglected the affairs of state. He quarrelled with the Dauphin Louis, who held his court in Dauphiné. Louis became the centre of every intrigue against his father, and married a princess of the house of Savoy in opposition to his father's wishes. He maintained a close intimacy with the Duke of Burgundy, the hereditary rival of the French monarchy, and finally took refuge at the Flemish court at Brussels. In his

last years, Charles was tormented with the idea that Louis was constantly plotting against his life, and sank into a state of insanity which he had inherited from his father. He finally refused to take any food for fear of being poisoned, and died miserably in July, 1461, having reigned thirty-nine years.

Louis XI. was in Flanders at the time of his father's death. He at once returned to France, and stopping at Rheims to celebrate his coronation, hastened to Paris, and took charge of the government. The new king was one of the most remarkable men that ever ruled France. He was thirty-nine years old, and was therefore in the full vigor of manhood and of matured experience. He had for some years ruled his province of Dauphiné as an independent prince in defiance of his father's will, and had there learned the difficult and delicate business of statecraft, and had become a proficient in the art of judging men. He was by nature a man of cool, clear understanding, profound sagacity, and strong will, and he had learned to sacrifice every personal feeling and interest to the success of his plans. He came to the throne with the determination to destroy the last vestiges of feudalism, and to erect upon the ruins of that system an absolute monarchy. Throughout his reign his constant policy was to reduce the great nobles to a position of insignificance, and to concentrate every power of the state in the hands of the sovereign. "No man was ever better qualified to succeed in such an enterprise. Government was with him a science; he had studied it profoundly, and had learned how to profit to the utmost by the weaknesses, the vices, and the passions of mankind. A consummate master of the arts of dissimulation and duplicity, he made it the main business of his life to overreach and circumvent others, and accounted successful fraud the most conspicuous proof of talent. Where his predecessors would have employed violence, Louis trusted to cajolery, corruption and perfidy. He understood to perfection how to play off one class of interest against another; how to scatter the seeds of division and estrangement so as to profit afterward by the discord he had fomented. The victims whom his cunning had entrapped were treated, when he saw fit, with a tyrannical cruelty which has seldom been exceeded, and which shows that his heart was callous to the most ordinary feelings of our nature. Such a char-

acter in such a station could not but produce important results, not only in France, but on the general policy and social condition of Europe. At the same time his history is full of strange contrasts and anomalies. Louis realized his objects as a sovereign by sacrificing without scruple all his obligations as a man; and the consequence is that he will be estimated very differently, according as we regard him in his public or in his private capacity. Few princes have done more to extend the power and exalt the dignity of France; few have left upon the page of history a personal portrait of darker or more odious coloring."

Louis began his reign by revoking the Pragmatic Sanction, the famous enactment of his father's reign, by which the liberties of the Gallican Church were guarded against the encroachments of Rome. This action was promptly resented by the nobility and clergy, and opened a source of trouble which continued unsettled throughout the reign. Louis, though anxious to oblige the pope, sided first with him and then with his own subjects, as his policy required, and skilfully contrived to avoid an open quarrel with either.

In 1462 John II. of Aragon, being in need of money for the prosecution of a war against the revolted Catalans, borrowed a considerable sum from the King of France, and placed in Louis' hands as security the territories of Rousillon and Cerdagne. A little later Louis increased his dominions by concluding an arrangement with the Duke of Burgundy by which he redeemed for the sum of 400,000 crowns the towns of Amiens, Abbeville, and St. Quentin, which his father had ceded to Duke Philip by the treaty of Arras. Charles, Count of Charolais, afterwards Charles the Bold of Burgundy, the son and heir of Philip, believing that Louis had committed an act of spoliation of his father in this transaction, became as bitter an enemy as he had formerly been a devoted friend of the French king.

In the meantime the tyranny and wanton oppression of Louis had aroused a feeling of deep hostility to him, which pervaded all classes of his subjects. The Duke of Brittany and the Count of Charolais made an alliance against the king, who had endeavored for his own purposes to bring about a war between them, and in 1464 this league was joined by the disaffected French nobles, chief among whom were the

Dukes of Bourbon, Lorraine, Alençon, Nemours, and Berry. The coalition assumed the name of the "League of the Public Good." A civil war ensued, and a bloody but indecisive battle was fought at Mont l'Héri, July 16th, 1465, between the king and the Count of Charolais. Louis, though he failed to secure the victory, made himself master of Paris, and won over the citizens by his promises and flattery. He then opened negotiations with the members of the league, and the princes who had been so anxious for the "public good" lost their zeal under the temptation of the advantages which the king offered them as the price of peace. A treaty was signed at Conflans, a little later. The important line of the Somme was again relinquished to the Duke of Burgundy; the Duke of Berry was made Duke of Normandy; the Duke of Brittany was given the counties of Etampes and Montfort; and the Count de St. Pol was made Constable of France. Each of the others reaped some advantage from the treaty. The league was then dissolved.

These were humiliating conditions, and Louis was resolved from the first not to execute them. He accomplished by the treaty his purpose, which was to gain time and divide the confederates. Then he set to work to deprive them of their possessions, and bring them to his feet. Parliament refused to ratify the grant of Normandy to the Duke of Berry, on the ground that the king had no right to alienate the possessions of the crown, and Louis in a little while put an end to the duke's authority in that province. He then provoked a quarrel between the Dukes of Berry and Brittany, and won over the latter to consent to his seizure of Normandy. He incited the citizens of Liege to revolt against the authority of Philip of Burgundy, and thus tied the hands of the Count of Charolais, who was engaged in suppressing this revolt, and was unable to interfere with the king's efforts to regain Normandy, which were brought to a successful close in January, 1466, when Louis, having captured Rouen without a blow, formally resumed the government of the duchy.

In June, 1467, Philip of Burgundy died at Bruges, and was succeeded by his son Charles, surnamed the Bold. In 1468 Louis invaded lower Normandy and Brittany with two powerful armies, and compelled the Dukes of Berry and Brittany to sign a peace by which they agreed to abandon the

alliance of the Duke of Burgundy, and to pledge themselves to support the king against him. Charles the Bold was already at Peronne, where he was assembling an army with which he intended to march to the assistance of the dukes. In the midst of his preparations he was informed of the success of the king's measures against the French dukes, and at once demanded of Louis the execution in good faith of the treaty of Conflans, threatening instant war in case of his refusal. Had Louis answered his threat by marching against him at once, he might have defeated him; but such a straightforward course did not suit the tortuous policy of the king, and, in opposition to the earnest entreaties of his most trusted counsellors, he yielded to the advice of Cardinal de Balue, who was secretly in league with the Duke of Burgundy, and adopted the extraordinary resolution of seeking a personal interview with Charles. Having procured a written safe-conduct from the duke, Louis set out for Peronne with a small escort in October, 1468. He was received by the duke with great courtesy and was lodged in the Castle of Peronne. Negotiations were begun between the king and the duke, and were continued for several days, when news was received of a fresh and more formidable outbreak of the people of Liege, which it was charged had been brought about by the intrigues of the French king. Charles burst into a storm of fury, and ordered the gates of the castle to be closed and guarded. In his rage he determined to put Louis to death and make the Duke of Berry, Louis' younger brother, King of France in his place. He was dissuaded from this desperate measure chiefly by Philip de Comines, and was induced to grant the king his liberty on terms the most humiliating to Louis. Louis bound himself by a solemn oath on a relic which he regarded with the most superstitious veneration, to execute the treaty of Conflans in good faith, and to bestow the provinces of Champagne and Brie upon the Duke of Berry in place of Normandy. Charles also compelled him to accompany him in his march against the people of Liege, and witness the merciless punishment which the duke inflicted upon that city for a rebellion incited and supported by the king himself. Louis was then released, and, unwilling to return to Paris, went to Tours to lay his plans for avenging his humiliation.

He determined not to bestow Champagne

and Brie upon his brother, the Duke of Berry, as the possession of those territories would make the duke the neighbor as well as the ally of Charles the Bold, and he resolved to substitute the more distant Guienne or Aquitaine for them. His plan was betrayed to the Duke of Burgundy by Cardinal de Balue. His letters falling into the hands of the king, the cardinal was arrested and confined in an iron cage in the Castle of Loches. Louis then succeeded in inducing the Duke of Berry to accept the duchy of Aquitaine, and that prince broke off his alliance with Charles the Bold, and affronted him by refusing the hand of Mary, the daughter and heiress of Charles, 1469.

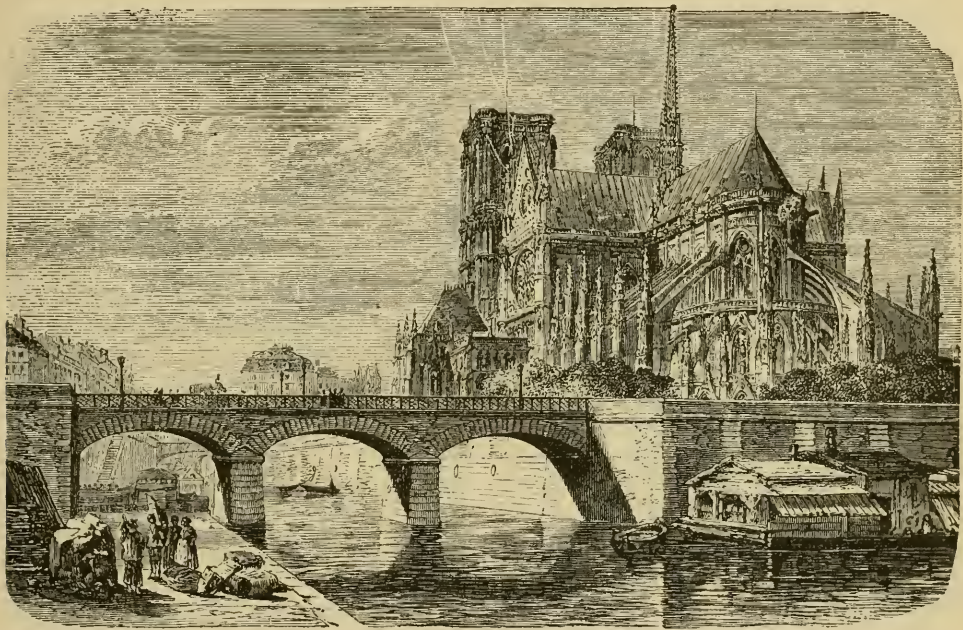
Both Louis and Charles now took part in the quarrels between the houses of York and Lancaster, which divided England. Louis supported the latter and Charles the former. The failure of the efforts to restore Henry VI. to the English throne greatly encouraged the Burgundians, and depressed Louis to a corresponding degree. The Duke of Guienne renewed his former alliance with Charles the Bold, and the Duke of Brittany took up arms to assist them. Louis sought to avert the danger with which this combination threatened him, by offering the most abject concessions to the confederates, but the sudden death of the Duke of Guienne, which was regarded as the king's work, removed the danger for the time.

Undismayed by the loss of his most important ally, Charles the Bold invaded France in June, 1472, and took and barbarously sacked the town of Nesle in Picardy. He was defeated in his efforts to capture Beauvais, towards the last of July, and was compelled to agree to an armistice of five months, which was subsequently prolonged for more than two years. Louis took advantage of this peace to avenge himself on the feudal nobles who had refused to submit to his will. The Duke of Alençon was stripped of his estates and imprisoned for life; the Count of Armagnac was slain in the presence of his wife; and the Duke of Lorraine died suddenly, poisoned, it was believed, by the agents of the French king.

In 1475 the Duke of Burgundy made an alliance with Edward IV. of England, and the Duke of Brittany, by which Edward agreed to revive the claims of his predecessors to the French crown. In the summer of that year King Edward lauded

at Calais with a splendid army of 30,000 men, but Charles, who had lost half his army in a foolish invasion of the territory of Cologne, was unable to take the field to assist him, and the other confederates proving lukewarm, the expedition failed. Louis at once opened negotiations with Edward, and a treaty was arranged for seven years. Louis agreed to pay the expenses incurred by the English king in the war, and betrothed his son, the Dauphin Charles, to Edward's eldest daughter, engaging to celebrate the marriage as soon as the parties attained the proper age. In accordance with the terms of this treaty, the Constable

price for his abandonment of the Constable St. Pol. This ambitious prince, already one of the richest and most powerful sovereigns of Europe, was not satisfied with his possessions, but had conceived the idea of restoring the old kingdom of Lotharingia by becoming master of the territory between France and Germany, between the North and the Mediterranean Seas. In pursuance of this design, he proceeded to take possession of the Duchy of Lorraine, driving out the young Duke René. As the price of the surrender of St. Pol, Louis permitted Charles to seize Lorraine without opposition from him, but at the same time



NOTRE DAME—FROM THE ARCHBISHOP'S BRIDGE.

St. Pol, who had been concerned in the war against his sovereign, was surrendered to Louis. His treason was so evident that he was promptly condemned by the Parliament of Paris, and was executed on the Place de Grève, on the 10th of December, 1475. This execution was the boldest blow Louis had yet struck at the great feudal aristocracy. The constable, apart from his vast possessions and great personal influence, was a member of the imperial family of Luxemburg, had married a sister of the Queen of France, and was connected with several of the royal houses of Europe.

Charles the Bold had exacted a large

he encouraged the Swiss to treat the duke with such insolence that after becoming master of Lorraine Charles turned his arms against them. Louis was well convinced that an encounter with these hardy mountaineers would prove the ruin of his rival, and he was not surprised to hear that Charles had sustained a terrible defeat at the hands of the Swiss in the battle of Granson, fought on the 2d of March, 1476. Three months later, the Swiss were again victorious over the Burgundians at Morat, near the Lake of Bienne. The flower of the Burgundian army fell upon this fatal field, and the subjects of Charles broke into open

disaffection, and reproached him bitterly for his rashness and ambition. Lorraine instantly rose against him, and the young Duke René re-entered Nancy in triumph. Charles, with the recklessness of despair, collected what was left of his army, and laid siege to Nancy. Duke René, with the aid of funds furnished by Louis of France, collected an army of 20,000 Swiss and Alsatians, and advanced to the relief of his capital. A decisive battle was fought before Nancy in January, 1477, and Charles was defeated and slain.

The death of the Duke of Burgundy without male heirs was a golden opportunity for Louis. He at once seized the Burgundian territories, and claiming the duchy of Burgundy as a lapsed fief, annexed it to the crown of France, from which it was not afterwards separated. He proclaimed himself the guardian of Mary of Burgundy, the daughter of Charles, who was his kinswoman, and pledged himself to watch faithfully over her interests. In spite of these professions, Louis incited the Flemings to rebel against the princess, and made such embarrassments for her, that after vainly appealing to him to carry out his promises to her in good faith, Mary, with the full approval of her subjects, secured to herself a powerful protector in the person of the Archduke Maximilian of Austria, on whom she bestowed her hand. The marriage was solemnized at Ghent on the 18th of August, 1477, much to the chagrin of Louis, who had hoped to marry the dauphin to the princess, or at least to cheat her out of her territories. This marriage laid the foundation of the future greatness of the house of Austria, and also began the jealous enmity between that power and France which caused so many wars in Europe in the next two centuries. Louis vented his rage on the Duke of Nemours, who had been concerned in the "League of the Public Good," and had been watched with a jealous eye ever since by the king. The duke had been arrested in August, 1476. After a cruel imprisonment of a year he was executed in August, 1477.

The death of the Duchess Mary of Burgundy, in 1482, enabled Louis to conclude a definite peace with her subjects, who since her death no longer regarded Maximilian as their sovereign. Louis kept the duchy of Burgundy and the county of Picardy. Marguerite, the daughter of Mary and Maximilian, was affianced to the

Dauphin Charles, and was sent to France to be educated. It was agreed that she should receive as a dowry the free county of Burgundy and the counties of Artois, Macon, and Auxerre, which, in the event of the failure of issue of the marriage, or the non-performance of the marriage, were to revert to her brother Philip, the son of Mary. Louis renounced his claims to French Flanders, and agreed never again to encourage insurrection among the Flemings. It will be remembered that by the treaty of Pequigny the dauphin had been betrothed to the Princess Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV. of England. Edward was furious at the insult to him conveyed by the treaty of Arras, and began preparations for the invasion of France. His sudden death in April, 1483, relieved Louis from this danger.

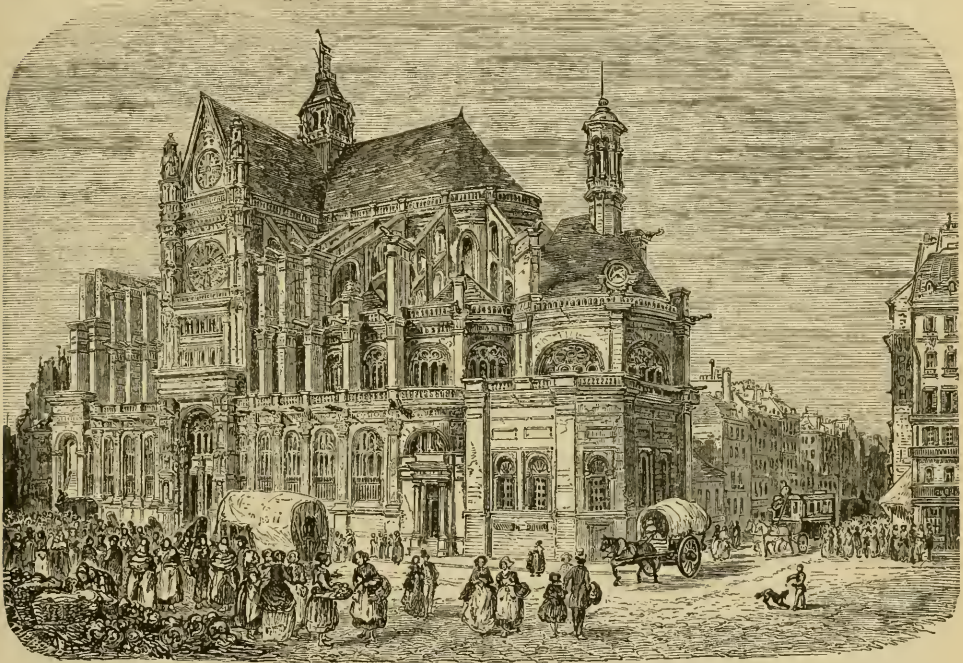
Louis was now at the height of his power, and had greatly enlarged the kingdom by means generally more or less creditable. Besides the territories wrested from the house of Burgundy at the death of Charles the Bold, he about this time obtained possession of the duchy of Anjou by the bequest of René, the last duke; and of the counties of Maine and Provence, a year later, by the same bequest. The duchy of Guienne and the counties of Alençon and Perche were also annexed to the possessions of the crown by less honorable means. The districts of Rousillon and Cerdagne, pawned by the King of Aragon, also became the property of the crown. Of the great feudal fiefs only Brittany remained. The boldness with which the king had struck at the nobles had awed them into submission, and his acknowledged skill and success in the management of diplomatic affairs had made Louis one of the most influential and powerful sovereigns of Europe.

In the midst of this prosperity the king was seized, in March, 1480, with a stroke of apoplexy. It was conquered, but was followed by a second attack in 1481. Quailing at the thought of death, Louis retired to the strong Castle of Plessis-les-Tours, and shut himself up there, with orders to the garrison to fire at every living thing that approached the walls. His only companions were his "gossip" Tristan l'Hermitte, who had been the unscrupulous instrument of his cruelties and crimes, and his physician Jacques Coittier, a brutal wretch, who employed his power over the king to wring from him large sums of

money. Louis piled the altars of the churches with costly offerings to the Virgin and the saints; but in vain. He died on the 30th of August, 1483, in the sixty-first year of his age.

Charles VIII., the eldest son of Louis, was a child of thirteen and of feeble health. The regency was disputed by the Duke of Orleans, the brother of Louis, and the Princess Anne, Louis' daughter, who subsequently became Duchess of Bourbon by the death of her husband's elder brother. The Duke of Orleans took up arms in 1488 to drive his niece from power, but was defeated and made prisoner, and the Duchess

self to his guardianship. These demands being refused, a French army was sent into Brittany, and Brest and other important towns were captured. This invasion aroused the alarm of England, Germany, and Spain, who regarded the growth of France with undisguised jealousy, and a league was formed between them for the preservation of the independence of Brittany. In the spring of 1489 an English and Spanish force landed in Brittany, but no decisive action took place. The English soon withdrew, and the young duchess was persuaded to contract a marriage by proxy, in the summer of 1490, with Max-



CHURCH OF SAINT EUSTACHE, PARIS.

of Bourbon remained supreme in the kingdom.

In September, 1488, the Duke of Brittany, who had been the soul of the conspiracy of the Duke of Orleans, died, leaving his estates to his elder daughter, Anne of Brittany, a child of thirteen. The Duchess of Bourbon, resolving to seize the opportunity of adding Brittany to the French crown, induced her brother Charles to require that Anne should not assume her title until the question of succession had been judicially decided between herself and the king, and that she should submit her-

self to his guardianship. Anne then assumed the title of Queen of the Romans, but to her disappointment received no assistance from Maximilian, who was engaged in a war with Hungary. In the meantime the country was reduced to great suffering. In the same year Charles VIII., who was twenty years old, assumed the government of the kingdom. His first step was to release the Duke of Orleans, to whom he was sincerely attached, and bring about a reconciliation of that prince with the Duchess of Bourbon. This won over to the king's side the Count of Dunois, who had

been the chief adviser of the Duchess of Brittany. Dunois had advised the alliance with Maximilian, and he now induced the Duchess of Brittany to end her difficulties by marrying the King of France. Reduced to despair, and left alone by Maximilian, she consented to this arrangement, and in December, 1491, the marriage was solemnized at the Chateau of Langeais in Touraine. In order to make the union of Brittany with France permanent, it was stipulated in the marriage contract that in the event of the death of Charles without issue, the queen should marry his successor, or if he were married, should wed the next heir of the crown. This marriage was a double affront to Maximilian. It deprived him of his bride, and his daughter Anne, who had been betrothed to Charles VIII. in her childhood, of a husband. That princess, and the counties of Artois, Franche Comté (free county of Burgundy), and Charolais, which had been ceded as her dowry, were restored to Maximilian. Maximilian was unable to avenge the insult by reason of the war with Hungary and troubles in Flanders, which tied his hands. He submitted with as good a grace as possible, and on the restoration of the Burgundian territories just named, made peace with France. The treaty was signed at Senlis in May, 1493. Peace was made with England soon after by payment of a large sum to Henry VII. to indemnify him for the expenses of the war in Brittany, and Spain was reconciled by the surrender by the French king of the territories of Rousillon and Cerdagne, which had been pawned to Louis XI. by John II. Charles restored them without asking the return of this loan.

Charles had sacrificed a great deal to procure peace, but he hoped to be more than repaid by a new expedition in which he wished to engage. Ludovico Sforza, who had dispossessed his nephew of the duchy of Milan, fearing that the King of Naples would seek to restore the deposed duke, who was his son-in-law, had invited Charles, who had inherited a shadowy claim to the Neapolitan throne from the house of Anjou, to attempt the conquest of that kingdom, and had promised to aid him with all his resources. Charles had accepted the invitation, and had purchased peace with England, Germany, and Spain at such a high price in order to be free to make the attempt. He pictured to him-

self a great career—the conquest of Italy, the expulsion of the Turks from Europe, and the rescue of Jerusalem from their hands—for in spite of his lack of bodily vigor, he was full of romantic and chivalrous ideas and aspirations. The Duchess of Bourbon and his most devoted and experienced ministers urged him to imitate the reserve of his father and avoid the dangerous mazes of Italian politics; but he held to his purpose, and collecting a splendid army at Lyons, entered Italy in September, 1494. The events of the Italian campaign have already been related, and need not be repeated here. We have seen the success which attended Charles's first efforts, and the natural reaction which drove him from Italy and forced him to return to his own country. After his failure in Italy Charles relapsed into his usual habits of intemperance and immorality, and neglected the government. In 1497 he made a feeble effort against the Duke of Milan and an attempt to capture Genoa. Both movements were unsuccessful, and were followed by a truce with the emperor and the other parties to the League of Venice. The king, now in feeble health, suddenly surprised and gratified his friends by abandoning his evil habits and applying himself with great diligence to the government of his kingdom, in which he produced many salutary reforms. He died of apoplexy in the midst of his labors, on the 7th of April, 1498.

Charles was succeeded by the Duke of Orleans, who ascended the throne as Louis XII. He was the grandson of the duke who had been assassinated by the Duke of Burgundy in 1407, and the great-grandson of King Charles V. He was in the prime of life, and soon rendered himself popular by his remarkable moderation and good judgment. His former rival, the Duchess of Bourbon, was distinguished by special marks of favor and regard, and those who had taken part against the Duke of Orleans in the struggle for the regency, during the minority of Charles VII., were assured that they need have no fear of losing their positions, as the King of France had forgotten the injuries of the Duke of Orleans.

The widowed Queen Anne had retired to Nantes soon after the death of Charles VIII., and had resumed the government of the duchy of Brittany. Louis XII. was already married to a wife whom Louis XI. had compelled him to espouse, and who,

though deformed in person, was a princess of blameless reputation and great merit. In order to carry out the treaty for the union of Brittany with the crown, it was necessary for Louis to divorce his wife and marry Queen Anne, as he had no children. A dispensation was obtained for this purpose from Pope Alexander VI., who got in return for his part in the iniquitous transaction the title of Duke of Valentinois, in Dauphiné, and a handsome pension for his son Cæsar Borgia. Louis was then married to Anne of Brittany. The queen, always jealous of her rights as Duchess of Brittany, retained the administration of the duchy in her own hands, and it was stipulated that in case of the failure of children by this marriage the duchy should revert to the descendants of its ancient house of princes, and that if two sons were born to Louis and Anne the second should be Duke of Brittany.

Louis now prepared to renew the war in Italy, which he imagined was bequeathed to him by his predecessor. He claimed not only the crown of Naples, but that of Milan also as the representative of his grandmother Valentine Visconti, daughter of the last duke of that family. He purchased the concurrence of the pope, and secured by skilful negotiations the neutrality of Germany, Spain, Venice, Florence, and Savoy. The French army entered Italy in August, 1499, the Duke of Milan fled to the Tyrol, and on the 14th of September the city of Milan was occupied by the French. So far not a shot had been fired.

The loss of the duchy of Milan and its reconquest by Louis XII., and the efforts of the French king to make himself master of Naples, the subsequent expulsion of the French by the Spaniards and the transfer of the Neapolitan kingdom to Ferdinand of Spain, which opened the sixteenth century, have been related. The loss of Naples was so acutely felt by Louis that it threw him into a dangerous illness, in which his life was despaired of. He subsequently became reconciled to Ferdinand, and in 1508 joined the League of Cambray against Venice. As Duke of Milan it was his true policy to sustain that republic as a barrier against the encroachments of Austria, but his eager desire to increase his Italian possessions at the cost of Venice blinded him to his real interests. The events of the war which began in 1509 have been related. Then followed the formation of the Holy

League, the story of which has been told. The death of Gaston de Foix, at Ravenna, sealed the fate of the French in Italy. They were soon driven from the peninsula, and Maximilian Sforza was made Duke of Milan. Genoa recovered her independence, and the Holy League was completely successful. Not even these reverses could cure Louis of his obstinate desire to obtain northern Italy, and in 1513, in alliance with the Venetians, he made another attempt to get possession of Milan. Maximilian was driven out of that city, which was occupied by the French. The French army was defeated by the Swiss, however, in the attempt to capture Novara, and was driven across the Alps with heavy loss, and Lombardy was once more lost to Louis.

The reverses of the French in Italy encouraged the enemies of Louis to attack him in his own kingdom. Ferdinand, always treacherous, began to threaten his southern frontier from Aragon; Henry VIII. landed at Calais with 20,000 men; and the Swiss invaded Franche Comté. In August, 1513, the English army laid siege to Terouenne. It was in this siege that the Emperor Maximilian I. served as a volunteer in the English army for one hundred crowns a day. Louis despatched a force to the relief of Terouenne, but it was defeated. Among the prisoners taken by the English was the famous Chevalier Bayard, one of the commanders of the army. This engagement is known as the "Battle of the Spurs," because the French cavalry, after a slight resistance, became panic-stricken and fled from the field at full speed. Terouenne soon surrendered, and its fall was followed by that of Tournay, but Henry VIII. quickly grew weary of the war, and returning to England, put an end to the campaign. In the same summer the English defeated and slew Louis' most constant ally, James IV. of Scotland, at Flodden. In 1514, Anne of Brittany, the wife of Louis, to whom he was deeply attached, died, and the king, now anxious for peace, concluded a treaty with all his enemies except the Swiss, who refused to treat with him. By the terms of this treaty he married the Princess Mary, the sister of Henry VIII. of England, on the 7th of August, 1514. He did not long survive this marriage, and died on the 1st of January, 1515. He was sincerely mourned by his people, for notwithstanding his costly and useless foreign wars, he was one of the best of French kings.

His government of his kingdom exhibited a wise commingling of justice, clemency, a careful economy, and a liberal and generous patronage of the arts and sciences. Agriculture and commerce experienced a marked improvement under him, "and the general increase of the wealth of the nation became apparent in the superior elegance and luxury of domestic architecture, furniture, and dress."

CHAPTER V.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF FRANCIS I. TO THE DEATH OF LOUIS XIII.

Francis I. Becomes King—Invades the Duchy of Milan—Battle of Marignano—Treaty with the Swiss—Francis Declines an Alliance with Venice—His Error—Charles VI. Becomes King of Spain—Treaty of Noyon—Charles Chosen Emperor—Alliance of Charles with Henry VIII. of England—The Field of the Cloth of Gold—War Between France and Spain—The French Driven from Milan—Revolt of the Duke of Bourbon—He Defeats the French in Italy—Battle of Pavia—Francis Taken Prisoner—His Captivity—Treaty of Madrid—Francis Evades the Treaty—Renewal of the War—Reverses of the French in Italy—The Peace of Cambrai—Francis Persecutes the French Protestants—War Breaks Out Between France and Spain—Charles Invades Provence, but is Forced to Retreat—Death of the Dauphin—Peace with the Emperor—Charles in France—Francis Becomes the Ally of the Sultan—Progress of the War—Treaty of Crespy—Persecutions of the French Protestants—Death of Francis—Henry II.—Influence of the Guises—The Scotch Alliance—Marriage of the Dauphin to Mary of Scotland—War Between France and Spain—Capture of Calais by the French—The Peace of Catteau Cambresis—Death of Henry—The Reformation in France—Reign of Francis II.—Conspiracy of Amboise—Charles IX.—Catharine de' Medici Regent—Struggle Between the Catholics and the Huguenots—The Civil War—Treaty of St. Germain—Marriage of Henry of Navarre to Marguerite of Valois—Massacre of St. Bartholomew—The Civil War Renewed—Siege of Rochelle—Death of Charles IX.—Henry III.—Successes of the Huguenots—The Catholic League—The Duke of Anjou in the Netherlands—His Death—Alliance Between Spain and the Duke of Guise—Wars Against the League—Murder of the Duke of Guise—Insurrection Against the King—His Reconciliation with Henry of Navarre—They Besiege Paris—Assassination of Henry III.—Henry IV. Succeeds to the French Crown—His Early Difficulties—Battle of Ivry—Its Results—Recantation of Henry—He is Acknowledged Throughout the Kingdom—His Wise Policy—The Edict of Nantes—France under Henry IV.—His Plan for the Readjustment of Europe—He is Assassinated—Louis XIII.—Marie de' Medici Regent—Retirement of Sully—Meeting of the States General—Marriage of the King—Rise of Richelieu—Death of Marshal D'Anere and his Wife—Richelieu Reconciles the King with his Mother—Death of De Luynes—Richelieu Made a Cardinal—Becomes Prime Minister—His Vigorous Policy—Takes La Rochelle—War in Italy—Treaty of Cherasco—The "Day of

Dupes"—Richelieu Foils the Conspiracies Against France—The Thirty Years' War—Richelieu Aids the German Protestants—Conspiracy of Cinq Mars—Death of Richelieu—Death of Louis XIII.

AS Louis XII. left no son, the crown passed to Francis of Angoulême, Duke of Valois, the husband of the Princess Claude, the eldest daughter of Louis XII. and Anne of Brittany. Francis I. was a young man of brilliant accomplishments. He was of noble stature, brave, full of spirits, a proficient in all the exercises of arms, and fond of pleasure and military glory. He was a favorite with all classes, and his accession was hailed with delight by all. Although arrived at man's estate, he was still thoroughly in subjection to his mother, Louise of Savoy, a woman of ability, but of immoral character and ungovernable temper. The king immediately created her Duchess of Angoulême, and she dictated the first appointments of the new sovereign, one of which was the bestowal of the constable's sword upon Charles, Duke of Bourbon.

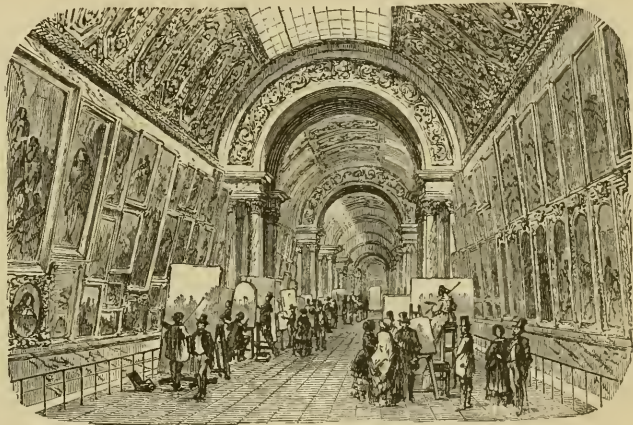
Francis I. began his reign with the determination to win back the Italian lands that had been lost by Louis XII. An army of 60,000 men under the Constable de Bourbon, the immortal Bayard, and other able commanders, was assembled, together with an immense train of artillery. The Swiss held the passes of Mont Cenis and Mont Genève, but Trivulzio and Lautrec, two of the French generals, with the assistance of the engineer Navarro, made a route over the Col d' Argentière, and this large army, with all its guns and baggage-train, was transported across the Alps by paths which had never been attempted save by the chamois hunters. By this brilliant movement, the French army turned the enemy's position, and entered Italy before it was believed that their march had begun. The Swiss fell back upon Novara, and the French advanced to Turin, and thence towards Milan. The Swiss having been reinforced by a body of 20,000 of their countrymen, attacked the French camp at Marignano, ten miles from Milan. The battle began at four o'clock in the afternoon, and raged with great fury until midnight. Both sides slept on their arms, and the conflict was renewed at daybreak. The result this time was decisive. The Swiss were badly beaten and forced to retreat with a loss of 10,000 men. The victors lost 6,000

men, among whom were some of the noblest of their kingdom. Francis, who had displayed the greatest gallantry in the battle, received knighthood on the field from the hands of its most illustrious ornament, the Chevalier Bayard. The victory settled the fate of the Milanese duchy, which passed into the hands of the French. The Swiss, deeply impressed with the vigor of Francis, responded readily to the efforts he made to secure their alliance. A treaty of peace and friendship and alliance was signed between the Swiss republic and the French king, and remained unbroken until the revolution of 1789.

Master of northern Italy, Francis might easily have added the kingdom of Naples to his conquests, but he conceived the foolish notion that the merchants and manufacturers of Venice were not fit to be the allies of a great king, and breaking with them, made a close alliance with the Medici of Florence and the pope, who succeeded in stripping him of all his advantages. At the solicitation of the pontiff, Francis consented to defer his attack upon Naples until the death of Ferdinand of Spain. Leaving the Constable de Bourbon to govern Milan, Francis then returned to France.

In January, 1516, Ferdinand of Spain died, and was succeeded by his grandson Charles of Austria. Charles' position at this time was both delicate and dangerous, and appreciating the importance of securing the good-will of the French king, he made a treaty of peace and alliance with him at Noyon in August of the same year. For more than two years the two sovereigns continued good friends, and profound peace reigned throughout western Europe. In 1519 the Emperor Maximilian died, and Francis and Charles became rivals for the imperial crown. The election resulted in favor of the latter, who became the Emperor Charles V. Charles soon won another triumph over Francis. Both sovereigns courted the friendship and alliance of Henry VIII. of England. Charles crossed over to Dover in 1520, without invitation, and in a series of confidential interviews succeeded

in inclining Henry favorably towards himself, and by artfully flattering the hopes of Henry's great minister, Cardinal Wolsey, who aspired to the papacy, completely won him over to his side. From this conference Henry and Wolsey proceeded to France to meet Francis by appointment. The interview between the French and English sovereigns is known as the "Field of the Cloth of Gold," from the magnificence of the display made by Francis in honor of his guest. The entertainment lasted for eighteen days, at the end of which time Henry returned home rather piqued than pleased at the splendors of Francis, which far surpassed his own. Before returning to England he had a second interview with the emperor at Gravelines, who sought to remove any fav-



THE LOUVRE GALLERY.

orable impression his rival might have made. He succeeded in winning from Henry a promise to conclude no engagement hostile to the imperial interests. The warm friendship of Francis and Charles had grown weak since the election of the latter to the imperial dignity. Francis resented the good fortune of his rival, and was reasonably jealous of the concentration of so much power in the hands of his enterprising neighbor. Both he and Charles were convinced that their interests would soon array them against each other.

The open rupture came about in 1521. In that year a French army was sent across the Pyrenees to aid Henry d'Albert to recover the kingdom of Navarre, which had been wrested from him by Ferdinand of Spain. In the same year a secret treaty was negotiated between the pope and the

emperor for the expulsion of the French from Italy. In October, 1521, their combined forces took the field, and by the spring of the next year the French were once more expelled from the Milanese duchy. Influenced by Wolsey, Henry VIII. of England now openly embraced the cause of the emperor, and declared war against France in May, 1522.

Francis prepared to recover his lost ground in Italy, but as he was about to set out for that country an event occurred which was more injurious to him in its consequences than all the attacks of his enemies. The Constable de Bourbon, the most powerful subject of the crown, had gained his wealth by his marriage with Susanna, the heiress of the elder branch of the house of Bourbon. On the death of his wife, Louise of Savoy, the mother of the king, attracted by his great reputation and brilliant qualities, offered him her hand in marriage. Bourbon refused it with insolent disdain, and the duchess, furious at the insult, resolved to destroy him. She was the daughter of the sister of the last Duke of Bourbon, and as such claimed to be his nearest heir, and demanded of the constable the surrender of the estates brought him by his wife. She succeeded in drawing the king into the scheme, and a royal decree was issued, depriving the constable of his possessions and bringing him to the verge of ruin. In this extremity Bourbon suddenly executed a scheme he had meditated for a long time in secret. He renounced his allegiance to Francis, abandoned his service, and went over to the Emperor Charles. An arrangement was effected by which Bourbon was given the command of an army destined to invade France from the German frontier, while at the same moment another army was to enter that kingdom from Spain. The King of England agreed to make a descent upon Normandy and Picardy, and the emperor promised to Bourbon the hand of his sister Eleanora, and the independent sovereignty of a kingdom to be erected out of Dauphiné and Provence. The danger which thus threatened his kingdom made it necessary for Francis to remain in France, but unwilling to lose the opportunity of invading Italy, he sent an army over the Alps under the Admiral Bonnivet, an incompetent favorite, whose failure has been related.

In the summer of 1524 Bourbon invaded Provence with a strong army, and after

taking Toulon, Frejus, and Aix, laid siege to Marseilles. The city was stubbornly defended, and the approach of the king with a large force compelled the duke to raise the siege and retreat into Italy. Francis, instead of following the enemy along the coast, crossed the Alps by forced marches, entered Lombardy, and seized Milan. Instead of following up his advantages, he turned aside to besiege Pavia, and was delayed before that city for three months. This gave Bourbon time to raise a new army in Germany and join the Spanish commanders De Lannoy and Pescara, at Lodi. On the 24th of February, 1525, the imperial army, thus strengthened, attacked the French at Pavia, inflicting upon them a total defeat and a loss of 8,000 men, in which were included all their best generals. Francis was made prisoner, and was conveyed to the Castle of Pizzighitton, near Milan, from which he sent news of his captivity to his mother.

The news of the defeat at Pavia and the captivity of the king created a feeling of dismay in France. Louise of Savoy was regent, and acted in this emergency with resolution and promptness. She at once opened negotiations with the pope, the King of England, the Venetians, the Florentines, and even with the Turkish sultan. The great power and undisguised ambition of Charles had alarmed all the European states, and Louise had no difficulty in concluding a treaty of neutrality and defensive alliance with Henry of England, in August, 1525. Henry stipulated among other things that the freedom of the King of France should never be purchased by the cession of any of his territory, and bound himself to use every effort to secure the release of that monarch. A little later a secret league was formed between the pope, England, Venice, and Francesco Sforza, for the expulsion of the Spaniards from Italy.

In the meantime Francis was conveyed to Madrid, and imprisoned in the gloomy tower of the Alcazar. The emperor refused to see him, and the king fell ill. At length, in January, 1526, worn out with his confinement, Francis signed, under a secret protest, which permitted him to violate it at pleasure, the treaty of Madrid. By this instrument he agreed to cede Burgundy, Flanders, and Artois to the emperor, renounced all claim to Naples and Milan, restored to the Duke of Bourbon all his for-



DEATH OF THE CHEVALIER BAYARD.

feited domains, and promised to attend the emperor with a fleet and army when he went to be crowned at Rome, or marched against the Turks. The two sons of Francis were delivered to Charles as hostages for the fulfilment of this treaty, and Francis bound himself to return to his captivity in case of his failure to deliver up Burgundy within four months.

Immediately upon his return home, Francis set to work to evade the execution of these humiliating conditions, which he declared were not binding upon him because of being wrung from him while a

demand that Francis should return to his captivity, but the king paid no heed to this demand, and was soon absolved by the pope from his engagements with the emperor. Francis then gave himself energetically to advancing the affairs of the Holy League. The fate of this combination, and the capture and plunder of Rome by the Spanish army under the Duke of Bourbon, have been related. In 1528 Francis despatched an army to conquer Naples, but, as has been stated, he deprived himself of the alliance of the Genoese by his treatment of them. They went over to the side of the

emperor, and the French army, unsuccessful in its operations, and decimated by a terrible epidemic, was obliged to abandon the siege of Naples, and retreat to Aversa, where the remnant soon surrendered to the imperial forces. Out of 30,000 men who had marched into the Neapolitan kingdom, scarcely 5,000 remained to take part in this surrender. Genoa also revolted against the French, under the leadership of Doria, and remained independent of France until the wars of the Great Revolution. Both sides were now tired of the war. Francis, disheartened by his losses and the heavy cost of the struggle, was willing to abandon his pretensions to Italy, which he saw he could not maintain, and Charles, uneasy at the rapid growth of Lutheranism in Germany, desired peace with France in order to give his attention to that danger. A treaty of



MUSEUM OF ARTILLERY, PARIS.

prisoner. When the Viceroy Lannoy urged him to fulfil his engagement respecting Burgundy, he summoned at Cognac a meeting of deputies from that duchy, who, in the presence of the Spanish envoys, declared that the king had no right to alienate the duchy from the crown of France, as his coronation oath forbade him to do so, and that they would never consent to such a step. The king declared his readiness to execute the other stipulations of the treaty, and in place of Burgundy offered the emperor an indemnity of two millions of crowns. Charles, finding himself duped,

peace was arranged and signed at Cambray in July, 1529. All the conditions of the treaty of Madrid, save the cession of Burgundy, were embraced within it. In lieu of that duchy the emperor accepted an indemnity of two millions of crowns offered by Francis, who also bound himself not to engage in any enterprise in Italy or elsewhere hostile to the emperor, and to assist him when called upon with a fleet and a subsidy of 200,000 crowns. The king also agreed to marry Eleanora, queen dowager of Portugal, the sister of Charles. This marriage took place in July, 1530, and the

sons of Francis, who had been detained as hostages at Madrid, were released. The peace of Cambray was a severe humiliation to Francis. He not only put an end by it to all hope of French dominion in Italy, but meanly sacrificed his allies to the necessity of obtaining peace.

During the interval of peace which followed this treaty, Francis inflicted another indelible stain upon his character by persecuting those of his subjects who had embraced the opinions of the reformers. They had grown very strong in France, and the king's sister Marguerite, afterwards Queen of Navarre, and some of the noblest persons in the kingdom, were among their number. Francis was naturally inclined to toleration, but his chief minister, Cardinal Duprat, led him to adopt a course opposed to his inclination. A severe persecution was begun, and a number of victims were cruelly burned to death in the capital and in the provinces. In a little while, however, Francis, wishing to strengthen himself against the emperor by cultivating the friendship of the Lutheran princes of Germany, discontinued the persecution, and made overtures of amity towards them. The savage cruelties which had marked his persecution of the reformed filled the German brethren with horror, and the Lutheran princes turned a deaf ear to the persuasions of the French king and made their peace with the emperor. Francis endeavored still, by showing them increased attention and restoring to liberty those who had been imprisoned for holding the reformed opinions, to win them over to his side, but they had no faith in him, and thus his short-sighted cruelty accomplished its legitimate results. In order to conciliate the pope, Francis negotiated a marriage between his second son, Henry, Duke of Orleans, and Catharine de' Medici, daughter of the late Duke of Urbino, a relative of Pope Clement. The marriage was solemnized by the pope in person at Marseilles on the 28th of October, 1533. The next year Clement died, and his successor was friendly to the emperor.

In 1533 Charles deeply offended King Francis by seizing and beheading without trial the confidential agent of the latter at the court of Milan. Francis, watching his opportunity to renew the war, advanced, in 1535, a baseless claim to the duchy of Savoy, and rapidly overran both Savoy and Piedmont with his troops. The emperor at once took the field against him, and invaded

Provence at the head of 50,000 men. Francis retired before him, removing the inhabitants, burning the towns, and laying waste the country. He thus inflicted immense suffering upon his own people, but he defeated the invasion of the emperor without striking a blow. Charles found it impossible to subsist his troops and animals, and though his march was unimpeded, famine and disease swept away his army. He attempted to lay siege to Arles and Marseilles, but was driven off with ease, and hearing of the growing strength of the French army, he retreated into Italy, having lost about half of his forces and gained nothing. During this campaign the dauphin, the eldest son of Francis, died on the 10th of August. The Duke of Orleans succeeded his brother as dauphin and heir to the crown. The war went on without accomplishing anything until the summer of 1538, when a truce of ten years was arranged by the pope, each sovereign being left in possession of what he held at the time. The Milanese duchy remained with the emperor, and Francis kept Savoy and the greater part of Piedmont. This truce was followed by a personal interview of the sovereigns, at which it seemed that their old cordiality had been revived.

Francis now applied himself to the task of conciliating the emperor, and broke off his relations with Henry VIII. and the sultan, and became once more the enemy and persecutor of the Protestants. In 1539 Ghent rebelled against the emperor and appealed to Francis for support, promising in return to restore the sovereignty of France in that city and in the other cities of Flanders. Francis, who was anxious to lay the emperor under an obligation to him, not only refused the proposition, but informed Charles of it and offered him a safe passage through France to the Netherlands. Charles at once accepted the offer, and was magnificently entertained by Francis during his progress through France. The king was urged by several of his confidential advisers to detain the emperor now that he had him in his power, until he consented to comply with all his demands; but Francis refused to break his word, and accompanied his guest to the frontier, where he arrived in February, 1540. Francis had demanded of him the investiture of Milan, and Charles had delayed his answer. Upon reaching Flanders, he denied having given Francis any encouragement to hope for a favorable

answer, and a few months later made his son Philip Duke of Milan. Francis, angry at this refusal, renewed his negotiations with the Lutherans, and made an alliance with the Sultan Solymau, whose fleet joined that of France at Marseilles in May, 1543. The allies then proceeded to Nice, which was sacked and burned. The French army under the Count d'Enghien defeated the imperialists at Cerisolles in Savoy, on the 14th of April, 1544.

Francis was in no condition to profit by these advantages, however, for Charles had succeeded in drawing Henry VIII. into an alliance with him. A treaty was signed by the emperor and Henry in February, 1543, by which they agreed to attempt the conquest of France, and if successful to divide the kingdom between them. In July, 1544, Henry landed at Calais with 30,000 men, and laid siege to Boulogne and Montreuil; and Charles advanced into Champagne and laid siege to St. Dizier-sur-Marne, which detained him in front of it for six weeks by its gallant resistance, and gave Francis time to collect a large army, with which he covered the approaches to Paris. The emperor deeming it imprudent to risk a battle with this force halted at Compiègne, and opened negotiations with the French king, and a treaty of peace was arranged between them on the 18th of September of that year. Each surrendered the territory he had taken since the truce of Nice. Francis again renounced his claims to Naples and Flanders, and agreed to surrender Savoy on condition of the investiture of his third son, the Duke of Orleans, with the duchy of Milan, and his marriage to a daughter of the emperor or of the Archduke Ferdinand. The death of the duke within a year prevented the execution of the articles concerning Savoy and Milan. Henry VIII. refused to take part in this treaty, and the war between England and France went on in a desultory manner until June, 1546, when peace was signed between them.

One of the articles of the treaty of Crespy bound Francis and Charles to make strenuous and combined efforts for the propagation of the doctrines of the church. Francis undertook to carry out his part of the agreement by seeking to exterminate the Vaudois of Provence. Three towns and twenty-two hamlets were totally destroyed, 3,000 people, many of whom were women and children, were butchered in cold blood, and 700 others were condemned to the gal-

leys for life. On the 31st of March, 1547, Francis died of a painful malady, from which he had long suffered, and which was the result of his dissolute life.

With all his faults, and they were many and deep, Francis must be considered one of the greatest of the sovereigns of France. His besetting sin lay in allowing himself to be ruled by his mother and his mistresses, to whose folly the most of his reverses were due. His sagacity, however, clearly discerned the danger with which the ambition of the house of Austria threatened the independence of his country, and not only of France, but of all Europe. For thirty years he struggled, single-handed, against the mightiest monarchy since the days of Charlemagne, and left his kingdom not only unimpaired, but increased in territorial dimensions. He was a liberal and intelligent friend of the great revival of learning and the arts which marks his era, and many of the noblest monuments of France date from his reign.

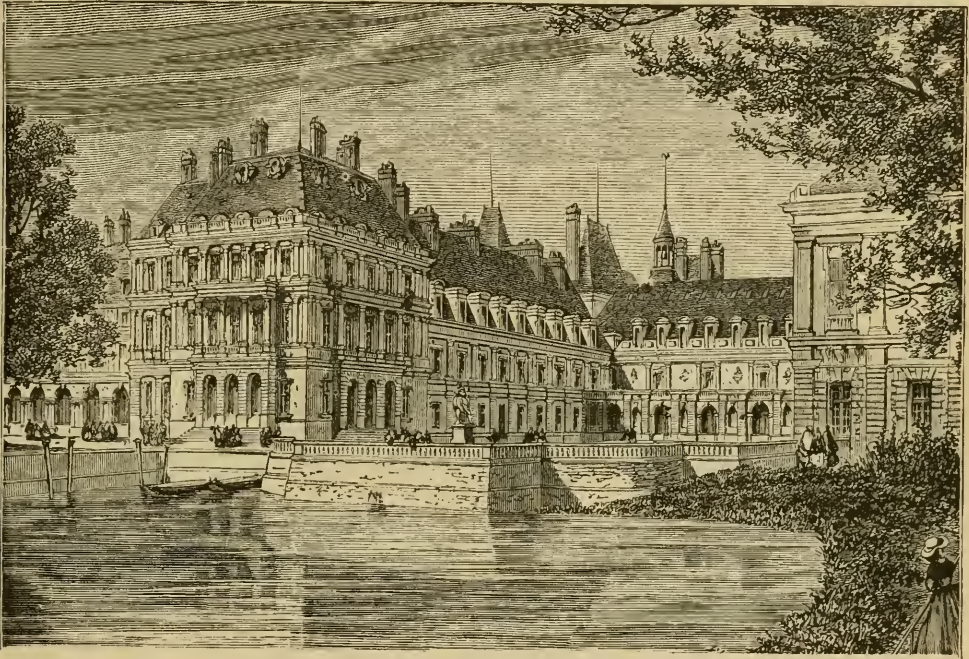
Henry II. succeeded his father in his twenty-ninth year. On his death-bed Francis had advised his son not to employ Montmorency in any post of authority, and to curb with a strong hand the rising power and ambition of the Guises. Henry began his reign by dismissing all his father's ministers, recalling the Constable Montmorency to court, and bestowing the highest honors upon the Guises.

The family of Guise was a younger branch of the sovereign house of Lorraine, which owed allegiance only to the empire. Its founder was Claude, the first Duke of Guise, who had married a French princess of the house of Bourbon. His oldest daughter Mary married James V. of Scotland, and after the death of her husband, and during the long minority of her daughter, Mary, "Queen of Scots," exercised a controlling influence upon the government of that country in favor of France. Of the seven sons of Duke Claude, the eldest, Francis, succeeded him as Duke of Guise; the second became Archbishop of Rheims and afterwards Cardinal of Lorraine. The duke was an able general, and a bold and sagacious politician; the cardinal was shrewd, learned, eloquent, and a master of dissimulation. Both of the brothers held important offices in the council of Henry II. The policy of the Guises was selfish, but it was bold and skilful, and pointed plainly to a renewal of the war with the

Emperor Charles. In the interval of peace they exerted themselves to strengthen the alliance with Scotland, and secured the betrothal of their niece Mary, the young queen of that kingdom, to the Dauphin Francis. Mary had been betrothed to Edward VI. of England, but the queen dowager and the regent Arran broke this engagement, and sent the young queen to France under the protection of a French fleet, there to be educated, and to reside until her marriage. The refusal to complete the engagement with Edward VI. brought on a war between England and

by the Duke of Guise, and Charles was obliged to abandon his attempt after a siege of three months, A. D. 1553. In 1555 and 1556 the Emperor Charles resigned his various crowns to his son and brother, as has been related, and withdrew from political life.

Philip II., King of Spain and the Indies and of the Two Sicilies, inherited his father's quarrel with France. The Duke of Guise, who was a descendant of René of Anjou, cherished the hope of winning the Neapolitan crown, and in 1556 was sent into Italy to attack the kingdom of Naples. He was



PALACE OF FONTAINEBLEAU—THE FOUNTAIN COURT.

Scotland, with France as the ally of the latter. The French recaptured Boulogne, which had been taken from them by Henry VIII., and peace was made between all parties in 1550.

Henry II. now took part in the struggle between the Elector Maurice of Saxony and the emperor. We have already related this incident. Henry seized the three bishops of Metz, Toul, and Verdun. After the peace of Passau between Maurice and Charles, the emperor turned upon Henry to punish him for his interference in his affairs. Charles laid siege to Metz with an army of 60,000 men. The city was defended

opposed by the Spanish viceroy, the Duke of Alva, who prevented him from accomplishing anything, and compelled him to retreat towards Rome. Before he had fairly recovered from the fatigues of his campaign, he was summoned home to meet a new danger there.

The Spanish army, commanded by Emmanuel Filibert, Duke of Savoy, and reinforced by an English force under the Earl of Pembroke, marched from the Netherlands into France, and laid siege to St. Quentin, which was defended by a weak garrison under the Admiral de Coligni. The Constable de Montmorency attempted

to relieve it with the main army, and was defeated by the superior force of the Spaniards on the 10th of August and made prisoner. The way to Paris was open, and the Duke of Savoy was anxious to press forward and seize the city. Philip ordered him to wait until he had taken St. Quentin, which was captured seventeen days later. Philip then seized several other places, but made no effort to follow up his victory. This delay enabled the Duke of Guise, who had arrived from Italy, to collect a new army at Compiègne. He acted with vigor and ability, and soon placed matters on a better footing. Detaching one division of his army to make a feint towards Luxemburg, he marched rapidly to Calais and captured that city on the 8th of January, 1558. Guines was taken on the 21st, and thus in three weeks England was stripped of the last vestiges of her ancient dominion in France. This success made Guise the most popular man in France. On the 8th of April, 1558, his niece, the young Queen of Scotland, was married to the dauphin, and it was stipulated by a secret article of the marriage treaty that the crowns of France and Scotland should be forever united. This marriage made Guise the most powerful as well as the most popular prince in the kingdom. Towards the close of the year negotiations for peace were begun. England demanded the restitution of Calais, and was supported by Spain. The death of Queen Mary of England in November, 1558, interrupted the negotiations, but they were resumed at Cateau Cambresis, early in 1559, and Philip, seeing that his influence was at an end in England, no longer supported the demand for Calais. Peace was signed on the 2d of April, 1559. France kept Calais, Guines, Metz, Toul and Verdun, but abandoned all of Savoy and Piedmont, except Turin and four other fortresses, and restored her conquests in Italy and the Low Countries. By this treaty France surrendered 189 towns and fortresses in various parts of Europe. The terms were considered hard for France. Several important marriages were arranged by the treaty. Henry's daughter Elizabeth was united to Philip of Spain, and the Duke of Savoy married the Princess Marguerite, Henry's sister. During the rejoicings at Paris which hailed the peace, Henry took part in a tournament, and was mortally wounded by accident in an encounter with Montgomery, the captain of

his Scotch guards. He died eleven days later, on the 10th of July, 1559.

During Henry's reign the government was utterly corrupt. The king's mistress, Diana of Poitiers, sold the offices of the state in the most shameless manner. The queen, Catharine de' Medici, was neglected and without authority during the whole reign.

The Reformation made extraordinary progress in France during this reign, in the last year of which the Huguenots, as the reformed were called, are said to have had 2,000 places of worship in the kingdom, attended by congregations numbering over 400,000. The acknowledged chief of this party was the first prince of the blood, Antoine de Bourbon, who had become King of Navarre by his marriage with Jeanne d'Albret, the heiress of that crown. The Prince of Condé, the Admiral de Coligny, his brother, the Sire d'Andelot, and other great nobles, were among the Huguenot leaders. The growing strength of this party filled the court with alarm. At the peace of Cateau Cambresis a secret article was negotiated pledging the Kings of France and Spain to exterminate heresy within their dominions. The pope issued a bull, with the approval of Henry, setting up a special tribunal in France, composed of three prelates, for the trial of offences against religion; but the parliaments of Paris and the provinces and the courts of justice opposed a sturdy resistance to this measure. Henry was very angry at this determined opposition to his will, and prepared to crush it with a strong hand. The Protestants, appreciating their danger, organized for their defence, and appealed for aid to their brethren in Germany. At this juncture Henry died.

Francis II., the eldest of Henry's seven children, was scarcely sixteen years old when he succeeded to the throne. He was a weak, sickly youth, and was completely under the influence of his wife, Mary of Scotland, who in her turn was ruled by her uncles, the Guises, who were thus the real masters of France. The queen mother, Catharine de' Medici, allied herself with the Guises, and patiently waited until a favorable moment should enable her to overthrow them and take their place. The new government began by a relentless persecution of the Huguenots, and thus aroused a spirit of resistance. The Guises were regarded as foreigners, and were held responsible for

the cruelties inflicted upon the Protestants. The arrogant course of these princes made them many enemies even among the Catholics, and the party opposed to them was to a great extent a national party. They demanded a meeting of the states general, and being refused by the government, organized the conspiracy of Amboise, for the purpose of driving the Guises from power. The plot was betrayed, and the Guises took a bloody vengeance upon their enemies. Twelve hundred persons are said to have been executed for complicity in the conspiracy.

The cruelties perpetrated by the Guises produced a reaction in favor of the Prot-

after all. Those princes bent all their energies to destroy the King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé, the leaders of the movement against them, and having procured evidence implicating them in the conspiracy of Amboise, obtained their arrest and the sentence of Condé. The sudden death of Francis II., which took place on the 5th of December, 1560, alone saved the Bourbon princes from death.

Charles IX., a child of less than ten years, succeeded his brother on the throne, and Catharine de' Medici became regent without opposition. The King of Navarre having resigned his claims to the regency, Catharine appointed him lieutenant-general



PALACE OF THE TUILERIES.

estants, and so far from destroying, really strengthened that sect. The queen mother now advocated milder counsels, and procured the appointment of Michel de l'Hopital as chancellor. His first act was to secure the publication of the Edict of Romorantin, which committed the punishment of offences against religion exclusively to the bishops. This was really a gain for the reformers, as it prevented the establishment of the Inquisition in France. The king also agreed to summon the states general, which had not met for seventy-six years. The Huguenots were greatly elated by these concessions, and began to entertain hopes of overthrowing the Guises

of the kingdom, and Condé was transferred from his prison to a seat at the council board. The policy of Catharine was to hold the balance of power evenly between the two parties, and to strengthen her own power by allowing neither to predominate. On the 13th of December, 1560, the states general met at Orleans, and in a session of less than two months made some salutary reforms in the government and put a stop to the religious persecutions. The Catholics bitterly resisted these concessions, and the Huguenots, elated by their success, were led into some serious errors. Wherever they found themselves in the majority they took forcible possession of the churches,

and profaned the altars and destroyed the images. The Catholic leaders made good use of these outrages to excite the alarm of their party, and serious disturbances broke out in various parts of the country. As a means of restoring order, the queen mother, supported by Condé, the Châtillons, and the chancellor, granted complete religious tolerance throughout the kingdom, but required the Huguenots to restore the religious property they had seized, and to desist from preaching against the Catholic faith.

The gulf between the two parties was too deep to be filled up so easily. The Catholic leaders, and especially the Guises, whose zeal for their religion was stimulated by their ambition, began to prepare for war. Nothing would satisfy them but the complete submission of the other party. The Duke of Guise, who had retired into Lorraine, and was collecting troops, was alarmed by the concessions to the Huguenots, and resolved to return to Paris, where his presence was impatiently awaited by his party. He set out at the head of 200 horsemen, and on the way halted at the village of Vassy, in Champagne, one of the possessions of his house. The Huguenots of the district were assembled for religious worship in a large barn at the time, and the duke marched his men to the place and attempted to break up the meeting. A *melée* ensued. The Huguenots were unarmed, and endeavored to close the doors of the building. These were broken open by Guise's men, who rushed in. They were received with a volley of stones, one of which struck the duke on the cheek. He at once ordered his men to exterminate the heretics, and was literally obeyed. Over 250 of the congregation were killed or wounded, and all would have shared this fate had not the Duchess of Guise implored her husband to put a stop to the massacre. Guise then proceeded to Paris, where he was greeted with enthusiasm as the defender of the faith. The queen mother, foreseeing the consequences of the massacre at Vassy, and being unwilling to become again subject to the power of the Guises, attempted to escape with the king from Paris, but was overtaken by Guise with an armed force at Fontainebleau and compelled to return with the king to the Louvre. From this time until his death Guise was master of France.

The massacre at Vassy was followed by similar scenes in other parts of France.

At Tours the dead were so numerous that the banks of the Loire were covered with them for some distance. The Huguenots, though taken by surprise, flew to arms, and a bloody civil war ensued, in which the Duke of Guise was killed. He was assassinated while besieging Orleans in 1563. With his last breath Guise advised the queen mother to make peace with the Huguenots. In March, 1563, a hollow peace was patched up at Amboise, but no one believed it would be effectual. The Catholic party charged the Admiral de Coligny, one of the principal leaders of the Huguenots, with having caused the death of the Duke of Guise, but Coligny denied the accusation.

Charles having now entered upon his fourteenth year, was declared to have attained his majority, and nominally assumed the government. He relinquished all real power to his mother, however. He spent the whole of 1564 in visiting the different parts of the kingdom with her. At Bayonne, Catharine received a visit from her daughter, the Queen of Spain, who was attended by the Duke of Alva, Philip's confidential minister. Many secret conferences were held between Catharine and the duke, the object of which was beyond a doubt to concert measures for the speedy extermination of heresy in France and the Netherlands. How much of the fearful course which was afterwards carried out in France was agreed upon here, is unknown.

These conferences were known to the Huguenot leaders, and when Alva began his dreadful persecution of the reformers of the Netherlands, they believed that their own doom had been determined upon by the court, and was at hand. They at once made an attempt to seize the king's person, but were defeated by the Catholic army under the Constable de Montmorency at St. Denis, in November, 1567. The constable was killed in this battle. No successor was appointed to his office, but, by naming her favorite son, the Duke of Anjou, lieutenant-general of the kingdom, which post had been made vacant by the death of the King of Navarre in 1562, Catharine retained the control of the royal armies in her own hands. The war went on through the year. In 1568 a treaty was made, but in 1569 hostilities broke out more fiercely than ever. On the 13th of March the Huguenots were defeated at Jarnac, and the Prince of Condé was

wounded and taken prisoner, and assassinated after his surrender. The death of this able leader was a severe blow to the Huguenots. They promptly recognized Henry, the young King of Navarre, as their leader, but the direction of the war was retained by the veteran Admiral Coligny. In October of the same year the Huguenots suffered another and a severer reverse at Moncontour, but in 1570 their operations were generally successful, and the Catholics in their turn were depressed. Catharine was now sick of the war, and in August, 1570, a treaty was signed at St. Germain, by which the Huguenots were granted the free exercise of their religion throughout the kingdom, except in Paris, and were placed on an equality with Catholics with respect to public offices and all professions. As a guarantee for the execution of these conditions the cities of La Rochelle, Cognac, Montauban, and La Charité, were placed in the hands of the Huguenots to be garrisoned by their troops. These terms were not granted willingly by Catharine. They were wrung from her by the successes of the Huguenots. The Catholic party was bitterly hostile to the treaty, and the King of Spain and the pope remonstrated strongly against it as humiliating to the church.

Catharine simply wanted a respite from war to enable her to re-establish the authority of the crown, which had been seriously weakened by the long strife. There is good reason to believe that she meant sooner or later to strike a crushing blow at the Huguenots which she hoped would utterly destroy them. For the present, however, she carried out the terms of the treaty in good faith, and so much favor was shown the Huguenots by the king and his mother that the pope was ready to regard her as an apostate from the faith. The treaty of 1570 gave France a respite of nearly two years, and the conduct of the court lulled the Huguenots into a false sense of security. Catharine now proposed that, in order to cement the new bonds between the religious parties in the kingdom, her daughter, Marguerite de Valois, should wed Henry of Bearn, the young King of Navarre, the recognized leader of the Huguenot party. The mother of Henry had reared her son in the reformed faith, and being a woman of good sense, received the proposal of this alliance with distrust. The Admiral de Coligny and some of the other Huguenot leaders, however, won her over to it, for,

though they had not much faith in Catharine's professed friendship for their party, they believed that the proposed marriage might result in benefit to the country. The consent of all parties being obtained, there remained an obstacle in the way. Henry was a Protestant, Marguerite a Catholic. Between such a pair no priest of the Roman church could celebrate a marriage without a special dispensation from the pope. Pius V. was applied to for such a dispensation, but refused it. Charles IX., who was very anxious for the match, declared that if the pope would not consent to the marriage, he would have his sister married in "open conventicle," by a Huguenot preacher. A dispensation was obtained. Vauvilliers, in his "*Histoire de Jeanne D'Albret*," says that Catharine forged it. The marriage was unpopular, however, and the Catholic party fomented the discontent occasioned by it to the highest pitch.

In the meantime Coligny had conquered his feeling of distrust and gone to court. The king was at Blois and received him with marked favor. The noble character of the admiral won the genuine regard of Charles, who loaded him with honors and favors. A few months later the Queen of Navarre followed the admiral's example. Catharine was alarmed by the influence of Coligny over the king, and resolved upon his speedy destruction. She became the cordial ally of the Guises, who exerted themselves to inflame the hatred of the Catholics against the Huguenots. The principal men of the Huguenot party were invited to Paris to take part in the wedding festivities, and also in order that they might be within reach of the vengeance of Catharine and her fellow conspirators. They were received courteously and were handsomely entertained by the court. On the 9th of July, 1572, the Queen of Navarre died suddenly. It was believed that she was poisoned by order of the queen mother. The historian Davila, himself a Catholic, says that this was the cause of her death, and that she was exempted from the general massacre because of her royal condition. This event was taken by many Huguenots as a warning, and they escaped from Paris. Coligny was urged by his friends to quit the capital before it was too late, but he refused to doubt the royal word.

Early in the summer the king sent a force into Flanders to assist the patriots of

that country against Philip of Spain. The expedition won some successes at first, but having met with a reverse, it became necessary to decide upon the future course of France. Coligny and his party were for an immediate declaration of war against Spain; Catharine and the Guises were for an opposite policy. This made the queen mother all the more determined to carry out her plan. Her chief confidants in her atrocious plot were her son, the Duke of Anjou, afterwards Henry III., the Duke of Guise, Marshal de Tavannes, the Count de Retz, and the Duke of Nevers. They deliberately planned and carried out the diabolical events which now followed. The priests of the Catholic Church lent a cordial aid to the plot in preparing their followers for the part they were to play in its execution.

On the 18th of August, 1572, Henry of Navarre and Marguerite of Valois were married by the Cardinal de Bourbon. The marriage greatly exasperated the Catholic party, and ominous rumors began to pervade the capital. The court was given up to revelry and feasting, but Catharine and her confederates were busy preparing for the execution of their plot. Orders were sent to the governor of Lyons not to let the messenger who bore the tidings of the marriage proceed on his way to Rome until after the 24th of August. On the 22d of August the conspirators struck their first blow. An assassin hired by the Duke of Guise fired upon Coligny as he was returning from the court to his lodgings, and inflicted a severe wound upon him. Charles IX. visited the wounded admiral and expressed his firm determination to bring his assailants to justice. The admiral warned the king of the pernicious effects of Catharine's misgovernment, implored him to deprive her of power, and offered to support him in such a course with the whole force of the Huguenots. Charles went away much affected by the admiral's words. The conspirators were in great alarm. If the king remained faithful to Coligny they were lost. They had gone too far to retreat. The masses behind them, whose fanaticism they had inflamed to its highest pitch, could not be restrained from violence, and they resolved to carry their plot through to success. The day after the king's visit to the admiral was passed by them in seeking to win him over to their scheme. They excited the alarm and

wrath of the weak-minded monarch with relations of plots of the Huguenots against him, and urged him to consent to the death of Coligny and the other Protestant leaders.

Wrought up to a pitch of delirious fury by these recitals, the king declared that since it was necessary to slay the admiral, not a single Huguenot should escape. The conspirators took him at his word. It was agreed that the admiral should be killed first, and that his death should be followed by a general massacre of the Huguenots in Paris. The public arms in the royal arsenals were distributed among the Roman Catholic citizens, who were to be distinguished by wearing white scarfs around their left arms and white crosses on their hats. The royal guard was increased by calling in the detachments from the suburbs. All through the 23d the Catholic leaders were busy posting their forces and preparing the citizens to make common cause with them.

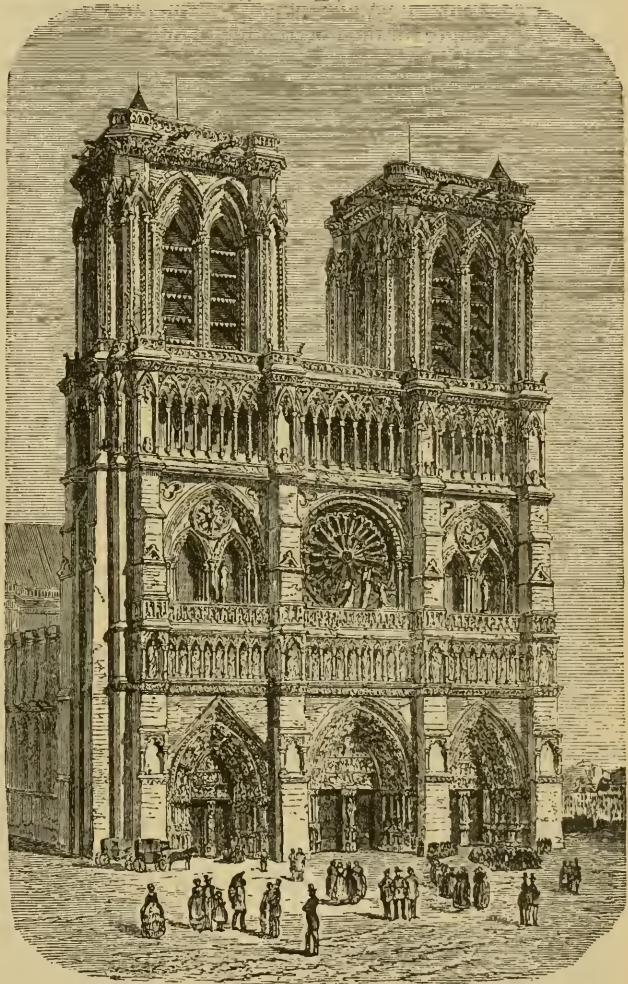
Between three and four o'clock on the morning of August 24th, 1572—the Feast of St. Bartholomew—the Duke of Guise attacked the house of Coligny, and had the admiral despatched by one of his men. As soon as she heard the report of this murder, Catharine ordered the priests of the church of St. Germain l'Auxerrois to sound the signal agreed upon from their bell. It was instantly repeated from every belfry in the city. Paris, until now so silent and peaceful, became instantly full of confusion and strife. Lights gleamed from every house, and swarms of armed men poured forth into the streets and began the work of death. Throughout the whole day and until nightfall the massacre went on. Neither age, sex, nor condition was respected. The Huguenots had been marked and, being taken by surprise, were unable to resist. Catharine and her attendants viewed the massacre from the palace windows. These fearful scenes went on for several days, and were repeated by order of the king in many of the principal provincial towns—at Orleans, Troyes, Bourges, Lyons, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Rouen. The number of victims is variously estimated by different writers at from 10,000 to 100,000. The Duke of Sully places the number at 70,000; De Thou at 30,000. The King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé narrowly escaped death during the massacre. Their attendants were despatched in the courtyard of the Louvre.

The massacre had hardly ceased before Catharine and her fellow-conspirators found that they had committed a terrible political blunder, and had inflicted upon the kingdom a wound which they could not cure. They endeavored to throw the blame upon the Duke of Guise, but that nobleman refused to bear it, and they finally induced the king to declare before the Parliament of Paris, on the 26th of August, that he was responsible for the massacre, that it was a political and not a religious act, and was necessary in order to suppress a dangerous conspiracy of the Huguenots. The Papal Nuncio Salviati pronounced this declaration "false in every respect." When Philip of Spain received Catharine's letter, informing him of the massacre, he laughed aloud for the first and only time in his life; and with good cause, for the best soldiers of France had fallen in those terrible August days. At Rome the news was received with a triumphal salute from the Castle of St. Angelo, an illumination of the city, and a *Te Deum*, at which the pope and the cardinals assisted. A medal was struck by order of the pontiff to commemorate the massacre.

The massacre of St. Bartholomew struck a terrible blow at the Huguenots, but did not destroy them. The survivors took up arms and the war broke out again. The Prince of Condé managed to escape from court, and headed the movement. The Huguenot stronghold, the city of La Rochelle, was besieged by the royal army, without success. In July, 1573, a treaty was arranged which gave the Huguenots liberty of conscience and worship in La Rochelle, Nismes and Montauban.

Charles IX. had been ailing since the day of the massacre. He suffered from a dangerous affection of the lungs, and this was complicated by an excessive nervous affection which had never left him since the

fatal day of St. Bartholomew. He saw visions of his victims, and was haunted by a terrible remorse. His strength gave way daily, and he died on the 30th of May, 1574. His next brother, the Duke of Anjou, had been elected King of Poland,



CATHEDRAL OF NOTRE DAME—FRONT VIEW.

and Catharine was left regent until his return to France.

The Duke of Anjou at once returned from Poland, and ascended the throne as Henry III. He had stolen away from Poland like a criminal, carrying with him the crown jewels of that country, and as he passed through Italy the Duke of Savoy induced him to give up Pignerol and the other fortresses held by France in Pied-

mont. He was contemptible and licentious beyond any of his predecessors, and was utterly unfit to govern a state in the condition of France. He began his reign by announcing his determination to make no concession to the Huguenots, but failed to take any vigorous measures against them. He married Louise de Vaudemont, a member of the younger branch of the house of Lorraine, and this marriage served to augment the power of the Guises, which was already too great for the safety of the crown. The head of the house of Guise now was Henry, the son of Duke Francis of the previous reign. Though on the whole inferior to his father, he was brave, talented, and popular. He also had pretensions to the crown in case the king died without heirs. Henry III. was the last representative of the house of Valois. Henry of Navarre, as the head of the house of Bourbon, was entitled to the succession; but the Duke of Guise intended to contest his right, basing his claim upon his descent from Charles of Lorraine, the last of the Carolingian dynasty.

In 1576 the Huguenots, under the leadership of the King of Navarre, compelled Henry III. and the queen mother to make the most humiliating concessions in order to obtain peace. The demands of the Huguenots were granted to their fullest extent. The treaty was regarded by the Catholics as humiliating to the country and to their religion, and a league was formed by them, with the Duke of Guise at its head, nominally to maintain the royal authority, but really to establish more firmly that of the Duke of Guise. Henry was won over to the league by his necessities, and the privileges granted to the Huguenots were greatly curtailed, A. D. 1577.

In 1581 the Duke of Anjou, the next brother of the king, with the consent of Henry, led a considerable French army into the Low Countries in support of the Flemish patriots. He captured Cambrai, which was defended by the Prince of Parma. Anjou was a suitor for the hand of the English Queen Elizabeth, whose alliance was of vital importance to the people of the Netherlands. He was warmly received by the Flemings, and was proclaimed Duke of Brabant and Count of Flanders. His popularity vanished, however, when Elizabeth positively refused his hand. Soon after this he attempted to make himself absolute

master of Flanders, and was driven back into France by the indignant people. He died of disease and disappointment in June, 1584. His death greatly encouraged the Duke of Guise in his aspirations to the crown. It was evident that Henry III. would have no heirs, and Henry of Navarre was a heretic. Still, in order to hide his own designs, Guise supported the Cardinal de Bourbon, a very weak man, as the legitimate heir to the throne.

In January, 1585, a secret treaty was signed between Philip of Spain and the chiefs of the league. Both parties agreed to exert their power to exterminate heresy in France and the Netherlands, and Philip promised the leaguers a subsidy of 50,000 crowns a month. The compact was approved by the pope, and a manifesto was put forth in the name of the Cardinal de Bourbon, declaring the object of the league to be the defence of the Catholic religion. Hostilities began almost immediately. The north, east, and southeast of France supported the league. Henry yielded to this show of force, though, as the Huguenots offered to support him, he might have successfully resisted the league had he been a man of more energy and decision. He was compelled to accept all the aims and the entire policy of the league, and to revoke all the concessions he had made to the Protestants. He was thus forced to become the ally of the men who were seeking to destroy his throne. The Protestants, under the leadership of Henry of Navarre, who was now formally excommunicated by Pope Sixtus V., took up arms to defend themselves, and civil war once more burst upon the kingdom. Henry III., though the ally of the league, at heart wished its defeat, as he knew that its success meant his ruin. Early in 1587 a plot was detected in Paris which had for its object the dethronement of the king. Still the power of Guise was so great that the king dared not take any action against him. Henry gave himself up to his dogs and monkeys, and left the league to manage affairs. Meanwhile a division of the royal army sent against Henry of Navarre was badly beaten by him at Coutras. Henry failed to follow up his victory, and the result was that a large German force which had been sent to the assistance of the Protestants was defeated with heavy loss by the Duke of Guise and driven back into Germany.

In spite of the orders prohibiting the en-

trance of the chiefs of the league into Paris, the Duke of Guise, who was the idol of the people of that city, went to the capital, where he was received with delight by the people. The king, pale with rage and terror, demanded of the duke why he had disobeyed his express orders, and was answered that he had come to defend himself against the accusations of his enemies. The Hotel de Guise was guarded by the mob, and the duke's strength was so evident that Henry became alarmed and ordered the royal troops stationed near Paris to enter the city. This brought on an uprising of the citizens, which was incited by the league, and the king was at the mercy of the duke. This insurrection is known as the "Day of the Barricades." The king escaped from Paris and fled to Chartres, and Guise assuming the powers of a dictator, overawed the Parliament of Paris, placed his own creatures in all the civil and military offices of the state, and seized the fortified towns near Paris to prevent a surprise of the city. A "Council of Sixteen," representing the various sections, took possession of the city government and held it for six years. Guise was not yet ready to raise the standard of open rebellion, and began to negotiate with the king. After some hesitation, Henry was obliged by his necessities to accept the hard conditions of the duke, and an edict of union was signed at Rouen in July, 1588. All the demands of the league were granted. Guise was made lieutenant-general of the kingdom, and Henry was left king only in name.

Henry had been driven into this humiliating reconciliation only by the hard necessities of the moment. He had fully made up his mind to be rid of the Guises, and as there was but one way to accomplish that, he resolved upon their assassination. The duke was invited to a consultation in the royal bedchamber in the Castle of Blois, on the 23d of December, 1588, and was killed by the king's attendants as he passed through the antechamber. Henry brutally kicked the body of his dead rival, and descending to the room below, where his mother lay upon her death-bed, saluted her with the words: "Now, madam, I am once more King of France, for I have put to death the King of Paris." The Cardinal of Lorraine was arrested and privately put to death in prison. Catharine de' Medici did not long survive these events. She

died, universally execrated, on the 5th of January, 1589.

The news of the murder of the Guises was received in Paris with an outburst of fury. The Sorbonne—the great ecclesiastical authority of the kingdom—declared all Frenchmen released from their oaths of allegiance. The parliament, attempting to quiet the people, was thrown into the Bastille, and was obliged to purchase its release by confirming the decision of the Sorbonne. The Duke of Aumale, a younger brother of the murdered Duke of Guise, was made commander of Paris, and the Duke of Mayenne, another brother of Guise, was named by the parliament, which had been purged of its refractory members, lieutenant-general of the kingdom. The pope summoned Henry to appear at Rome to answer for the murder of the Cardinal of Lorraine, and the league declared its intention to drive him from the throne.

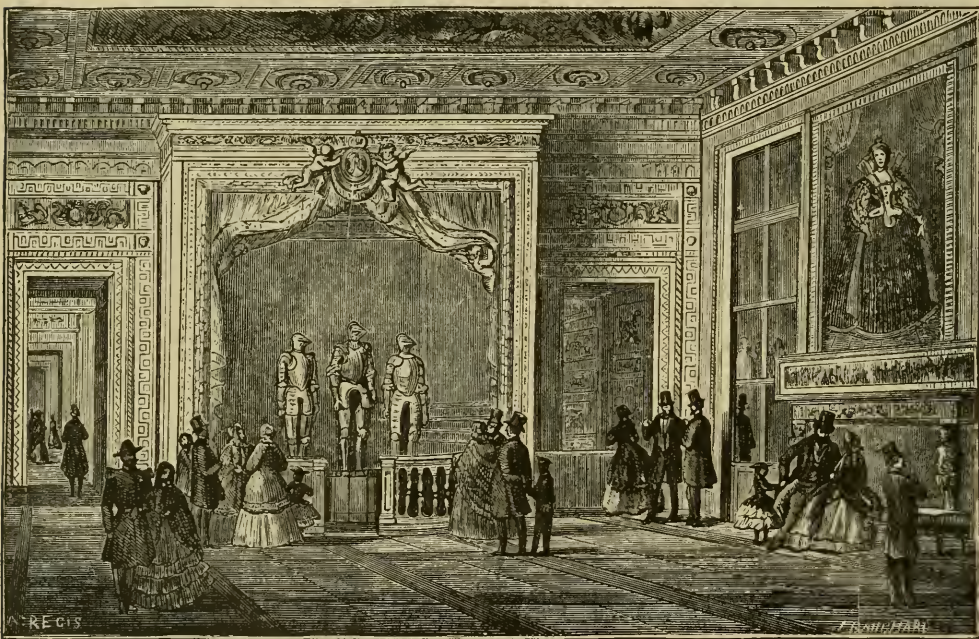
Henry was dismayed by the power of the combination against him, and the refusal of the leaguers to come to any accommodation with him compelled him to ally himself with the King of Navarre and the Huguenots. This alliance was completed in April, 1589, and the two kings, joining their forces, laid siege to Paris. The King of France, thus supported, was in a fair way to crush the league, and the chiefs of that party saw their danger clearly. Paris was weakly garrisoned, and it was well known that upon the fall of the city, which was inevitable, the king would exact a heavy penalty of the citizens for their rebellion and many insults to him. The leaguers and the priests, and above all the Duchess of Montpensier, the sister of the murdered Duke of Guise, openly declared that nothing but the murder of one or both of the kings could save the kingdom. An assassin was found at last—an ignorant Dominican monk named Jacques Clement—who was brought to believe that the murder of the King of France would be an act highly pleasing to heaven. It was known that a general assault of the combined armies was ordered for the 2d of August, and Clement was hurried forward to his task, and prepared for it by the administration of the sacrament. On the 1st of August, having entered the royal lines, he obtained an interview with Henry III. and stabbed him in the stomach. He was at once cut down by the royal guard. Henry lingered through the day, and feeling his end at

hand, summoned the King of Navarre to his presence, acknowledged him as his successor, and caused the nobles to swear allegiance to him. He died between two and three o'clock on the morning of August 2d, 1589. With Henry III. ended the house of Valois, which had held the throne for two hundred and sixty-one years, and given thirteen kings to France.

Henry of Navarre, although the rightful heir to the throne, had considerable difficulty in procuring the recognition of his claims by the leaders of the royal forces before Paris. The Catholic nobles, notwithstanding the oath they had taken in the presence of the dying Henry III.,

summon a lawful national council within six months, and to abide by its decisions, and to place in the hands of the Catholics all the fortresses and towns except those granted to the Protestants by the last treaty. The Duke d'Epemon, however, arrogantly refused to recognize Henry even upon these terms, and withdrew with his force of 7,000 men to Saintonge. The Huguenots of Poitou and Gascony, headed by La Tremouille, Duke of Thouars, also withdrew from the army, as they regarded the king's promises to the Catholics as a betrayal of their cause.

There were now no less than eight claimants of the crown. Of these Philip II. of Spain, whose wife was the daughter of



• THE CHAMBER OF HENRY IV., PALACE OF THE LOUVRE.

showed a strong disinclination to acknowledge a heretic as King of France. They plainly told him that he must become a Catholic in order to become King of France. Henry at first remonstrated with dignity against such treatment, but finally agreed to submit to the instruction of a national council, and to give all necessary guarantees for the protection of the Catholic religion. The nobles agreed to recognize him on these terms, and on the 4th of August Henry signed, as King of France and Navarre, a solemn declaration binding himself to maintain the Catholic faith and the property and rights of the church, to

Henry II., was the most powerful, and Henry of Navarre, who had neither money nor troops enough to meet his rivals on equal terms, was the poorest. His cause indeed seemed hopeless. He was a heretic, had been the favorite leader of the Protestant cause, and had been the ally of the murderer of the Duke of Guise. The Duke of Mayenne, who was a weaker and less daring man than Henry of Guise, did not venture yet to claim the crown, but proclaimed the Cardinal de Bourbon, then a prisoner at Tours, king, as Charles X., and took for himself the title of "Lieutenant-General of the State and Crown of France."

Henry of Navarre was seriously disheartened by the obstacles in his way, and would have withdrawn into the south of France had he not been persuaded by the historian D'Aubigné, one of his most faithful friends, to remain in the north. It was this determination which saved him his crown.

Finding his force too much weakened to continue the siege of Paris, Henry broke up his camp on the 8th of August, and marched into Normandy. The Governor of Dieppe at once submitted to him and placed the town in his hands, thus giving him an important sea-port from which he could communicate with England, whose queen had promised him aid. Caen next espoused his cause, and in September Henry defeated in several engagements, at Arques, a superior force under the Duke of Mayenne. He was soon made to feel the good effect of these early successes. His brilliant management and his good fortune began to inspire confidence in him, and in a few months his forces had increased to 20,000 men. During the winter he was recognized as king in the greater part of Normandy, Brittany, Touraine, Poitou, Saintonge, and Gascony, and had a strong following in Dauphiné, Provence, and Languedoc. All the Protestant courts had recognized him as King of France, and Pope Sixtus V. had expressed himself favorable to his claim. On the 11th of January, 1590, he won another important victory over the forces of the league commanded by the Duke of Mayenne at Ivry. The army of Mayenne was doubly as strong as that of the king. At the moment of engaging the enemy, Henry said to the troops, "My friends, yonder is the enemy, here is your king; and God is on our side. If you lose your standards, rally round my white plume; you will always find it in the path of honor and victory." The victory of Ivry was one of the most glorious and complete in the annals of war, and had Henry been able to press on to Paris, that city would have fallen into his hands. His advance was delayed by the necessity of reducing several important posts on the way. He reached the vicinity of Paris in May, blockaded the city, and by the last of July was master of all the suburbs. The fall of the city seemed inevitable, when Philip of Spain sent the Prince of Parma, the ablest general of his day, with 14,000 Spanish infantry, to the relief of Paris. The prince completely out-

generalled the king, threw provisions and reinforcements into Paris, and compelled Henry to raise the siege. Greatly mortified, Henry withdrew to Compiègne, September, 1591. The next spring Henry endeavored to force the Prince of Parma to a decisive battle, but that commander skillfully evaded him, and secured his retreat into the Netherlands without the loss of a man or a cannon.

All parties were now weary of this indecisive and exhausting war, and in July, 1593, Henry, having resolved to give peace to the country by the sacrifice of his religious convictions, made a public profession of his adhesion to the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church, and was received into that communion by the Archbishop of Bourges in the Church of St. Denis. The king had never made any pretensions to a religious life, and his change of belief was not a matter of much consequence to him. It was in a political point of view an act of the profoundest statesmanship. It struck a death-blow to the league, and removed the last obstacle to the union of the parties that had so long divided France. Henry was crowned king at Chartres, and was generally acknowledged throughout France. On the 22d of March, 1594, he entered Paris, which had submitted to him, and the submission of the capital was followed by that of the provinces.

Henry IV. was now undisputed ruler in France. He signalized his triumph by his liberal treatment of his former enemies. Generous and warm-hearted by nature, he found it impossible to harbor resentment, and his conduct towards his recent foes showed that he had forgotten as well as forgiven their offences. Naturally such a king made friends on all sides, and was served with a devotion that has few parallels in history. He had shown himself a great soldier; he was now to prove himself a great statesman.

Now that he was firmly seated upon the throne, Henry resolved to bring to a decisive issue his quarrel with Philip of Spain. His determination was increased by the attempt of an emissary of Philip and the Jesuits to assassinate him. He punished the Jesuits by a decree of the Parliament of Paris expelling them from the kingdom within fifteen days; and on the 17th of January, 1595, declared war against Philip. During the latter part of the year Pope Clement VIII. formally acknowledged

Henry as King of France, and early in 1596 the Dukes of Mayenne and Epernon made their submission. The league was now at an end. The war with Spain compelled the king to put forth all his energies. The Spaniards captured Calais, Ardres, and Amiens. Henry won back Amiens, which surrendered on the 25th of September, 1597. This was the last operation of the war,

erty and equality as to religious profession and worship. All the towns, about seventy-five in number, that had been obtained by the Huguenots by the treaty of 1577, were permanently secured to them. Among these were La Rochelle, Nismes, Montpellier, Grenoble, and several other important cities. The Protestants were admitted on equal terms to all the offices



HENRY IV.

and dignities of the state, both civil and military, and special courts were instituted throughout the kingdom for their protection. Liberty was granted to the reformed to hold a general assembly once in three years, to deliberate upon matters concerning their welfare, and to petition the crown for redress of grievances. The Catholic clergy and the more zealous of the laity bitterly resisted and denounced the Edict of Nantes, but it was nevertheless registered by the

Parliament of Paris on the 25th of February, 1599, and secured peace and prosperity to France for nearly a century. The house of Bourbon was now peacefully established on the throne, and continued in power until the outbreak of the great revolution in 1789.

which was brought to an end by the treaty of Vervins in May, 1598. Philip surrendered all his conquests in France except the citadel of Cambray. A few days previous to the conclusion of this treaty, Henry, in order to secure the Huguenots in the full possession of their rights, signed the memorable document known as the *Edict of Nantes*, by which he guaranteed to all his subjects universal lib-

erty and equality as to religious profession and worship. All the towns, about seventy-five in number, that had been obtained by the Huguenots by the treaty of 1577, were permanently secured to them. Among these were La Rochelle, Nismes, Montpellier, Grenoble, and several other important cities. The Protestants were admitted on equal terms to all the offices

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cure basis. The finances were in a deplorable state. The public debt was upward of 300,000,000 of francs, a sum equivalent to about \$160,000,000 in our money. The collection of the revenue was let out to officials called Farmers General, who defrauded the government to such an extent that out of 200,000,000 of francs paid annually as taxes by the people, not more than 30,000,000 reached the treasury. In 1598 the king placed Maximilian de Bethune, Baron of Rosny, whom he had created Duke of Sully, in charge of the finances. Sully was one of the ablest statesmen that ever served France, and a man of the sternest integrity. His vigorous measures soon produced a change in financial matters. The frauds from which the government had suffered were sternly checked, useless and expensive offices and titles were abolished, and the levying of arbitrary taxes was stopped. The taxation was reduced to 26,000,000 per annum, and of this sum 20,000,000 were paid into the treasury. The public debt was reduced nearly one-half, and a reserve fund of over 26,000,000 of livres was accumulated. Henry gave a cordial and unswerving support to his great minister, and the kingdom soon began to feel the good effects of the change. Agriculture was encouraged by the king and the minister, as were commerce, manufactures, and all the branches of industry. Commercial treaties were negotiated with England, Holland, Spain, and Turkey, and colonies were founded in America. Marshes were drained, roads, bridges, and canals were constructed, and measures were taken for the preservation of the forests. There was scarcely a subject connected with the welfare of the kingdom that did not receive their personal care and attention.

Although so successful in his public life, Henry was very unfortunate in his private relations. The unmitigated immoralities of his wife, Marguerite de Valois, had caused him to separate from her many years before, and as he had no legitimate heir, he now seriously thought of obtaining a divorce from his wife and marrying his mistress, Gabrielle d'Estrées, who had borne him several children, and whom he had created Duchess of Beaufort. Many of the leading nobles favored this union, but Sully sternly opposed it, and held the king back from it. The duchess unwisely demanded the disgrace of the minister, but Henry answered her bluntly that if it were

necessary to part with either herself or the duke, he would stand by Sully. This decisive blow to her hopes threw her into an illness, of which she died in April, 1599. In December, 1599, the pope, at the request of the king, dissolved his marriage with Marguerite de Valois. Henry now gave a written promise to a new mistress, the beautiful Henriette d'Entragues, whom he made Marchioness of Verneuil. Sully, upon being shown this paper, tore it to pieces, and exerted himself to find a fitting partner for the king. The choice of the monarch fell upon Marie de' Medici, daughter of the late Grand Duke of Tuscany, and the marriage was celebrated in October, 1600. Several children were the fruit of this marriage, the eldest of whom was born on the 27th of September, 1601. He subsequently became Louis XIII.

The treaty of Vervins required the surrender to France by the Duke of Savoy of the Marquisate of Saluces. This was retained by Savoy in spite of the treaty, and in 1600 the duke proceeded to Paris to negotiate with the king concerning it, and took advantage of his visit to organize a conspiracy against the king. He drew into it many of the former members of the league, the principal person being Marshal de Biron, Henry's old companion-in-arms, and whom the king esteemed his most devoted friend. Biron was ambitious, however, and very vain. Satisfied with his work, Charles Emmanuel went back to Savoy, and refused to make the surrender required of him by treaty. He hoped that his plot, which had for its object nothing short of the dismemberment of France into feudal states under the suzerainty of the King of Spain, was in a fair way to succeed, and he was anxious for war. Henry gratified him, and invading Savoy with an army, in which Marshal de Biron held one of the chief commands, rapidly overran the duchy, and on the 21st of August occupied Chambery, the capital. The Duke of Savoy was obliged to ask for peace, and as the price of it was compelled to surrender the district of La Bresse, between Lyons and Geneva, in return for Saluces. Upon his return to France, Henry was informed of the conspiracy, and of Biron's share in it; but upon the avowal of his guilt by his old friend, the king frankly forgave him, and sent him on a mission to England. Biron, however, failed to profit by the generosity of the king, and renewed his intrigues with

the enemies of France. His plots being discovered, the king offered him a chance to confess his guilt, intending to pardon him if he showed any sign of remorse; but as the marshal haughtily refused to acknowledge his crime, he was tried, convicted, and executed on the 31st of July, 1632. This was a wise measure as well as a severe one. It effectually put an end to the plots against Henry, and secured the internal tranquillity of France. Three years of unbroken peace followed, and Henry was enabled to devote himself to the improvement of his kingdom.

The king now began seriously to consider the execution of a scheme which he had long meditated for the rearrangement of the European system of states, and the humiliation of the house of Austria. He desired to form a great European confederation of nations, which should embrace within itself upon a footing of perfect equality, the three prevailing forms of Christianity, the Catholic, the Lutheran, and the Reformed. Each member was to be guaranteed the free and full enjoyment of the political institutions it preferred. Six hereditary and six elective monarchies and three republics were to be embraced in the confederacy. The hereditary monarchies were to be France, Spain, Great Britain, Denmark, Sweden, and northern Italy, or Savoy; the elective monarchies, the Empire, Poland, Hungary, Venice, Bohemia, and the Papal States; the republics, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and the Italian republics, which last were to embrace Genoa, Lucca, and the other small states. The acceptance of this programme by Europe would have weakened Spain by severing from her the Netherlands, Franche Comté, and Lombardy; and Austria would have been proportionately weakened by the loss of Bohemia, Hungary, and the Tyrol. An equilibrium would thus be established between the great powers, and was to be preserved by a diet or federal council, to which disputes between the states were to be referred, and the decisions of which were to be final. Henry hoped by the enforcement of such a system to weaken Spain, to humble Austria, both of which powers were too strong for the welfare of Europe, to put an end to the religious wars and quarrels, and to establish a system of international law which should be binding upon all Europe. It was a grand design, but it was not to be carried out.

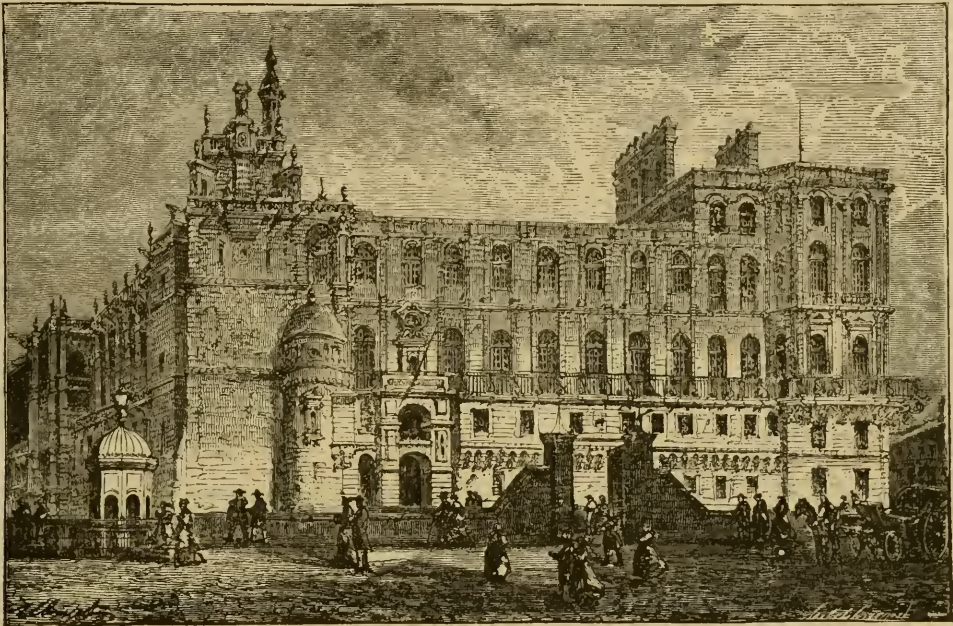
As a first step towards the enforcement of his design Henry devoted himself to the task of weakening the house of Austria. The death without heirs of Duke William of Jülich, Cleve, and Berg, in 1609, has been mentioned in our account of Germany, and we have also spoken of the support which Henry IV. gave to the Elector of Brandenburg and the Count Palatine of Neuburg, who seized the lands of the dead duke. By a treaty signed at Halle in January, 1610, Henry agreed to support them with a force of 10,000 men. He thus distinctly arrayed himself as the enemy of the house of Austria, as the emperor claimed the estates of Duke William as a lapsed fief. Henry began his military preparations on an extensive scale. He assembled a force of 30,000 men, with which he intended to invade Germany in person; a second army, 14,000 strong, was to join the Duke of Savoy and attack Lombardy; while a third, 25,000 strong, was assembled at the foot of the Pyrenees for the invasion of Spain. Henry delayed his departure from Paris in order to celebrate the coronation of Marie de' Medici, as queen, having already appointed her regent during his absence. She was crowned with great splendor at St. Denis on the 13th of May, 1610. The next day, as the king was on his way to visit Sully, who was ill at the arsenal, he was assassinated in his carriage by a man named François Ravallac. Ravallac was put to the torture to draw from him his motives for committing the crime, and the names of his accomplices. He made no revelations, however, and was executed on the 27th of May with the most appalling cruelties, and amidst the curses of the populace. The motives of the assassin remain shrouded in mystery. It was believed by many, at the time that the murder was instigated by the Austrian and Spanish courts; by others it was attributed to the Jesuits.

In Henry IV. France lost one of her greatest kings. He was a profound statesman, as well as a brilliant and successful warrior, and had proved himself a wise and vigorous ruler. Under his enlightened and firm sway France was rapidly increasing in strength and in prosperity, and his death was a great misfortune to the country. His brilliant courage, sparkling wit, and warm-hearted generosity have always made him an especial favorite of the French people, and he richly merited the admira-

tion which succeeding generations have bestowed upon him. At the same time his character was marred by vices and follies of a most serious nature, which the faithful historian is obliged to record opposite the story of his many noble and great qualities. He was in his fifty-eighth year at the time of his death.

Louis XIII. was less than nine years old at the time of his father's murder. Sully and Epernon at once took measures to secure the regency to the widowed queen during the minority of her son. This ac-

foster-sister, Leonora Galigai, and her husband, Concino Concini, an obscure Florentine adventurer. Concino's wife was first lady of the bed-chamber to the queen, and he was rapidly promoted from post to post until he was finally created Marquis d'Ancre, and then Marshal of France. Under the guidance of these persons the regent formed a secret council or cabinet, consisting of Concini, the Jesuit Cotton, the pope's nuncio, and the Spanish ambassador, and surrendered her judgment entirely to this clique. Marie de' Medici was induced to



CHATEAU DE SAINT GERMAINS.

tion was not strictly legal, but as the necessity for a peaceful settlement of the government was urgent, all parties acquiesced in it.

Marie de' Medici was a weak woman, of narrow understanding, and was in every way unsuited to the difficult and dangerous position she had assumed. She began her reign by retaining all of the ministers of Henry IV., and confirming to Sully the same influence he had enjoyed during the life of her husband. The troops promised by Henry were sent to the aid of the German Protestants, and the Edict of Nantes was solemnly confirmed and renewed. As time passed on, however, the regent fell under the evil influence of her

establish the most friendly relations with both Austria and Spain, to strengthen which a marriage was contracted between Louis XIII. and the Infanta Anne of Austria, and his eldest sister, the Princess Elizabeth, was betrothed to Philip, Prince of the Asturias. In short, the entire policy of Henry IV. was reversed, and the interests of France were made subservient to those of her most deadly foes. Sully viewed the course of the queen with deep regret, and as he could not sanction such an overthrow of the designs of his great master, remonstrated with her. As she persisted in her course, he resigned his office in disgust in 1611, and retired to his estates. He took no further part in public affairs, though he

was frequently consulted concerning them by Marie during the remainder of his life. He died in 1641, at the age of eighty-two.

On the 28th of September, 1614, Louis XIII., who had attained his majority on the previous day, at the ripe age of thirteen, assumed the nominal charge of the government, the queen mother continuing to exercise the real power of the kingdom. On the 14th of October the states general met at Paris. The three orders were all numerously represented, and among the deputies of the clergy was one who was destined to achieve a world-wide fame as the greatest statesman of France. He was Armand Duplessis de Richelieu, then Bishop of Luçon. At the close of the session he summed up the demands of the nobility and clergy in an eloquent address which attracted universal attention. The session was passed in wrangling, and the dissensions of the various orders enabled the government to put them off with promises which it never meant to fulfil. Their quarrels disgusted the whole nation, and the crown was not sorry to see the national legislature give so complete a spectacle of incapacity for discharging its duties. On the 24th of March, 1615, the states general were suddenly dissolved by the king. They were not again convoked until 1789, one hundred and seventy-four years later, on the eve of the Revolution.

Towards the close of the year 1615 Louis XIII. was married to Anne of Austria. This marriage was bitterly opposed by a party led by the Prince of Condé, who had twice taken up arms to compel the court to cease its intimate relations with Austria and Spain and to renew the alliances of Henry IV. He was supported by the parliament, which refused to register the decrees by which the court sought to destroy him and his party, and the queen mother was obliged to make lavish grants to him to silence his opposition. Condé directed his hostility principally against the favorite, Marshal d'Ancre, and that worthy feeling himself unsafe at court, took refuge in Normandy. It was believed that Condé meditated a forcible removal of the queen mother from power, but at this point he met with a powerful antagonist in Richelieu, who had risen rapidly since the meeting of the states general, and now occupied a seat in the council of state. He supported the interests of the queen mother with vigor, and took the decisive step of advising the

arrest of the Prince of Condé, who in August, 1616, was taken into custody as he was leaving the council chamber, and was imprisoned in the Bastille. The other leaders of his party fled from Paris, but their followers attempted to raise an insurrection in the city, and plundered and destroyed the splendid mansion of Marshal d'Ancre. The riot was soon suppressed, and D'Ancre returned to the capital, where he behaved with such insolence that he became hated by all but the queen mother. Richelieu was rewarded for his services against Condé by being made secretary of state in November, 1616.

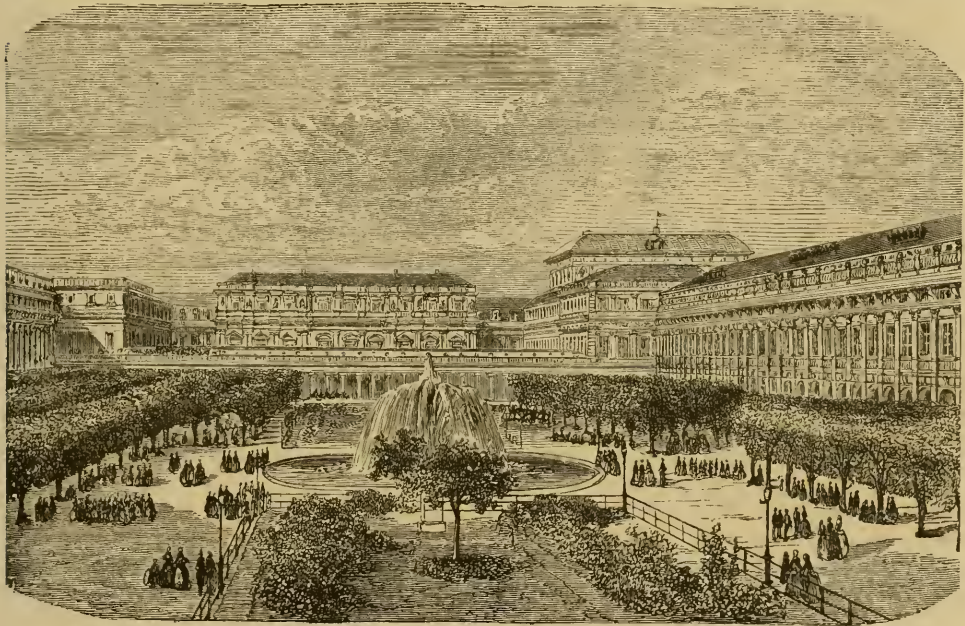
Louis XIII. was now sixteen years old, and was beginning to chafe under the restraints imposed upon him by the queen mother and her favorite, the latter of whom he despised. He had chosen as his confidant the Sieur de Luynes, a young man of pleasing manners, intelligence, and of great ambition. He endeavored to advance his own fortunes by prejudicing Louis against Marshal d'Ancre, and succeeded so well that on the 24th of April the marshal was arrested by order of the king. A slight movement of the marshal being interpreted as an effort at resistance, he was shot down by the royal guard. Louis the next moment appeared at a window of the Louvre and thanked the captain of the guard for the murder, declaring that he was now a king in reality. The fall of the favorite was hailed with delight by the people of Paris, who disinterred his body, dragged it through the streets, and burned it. The wife of D'Ancre was tried on the frivolous charge of sorcery, and was executed on the Place de Grève. The property of the husband and wife was confiscated and bestowed upon De Luynes. On the day of the murder of the marshal, Marie de' Medici was placed under arrest, and was subsequently exiled to Blois, and Richelieu was dismissed to his bishopric of Luçon.

De Luynes was now at the head of affairs. He set to work to enrich himself and his family. He was made a duke and peer of France, and Governor of the Isle de France and Picardy, and obtained the hand of the daughter of the Duke de Montbazou in marriage. Two of his brothers were also created dukes. His rapacity soon rendered him universally unpopular, and the discontented nobles flocked to the court of the queen mother at Blois, which became the centre of a dangerous and determined op-

position to the king and his favorite. On the 22d of February, 1619, Marie was rescued from the Castle of Blois by the Duke d'Epéron and conducted in safety into Angoulême.

The danger of civil war was great, and Louis and De Luynes were seriously alarmed. The latter, conscious of his inability to meet the approaching storm, appealed to Richelieu, who had remained tranquilly in his retirement, awaiting what he knew must be the result of the attempt of De Luynes at government. He repaired to the court of the queen mother, and succeeded in effecting a reconciliation between herself and her son, and averted the danger

kingdom conferred the constable's sword upon De Luynes. Hostilities began in the spring of 1621. De Luynes was thoroughly incompetent to the task imposed upon him, and after some slight successes in Poitou, laid siege to Montauban, the principal fortress of the Huguenots in Languedoc. Here the constable's incapacity was thoroughly manifested, and in spite of the efforts of the royal army, the king was compelled, by the advance of the Duke de Rohan to the relief of the place, to raise the siege, after having lost 8,000 of his troops. De Luynes did not long survive this humiliation; he died on the 14th of December, 1621, from the effects of a malig-



GARDENS OF THE PALAIS ROYAL, PARIS.

of war. The Prince of Condé was liberated from the Bastille, and attached himself to the party of De Luynes, who hoped he would prove a valuable ally against the queen mother and her party.

The king now proceeded to annex the little Protestant province of Béarn to the crown, and ordered that the Roman Catholic religion should be re-established in it. This brought on an insurrection of the people of the province, whose cause was quickly taken up by the Huguenots throughout the kingdom. The king put an army into the field to reduce the Huguenots to submission, and to the disgust of the whole

kingdom. His loss was regretted by none; not even by the king. The war was continued with vigor after the death of De Luynes, and the next year the Huguenots suffered a severe loss in the defection of Marshal Lesdiguières, one of the first soldiers of his day, who abandoned their cause, embraced the Catholic faith, and was made Constable of France by the king. The revolt was quelled in Languedoc and Guienne, and at last Montpellier was forced to surrender to the royal forces. A treaty was signed at this place on the 19th of October, 1691, by which the Huguenots surrendered all the fortified towns guaran-

teed them by the former treaties, retaining only Montauban and La Rochelle.

The death of De Luynes left the position of confidential minister to the king vacant, and for some time it was warmly contested by the queen mother and the Prince of Condé. Richelieu gave a zealous support to the former and enabled her to triumph over her opponent. His genius had already begun to make itself felt in the royal councils, and his ambition was more than suspected. Men of all parties instinctively felt that, given the opportunity, he would make himself their master, and all united in an effort to exclude him from the council of state. The king personally disliked him, and long refused to admit him to any share of power; but at length, yielding to the solicitations of his mother, he fulfilled the promise he had long ago made to Richelieu, and demanded of the pope a cardinal's hat for him. On the 5th of September, 1622, Richelieu was created by his holiness a cardinal of the Holy Roman Church. This was but the first step to his triumph. The weakness of the royal government was growing more apparent every day, and the ambitious designs of Austria and Spain were causing serious alarm in France. The king changed his ministers repeatedly, but no one was competent to conduct the kingdom safely through the perplexities in which it was involved, and at last Louis was compelled to listen to the urgent solicitations of his mother and summon Richelieu to a place in the council of state. This he did on the 26th of April, 1624. Louis had intended that the cardinal should occupy a subordinate position in the council, but he could not prevent the genius of the great man whom he had so unwillingly summoned to his aid from asserting itself. Before he had been six months in the council Richelieu was the real ruler of France, and his supremacy was acknowledged by the king, the court, and the entire nation. He infused his indomitable energy into every branch of the public service, and the government suddenly acquired a strength which was felt in every part of the kingdom.

The condition of France when Richelieu came into power is thus summed up by the cardinal himself: "I may say with truth that at the time of my entrance upon office the Huguenots divided the power of the state with your majesty; that the great nobles conducted themselves as if they were

not your subjects, and the governors of provinces as if they were independent subjects in their own dominions. Foreign alliances were depreciated and misunderstood; private interests preferred to those of the state; and, in a word, the majesty of the crown was degraded to such a depth of abasement that it was scarcely to be recognized at all." From the moment of his entrance upon office, Richelieu pursued a consistent and undeviating policy, the chief objects of which were the destruction of the Huguenots as a political party, the firm establishment of the royal authority over the nobility, and the reconquest by France of her supremacy in Europe by the systematic humiliation of Austria.

In pursuance of this policy Richelieu sought to weaken the empire and Spain by forming an alliance between France and the Protestant powers of northern Europe. His first step was to negotiate a marriage between Charles, Prince of Wales, the son of James I. of England, and the Princess Henrietta Maria, a sister of Louis XIII. A match which had been previously arranged between Charles and a Spanish infanta was broken off, and the marriage arranged by Richelieu was celebrated in May, 1625. The German Protestants were furnished with funds and were allowed to collect troops in France, and a French army was sent into the Valteline, which was held by the Austrians and Spaniards, and which furnished them a direct communication between northern Italy and the Tyrol. In a campaign of a few weeks the Austrian forces were completely expelled, and all the fortresses were occupied by the French. The pope looked with open disfavor upon these attacks upon the chief Catholic powers of Europe, and protested against the course of the cardinal; but Richelieu told him plainly that while he acknowledged his duties as a prince of the church, his first allegiance was due to France, whose interests and dignity were his first objects under any and all circumstances.

A sudden and unexpected revolt of the Huguenots under the Dukes de Rohan and Soubise, in the summer of 1625, obliged Richelieu to suspend the operation of his plans against Austria. He proceeded with vigor against the insurgents, with the assistance of a fleet furnished by England and Holland, defeated their fleet off Rochelle, and reduced that town to extremities. He now became aware of the existence of a

formidable conspiracy against his administration and his life, and in order to devote himself to its suppression, made peace with the Huguenots upon favorable terms in February, 1626. In March a treaty was signed with Spain, by which it was agreed that France should restore the Valteline to the Grisons, from whom Spain and Austria had taken it. Richelieu was severely censured and ridiculed for his leniency to the Huguenots upon this occasion; but he knew full well that the time for the success of his plans against them had not yet arrived.

The plot to which we have referred had been skilfully organized. The chief actor in it was Gaston, Duke of Anjou, the only brother of the king, and it embraced many of the greatest nobles of France. The young queen was also a party to it. It was the intention of the conspirators to assassinate the cardinal at his country house, and make Gaston his successor in power. The plot was discovered by the cardinal. Gaston betrayed his confederates and threw himself upon the mercy of the king. His treachery was rewarded by his promotion to the duchy of Orleans, with its enormous revenues, but the other conspirators were executed or banished. The young queen was summoned before the council of state and severely reprimanded for her share in the conspiracy, and the coldness which had for some time existed between herself and the king was increased. From this moment the queen and the cardinal became declared and bitter enemies. The result of the conspiracy was to establish the power of the cardinal more firmly than ever. The next year he gave a startling evidence of the vigor with which he meant to bring the nobles to the foot of the throne. A royal ordinance forbade duelling, which had become a serious evil among the gallants of the court. In defiance of it the Counts de Bouteville and Des Chapelles had a desperate encounter in the Place Royale at Paris. They were arrested by order of the cardinal, tried, convicted, and executed with a grim firmness which struck terror to the whole of the turbulent class to which they belonged.

Trouble with the Huguenots of Rochelle again broke out, and this time England took sides with the people of Rochelle against the French king. The Duke of Buckingham had conceived a foolish passion for the Queen of France, which Richelieu had exposed and ridiculed. The duke,

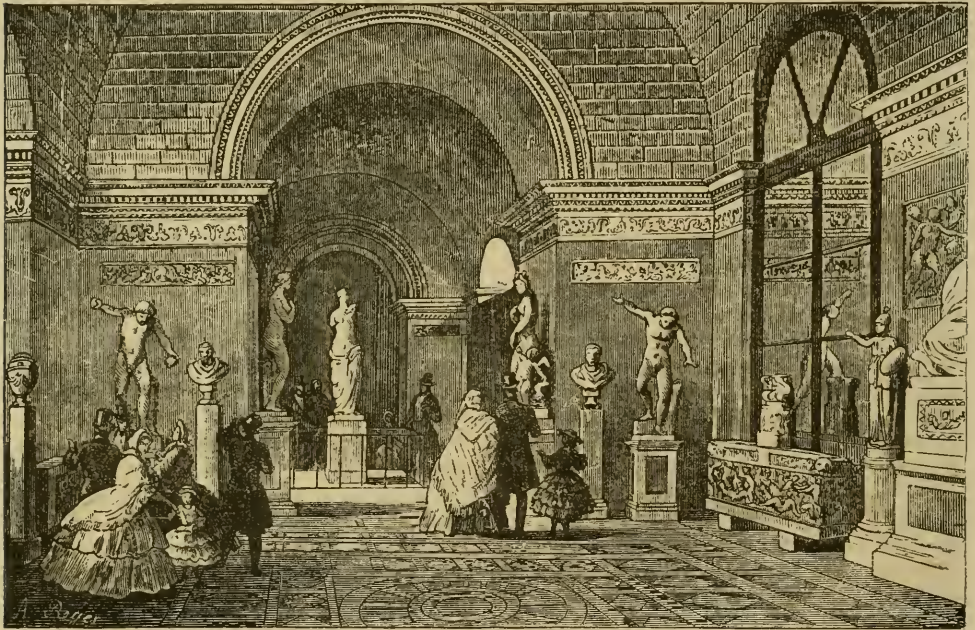
in the hope of being revenged upon the cardinal, induced the King of England to give aid to the Huguenots. The cause was popular in England, and had a more capable leader than Buckingham been chosen, the Huguenots might have derived some solid advantage from the alliance. A fleet of one hundred vessels and a strong force of troops were despatched to the relief of Rochelle under the command of Buckingham, in July, 1627.

In the meantime Richelieu had made extraordinary exertions for the reduction of Rochelle. A powerful and splendidly equipped army laid siege to the place, under the nominal command of the king, but really under the direction of the cardinal, who proved himself an able general as well as a great statesman. The town was defended with heroic valor, and an ineffectual effort was made for its relief by the English fleet, which was defeated with heavy loss. Buckingham then bore away for England, and Rochelle was left to contend single-handed with the royal forces. Richelieu closely invested the town by land and built a mole across the mouth of the harbor, which he fortified, thus cutting off relief for the city from the sea. Two English fleets were sent to relieve the starving town, but were unable to enter the harbor in consequence of the barrier erected by the cardinal, and withdrew. After a siege of fifteen months, during which half the population died from hunger and the garrison was reduced to less than two hundred men, the town surrendered on the 28th of October, 1628. Richelieu used his victory with moderation. He declared that the age of persecution for conscience sake was past, and that the king had made war upon the Rochellois not as Huguenots but as rebels. He confirmed the people of the town in the exercise of their religion, but as a punishment for their rebellion deprived them of their political rights and destroyed the fortifications of the city. In August, 1629, Montauban, the last Protestant stronghold in France, was taken, and the Huguenots as a political party ceased to exist.

Spain took advantage of the war with the Huguenots to endeavor to injure France in Italy by expelling the Duke de Nevers, a Frenchman, from Mantua and Montferrat, to which he had just succeeded. Richelieu, as soon as the siege of Rochelle was concluded, induced the king to cross the Alps in March, 1629, with an army of 36,000

men to the assistance of the Duke of Mantua. The Duke of Savoy, who was hostile to France, was compelled to make a treaty of peace, and the Spaniards were obliged to discontinue their designs upon Mantua and Montferat. The French had scarcely repassed the Alps when the Spaniards and Austrians again invaded Mantua and occupied the country of the Grisons. The Duke of Savoy made a secret alliance with the enemies of France, and prepared to prevent the French army from passing through his territory into Italy. Richelieu obtained the supreme command of the army, and chose Marshals Bassompierre and Schomberg as his lieutenants. He moved rapidly

France, Richelieu now found himself surrounded by personal enemies, and plots against him began to thicken. On his way to join the army in Italy, the king was seized with a dangerous illness at Lyons, and Marie de' Medici, who, as she could not rule Richelieu, had become his enemy, took advantage of the king's weakness to extort from him a promise that he would dismiss the cardinal. Louis consented on condition that no step should be taken against the cardinal till the close of the war. Recovering his health he began to show his unwillingness to deprive France of the services and himself of the aid of his great minister, but the clamors of his wife



GALLERY OF ANCIENT SCULPTURES, PALACE OF THE LOUVRE, PARIS.

into Savoy, took Pignerol after a siege of three days, and a number of other fortresses. Savoy and the marquisate of Saluces were soon overrun by the French, and the allies were obliged to make peace. Mantua was evacuated by the Austrians, and the Duke de Nevers received the investiture of that duchy from the emperor. Savoy was compelled to cede Pignerol and two other fortresses to France. The war was ended by the treaty of Cherasco in April, 1631. One of the principal negotiators was Giulio Mazarini, then an agent of the pope at the court of Savoy, and afterwards famous as Cardinal Mazarin.

Though successful against the foes of

and mother and the courtiers for the removal of the cardinal grew greater every day. Finally, Richelieu, who had come to court in the meanwhile, became involved in an open quarrel with the queen mother in the king's presence. Louis ended it by quitting the palace and hastening to Versailles. The whole court now regarded the cardinal's ruin as certain, and his enemies were open in their exultation. Richelieu himself was confident that he would be disgraced, and was surprised to receive a summons to join the king at Versailles. Louis received him cordially, and assured him that he would not only listen to no charges against him, but would remove from court

all who had the will or the ability to injure or thwart him. The 11th of November, 1630, the day upon which these events took place, is still known in France as the "Day of Dupes."

The cardinal now proceeded to act with vigor against those who had sought to injure him, and caused Marshal de Marillac to be executed on a charge of peculation, and banished his brother, the keeper of the seals, to Chateaudun. He then endeavored to persuade the king that there would be no peace at court as long as the queen mother was allowed to continue her plottings. Louis was greatly averse to any se-

fled to Brussels. His followers were imprisoned or banished. Gaston continued his plotting at Brussels, and succeeded in drawing into his schemes a number of the discontented nobles of France, among whom was the Duke de Montmorency, one of the most illustrious men in France. Gaston invaded France in 1632 with a small force, but his army was defeated, and he was forced to fly again. The saddest result of the insurrection was the execution of Montmorency on the 30th of October, 1632.

The thirty years' war had been going on for many years in Germany. True to his policy of weakening Austria, Richelieu in



EGYPTIAN MUSEUM, PALACE OF THE LOUVRE—PARIS.

vere measures against his mother, but in 1631 a fresh rebellion of the Duke of Orleans, which was instigated by Marie, induced him to take a decisive step against her. She was exiled from court and sent to Compiègne. A few days later the king ordered her to retire to Moulins. She refused to obey, and escaped across the frontier to the Spanish court at Brussels. This act was fatal to her. Louis sternly refused to allow her to return to France, and in 1642 she died in exile at Cologne. Gaston's rebellion was put down, his estates were confiscated, and he took refuge in Lorraine, but being refused a shelter there, he

1631 entered into an alliance with Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, as has been related; promising him an annual subsidy of 400,000 crowns, and thus openly siding with the Protestants of Germany against the emperor and the Catholic League. After the death of Gustavus, the alliance was renewed by a treaty with Oxenstiern, the Swedish chancellor. The victory of the imperialists at Nordlingen in September, 1634, seemed to establish the success of the emperor; but Richelieu set to work with vigor to neutralize it. Treaties were concluded by France with Holland, Sweden, the Protestant Princes of Germany, Switz-

erland, and the Duke of Savoy, and France agreed to place four large armies, amounting in the aggregate to 120,000 men, in the field for the assistance of her allies. The events of the next three years were unfavorable to France. In 1636 the imperial army penetrated far into Picardy, and seriously threatened Paris, but was at length compelled to withdraw with loss. In 1638 matters took a more favorable turn. Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, who had entered the French service, captured several fortresses on the upper Rhine, and defeated the imperialist army in a great battle at Rheinfeld, on the 3d of March. In December of the same year he compelled the surrender of the strong fortress of Breisach, after a siege of nearly six months. The events of 1639 were equally fortunate to France, and the death of Duke Bernhard, who had established himself at Breisach in the hope of obtaining Alsace as an independent sovereignty, enabled Richelieu to annex it to France. The Count Harcourt, the French commander in Italy, defeated the imperialists in Piedmont and overran that country, and in September, 1640, captured Turin after a spirited siege of more than four months. In the same year the French expelled the Spaniards from Artois, and annexed that valuable province to the crown of France.

In the meantime the good fortune of Richelieu had attended him. He discovered a secret correspondence between the queen and the Spanish court at Brussels, and the queen, in terror at the discovery of her offence, confessed her fault to Richelieu and signed a solemn pledge never to be guilty of a like crime again. The cardinal on his part undertook to bring about a reconciliation between Anne and Louis, and succeeded to the entire satisfaction of both parties. The royal pair had been married for more than twenty years, but no children had been born to them. Anne now became the mother of a son, who was born at Saint Germain on the 5th of September, 1638, and who afterwards became Louis XIV. In 1642 the gay and brilliant Marquis of Cinq-Mars, whom Richelieu had selected as the companion of the king, organized a formidable conspiracy against the cardinal, who had undertaken to check his ambitious schemes, and opened a treasonable correspondence with the Spaniards. Richelieu detected the conspiracy, and obtained a copy of the treaty between the

conspirators and Spain. Cinq-Mars was arrested, together with De Thou, one of the conspirators, and both were executed at Lyons on the 12th of September, 1642.

In the same year Perpignan was taken, and completed the conquest of Rousillon, which was annexed to France; and the principality of Sedan became the property of the crown, having been confiscated as a penalty imposed upon the Duke of Bouillon for his complicity in the plot of Cinq-Mars.

Richelieu was now at the height of his power. In France he was supreme, and he had made his country great at home and feared abroad. He had humbled the pride of the house of Austria and effectually destroyed its ambitious schemes for advancement, and in every quarter he had beaten and crippled the enemies of France, which under his skillful guidance became the first power in Europe. All this while he was sinking under a mortal disease, and on the 4th of December, 1642, died in the fifty-eighth year of his age. Louis, who owed everything to Richelieu, received the announcement of his death with the cold remark, "There is a great politician gone." He made no change in the ministry chosen by Richelieu, except to appoint Cardinal Mazarin to a seat in the council. In less than six months Louis XIII. followed his great minister to the grave. He died at Saint Germain on the 14th of May, 1643, in the forty-second year of his age, having reigned exactly thirty-three years. He left the regency to his widow, Anne of Austria, and named the Duke of Orleans lieutenant-general of the kingdom. A council of state was also appointed by the will of the king, consisting of the Cardinal Mazarin, the Prince of Condé, Seguier, the chancellor, and Chavigny and Bouthillier, secretaries of state.

CHAPTER VI.

THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIV.

Regency of Anne of Austria—Mazarin Prime Minister—Battle of Rocroi—Capture of Dunkirk—The Prince of Condé at Lerida—Peace of Westphalia—Close of the Thirty Years' War—Position of France—Financial Troubles—The War of the Frondé Begun—Turenne Quits France—Arrest of the Prince de Condé and his Brothers—Revolt of Guienne—Mazarin Obligated to Leave France—Revolt of Condé—Turenne Returns to France—Battle of the Faubourg St. Antoine—Condé Joins the Spaniards—Close of the War of the Frondé—War with Spain—Peace of the Pyrenees—Marriage of Louis XIV. to the Spanish Infanta—

Death of Mazarin—Louis Takes the Government into his own Hands—His Character—Colbert Made Minister of Finance—Alliance with Holland—War with England—The Treaty of Breda—Louis Claims the Spanish Netherlands—Invades Flanders—The Triple Alliance—Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle—Louis Makes War upon the Dutch Republic—Treaty with England—The French Cross the Rhine—Their Successes—William of Orange Made Stadtholder—His Successful Defence of Holland—England Withdraws from the War—Turenne's Campaign in Alsace—Death of Turenne—Retirement of the Great Condé—Naval Victories of the French—Peace of Nimwegen—Louis at the Height of his Power—Seizes Strasbourg—Private Life of Louis—Madame de Maintenon—Persecution of the Huguenots—Madame de Maintenon and the Jesuits Attempt the King's Conversion—The Dragonnades—Marriage of the King to Madame de Maintenon—Revocation of the Edict of Nantes—French Industry Nearly Ruined by the King's Bigotry—Savage Persecution of the Huguenots—Flight of the Protestants from France—The League of Augsburg—The Prince of Orange Becomes King of England—James II. in France—Louis Declares War—The Palatinate Ravaged by the French—The Coalition against France—Failure of the French Expedition to Ireland—Battle of Fleurus—Death of Luvois—The French Fleet Destroyed in the Channel—Capture of Mons—Battles of Steinkirk and Neerwinden—The Duke of Savoy Abandons the Coalition—The Peace of Ryswick—The War of the Spanish Succession—The Second Grand Alliance—Marlborough—Prince Eugene—The Campaign of 1702—Marshal Villars' Campaign in Germany—Battle of Hochstadt—The Duke of Savoy Joins the Alliance—Revolt of the Protestants of the Cevennes—Battle of Blenheim—Spain Loses Gibraltar—Campaign of 1706—Reverses of the French—Events of the Year 1707—Battle of Oudenarde—Famine in France—Progress of the War—Domestic Afflictions of Louis—The Peace of Utrecht—Consequences of the War to France—Death of Louis—The "Age of Louis XIV."

AS soon as she had been confirmed in the regency, Anne of Austria dismissed the council of regency, and made Cardinal Mazarin her chief minister. This choice was a matter of surprise to all parties, as Mazarin had been the faithful subordinate of her old enemy Richelieu. The choice was a good one, however. Mazarin was a man of great genius, and as Louis XIV. was less than five years old, the regent was aware that she would need a competent adviser during the long minority of the king, and she chose the one best suited to the position.

The war policy of Richelieu was carried on with great vigor by his successor. Immediately upon the death of Richelieu the house of Austria resumed hostilities, and the Spanish forces from the Netherlands laid siege to the fortress of Rocroi. On the 19th of May, 1643, they were decisively defeated in the battle of Rocroi by the

young Duke d'Enghien, afterwards famous as the great Prince of Condé. Two years later, in 1645, Marshal Turenne and the Duke d'Enghien inflicted a crushing defeat upon the imperialist forces at Nordlingen on the 7th of August. In October, 1646, the Duke d'Enghien, aided by the Dutch fleet under Admiral Van Tromp, captured Dunkirk, the most frequented and valuable seaport on the German ocean. In 1647 a treaty of peace was signed between Spain and the United Provinces of Holland. The Duke d'Enghien now returned to France, and about the same time succeeded, by the death of his father, to the title of Prince of Condé. Mazarin, dreading his influence at court, sent him to Catalonia, where he began the siege of Lerida in May, 1647. In spite of his great genius he was compelled to abandon this enterprise, and returned to France in disgust, and bitterly reproached Mazarin for failing to sustain him. Mazarin was profuse in his excuses, and at once appointed him to the command of the army in Flanders. He took the town of Ypres in May, 1648, drove the imperialists out of Picardy, and inflicted a terrible defeat upon them at Lens, in Artois, on the 29th of August. The imperialist army was almost annihilated.

In the meantime Marshal Turenne had been quite as successful in Germany. In 1648, in conjunction with the Swedes, he defeated the Bavarian army under Montecuculi at Augsburg, and was only prevented from advancing upon Vienna by a sudden rise of the river Inn.

These successes of the French, and especially the victory of Lens, gave a powerful impetus to the negotiations for peace which had been going on since 1644, and on the 24th of October, 1648, the treaty of Westphalia was signed. The details of this treaty have been given in the German history of this period. It closed the Thirty Years' War, and was highly advantageous to France, which obtained in full sovereignty the whole of Alsace except Strasbourg, thus gaining the Rhine as a boundary. The towns of Pignerol, in Piedmont, and Breisach, on the German side of the Rhine, were ceded to her, and the fortress of Philipsburg was to be garrisoned by French troops. She was confirmed in her possession of the "three bishoprics" of Metz, Toul and Verdun, which had been conquered in the last century; and the duchy

of Lorraine was practically surrendered to her by being left in her hands until an amicable arrangement could be effected with the dispossessed duke. Thus, on the whole, France had good reason to be satisfied with the results of the Thirty Years' War. The power of the house of Austria was greatly humbled, the empire was practically destroyed in Germany, and France had become the leading state in Europe. Spain was not included in the treaty, and the war

travagance of the court recourse was had to expedients more or less oppressive and hateful to the people. A tax was levied upon all merchandise brought into Paris for sale by land or by water, and this impost was levied indiscriminately upon all classes. It gave rise to a serious opposition on the part of the parliament, which placed that body in direct antagonism to the crown. The quarrel grew more bitter every day, and at length the court com-



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between that country and France went on without interruption.

In the meantime serious troubles were gathering over France at home. The rapacity and misgovernment of Mazarin, whose influence over the queen was absolute, were rapidly involving the state in serious financial embarrassments, which were destined to result in a disastrous civil war. Richelieu had left a full treasury, but the resources so carefully husbanded by him were quickly squandered by his successor, and in order to meet the enormous expenses of the war and the ex-

mitted the mistake of taking advantage of the rejoicings which greeted the news of the victory of Lens, to arrest three of the principal leaders of the opposition in parliament, Blancmesnil, Charton, and Broussel, the last of whom was very popular.

The people of Paris had all along sided with the parliament, and they now broke into open revolt against the government. Barricades were thrown up in the principal streets, and an angry crowd surrounded the Palais Royal, demanding the release of Broussel. The Cardinal De Retz, Archbishop coadjutor of Paris, represented to

the queen the danger of the situation, and urged her to comply with the popular demands and release Broussel, but Anne refused to do so, and troops were marched into the palace for the protection of the court. De Retz, upon the refusal of the queen to take his advice, joined the insurrection and became one of its principal leaders. The next day, August the 27th, 1648, the insurrection showed so much more vigor, and such alarming signs of spreading, that the queen released the arrested members of parliament, who returned to Paris the next day amid the rejoicings of the people. Though the matter seemed settled for the time, the trouble had in reality just begun, and from the 27th of August, 1648, we may reckon the commencement of the civil war of the Fronde.

Though outward order seemed restored, the parliament proved so insolent and unmanageable, that the queen quitted Paris with the young king and Mazarin and went to Rueil. The Prince of Condé now intervened and brought about a reconciliation between the queen and the parliament in October, by which the demands of the latter were unconditionally granted. Anne shed tears as she signed this document, and pronounced it as the suicide of royal authority in France.

Not long afterwards Condé became disgusted with the arrogance and insubordination of the Parisians, and offered his services to the court to reduce them to obedience. He assembled a force of 8,000 troops near Paris, and on the 6th of January, 1649, the queen, the young king, and the rest of the royal family, accompanied by Cardinal Mazarin, secretly withdrew from Paris to St. Germain. At the same time a royal order commanded the parliament to transfer its sittings to Montargis. Parliament refused to comply with this order, and denounced Mazarin as an enemy of the state, and demanded his banishment from the kingdom. Many of the most distinguished and powerful nobles of the kingdom embraced the cause of the Fronde, which was also sustained by a majority of the provincial parliaments. There was some fighting between Condé's troops and the parliamentary forces near Paris, but the cause of the Fronde grew stronger each day. Marshal Turenne joined it, and the insurgents were promised aid by Archduke Leopold, the Governor of the Spanish Netherlands. The court was now anxious to treat for peace,

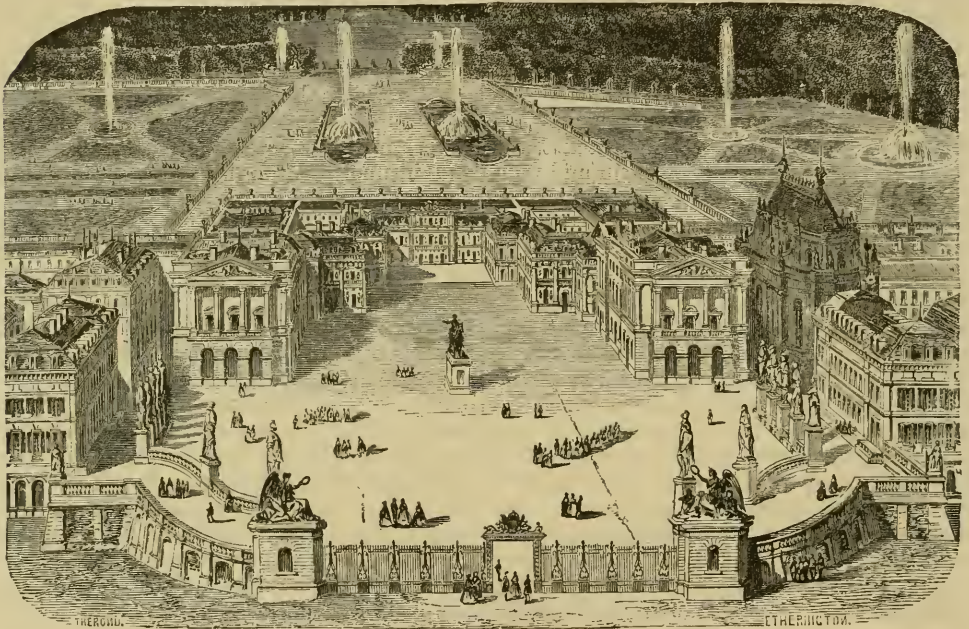
and a treaty was negotiated at Rueil between Mazarin and a parliamentary deputation headed by the President Molé on the 11th of March, 1649. The terms of the treaty were not as favorable as parliament had desired, and that body at first refused to register it. Molé and his associates in the negotiation were in danger of assassination at the hands of the angry mob. Mazarin secured the acceptance of the treaty by parliament by modifying some of its most objectionable provisions. He also won over the principal officers of Turenne's army, who left the marshal and declared for the court. Turenne immediately withdrew into Holland, and the Fronde was left without a competent leader. In August, 1649, the court returned to Paris.

The Prince of Condé presuming upon the great services he had rendered the state, now sought to get the whole power of the government into his hands. His insolence and insubordination became so unbearable and dangerous that the regent and Mazarin determined to arrest him. Accordingly Condé, his brother, the Prince of Conti, and his brother-in-law, the Duke de Longueville, were arrested in the council chamber on the 18th of January, 1650, and were imprisoned in the Castle of Vincennes. The partisans of Condé at once took up arms. Burgundy, of which province he was governor, broke into open revolt, and the Duchess de Longueville succeeded in exciting disturbances in Normandy, of which her husband was governor. Bordeaux took up arms for Condé, and placed itself under the orders of the daring and devoted Princess of Condé, the niece of Richelieu. Normandy was soon tranquillized by the royal forces, and this success was followed by the reduction of Burgundy to submission. Bordeaux, after a siege, during which the Princess of Condé displayed heroic courage, was compelled to surrender. The princess and her adherents were allowed to retire peaceably to their estates, but the court sternly refused her petition for the liberation of her husband and his fellow-captives. Turenne having been joined by a Spanish force, gained some important successes in Picardy, but on the 15th of December was totally defeated near Rhetel by the Marshal du Plessis-Praslin, and fled with a few followers into Lorraine.

The triumph of the court now seemed assured, but at this juncture a reaction in favor of the imprisoned princes set in at

Paris, and a coalition was formed against Mazarin, headed by the leaders of the original Fronde. The banishment of the cardinal was demanded by the parliament, and Mazarin, becoming terrified at the strength of the opposition, fled secretly to Havre on the 8th of February, 1651. The queen prepared to follow him with the young king, but was prevented by the leaders of the Fronde, who insisted upon entering the palace and satisfying themselves of the presence of the court. Mazarin in the meantime hastened to Havre and gave orders for the liberation of the captive princes. He had hoped to win their support by his

to his government of Guienne, and took up arms in open rebellion against the court. The queen met this movement by declaring Louis XIV. of age, and the young king took his place at the head of the army destined to operate against the insurgent prince. Mazarin, for whose return Condé's rebellion had prepared the way, now boldly rejoined the court. Turenne, who had also made his peace with the crown, was given a command in the royal army. A desultory warfare ensued, in which neither party accomplished anything, and late in the spring of 1652 both armies—the royalists under Turenne, and the Frondeurs under Condé



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE PALACE AND PARK OF VERSAILLES.

promptness, but they treated him coldly, and hastened to Paris. The cardinal withdrew to Bruhl in the territory of Cologne, and from his place of refuge kept up a correspondence with the queen, by which he continued to direct the affairs of the government.

Condé expected to find himself supreme in power upon his return to Paris, but he found the queen regent still bitterly hostile to him, and the leaders of the Fronde indisposed to acknowledge his authority. At last the queen brought matters to a crisis by accusing him before parliament of a traitorous correspondence with Spain. Condé, enraged by this accusation, hastened

—directed their march upon Paris, which had as yet declared for neither party. A severe battle was fought in the Faubourg Saint Antoine on the 2d of July, which was decided by Mademoiselle de Montpensier, the daughter of the Duke of Orleans, who at the critical moment caused the cannon of the fortress of the Bastille to open upon the royal forces. The citizens then threw open the Porte St. Antoine and allowed the army of Condé to enter the city. Turenne, who had been sure of victory, now drew off his forces to St. Denis.

For a while Condé was master of Paris, and it seemed that the capital was about to thoroughly espouse the cause of the Fron-

deurs, but by a sudden change the Parisians turned against the insurgents, and began to treat with the king. Condé found his influence entirely destroyed by the trickery of the Cardinal de Retz, and he quitted Paris in disgust in October, and joined the Spanish army under the Duke of Lorraine. A few days later Louis XIV. and his mother, escorted by the army of Turenne, entered Paris amid the rejoicings of the people, and occupied the Louvre. A general amnesty was granted by the king, from which Condé, the Duke of Beaufort, and several other leaders of the Fronde were specially excepted. Condé was condemned to death as a traitor. The Duke of Orleans was ordered to retire to Blois, where he died in 1660. De Retz, who had done more than any other man to foment the troubles of the kingdom, was imprisoned in Vincennes. He subsequently regained his liberty, but the remainder of his life was passed in obscurity.

Thus closed the revolt of the Fronde. It was the last expiring struggle of the nobility of France against the absolute power of the crown. It had entailed the greatest discomfort and even actual privation upon the royal family, and its effect was to confirm Louis XIV. in his ideas of despotic rule. The effort of the nobles to limit the power of the crown utterly failed, and upon the ruins of the revolt the young king was enabled to erect an absolute monarchy.

The civil war being at an end, Mazarin was now able to turn his attention to the Spaniards, who had profited greatly by the internal troubles of the kingdom. They had regained Dunkirk, Ypres, and Gravelines, and also Barcelona and Casale. Their army on the frontier of Picardy was now commanded by the great Condé, and during the summer of 1653 that able commander spread his ravages as far as the banks of the Somme. The French army was commanded by Turenne, who in spite of his disadvantage in numbers was able to keep his great antagonist in check during the whole campaign. In 1654 Condé and the Archduke Leopold, with 25,000 Spanish troops, laid siege to Arras. The siege was conducted with great ability, but Turenne compelled Condé to abandon it and retreat, leaving 3,000 prisoners in the hands of the French. The campaign of 1656 was signalized by one of Condé's most brilliant exploits. He attacked the division of Marshal de la Ferté, which was separated from

the main army of Turenne then engaged in the siege of Valenciennes, almost annihilated it, and made prisoners of the marshal himself, nearly all his officers, and 4,000 men. Mazarin now succeeded in bringing about an alliance with the commonwealth of England. Reinforced by a division of 6,000 English infantry under General Reynolds, Marshal Turenne, in 1656, captured Montmédy, St. Venant, and Mardyke. The latter fortress was turned over to the English. The next effort of the allies was to lay siege to Dunkirk. A Spanish army under Condé and Don John of Austria marched to its relief, but was defeated with great loss by Turenne in the battle of the Dunes on the 14th of June, 1658. Dunkirk immediately surrendered, and was ceded to England by France in accordance with the treaty. Turenne then proceeded to the reduction of Gravelines, and overran Flanders, advancing to within two days' march of Brussels.

Spain was so disheartened by these reverses that she began to wish for peace. Her anxiety on this point was increased by the formation of a league by Mazarin between France, Bavaria, and the German states, for the maintenance of the treaty of Westphalia. This league virtually isolated Spain from the rest of Europe. In October, 1658, Philip IV. opened the negotiations by proposing that Louis XIV. should wed the Spanish Infanta Maria Theresa. Louis was deeply in love with the beautiful Maria Mancini, the niece of Mazarin; but the cardinal removed her from court, and induced the king to accept the offer of Philip. The cardinal proceeded to the frontier and met the Spanish prime minister, Don Luis de Haro, on the Isle of Pheasants, in the Bidassoa, a small stream which forms a part of the boundary between France and Spain. Negotiations for peace and for the royal marriage were carried on with success. Spain insisted positively that the Prince of Condé should receive a full and free pardon, be reconciled to the court, and be restored to all his honors and possessions. Mazarin refused this demand for a long time, and only yielded when the Spanish minister threatened to form a principality for Condé in Flanders. Condé was pardoned by the French king for his treason, and was restored to his government of Burgundy; and on the 7th of November the peace of the Pyrenees was signed.

By the terms of this treaty the Spanish

Infanta was contracted to Louis XIV., and in consideration of her surrender of all her claims to the succession to the Spanish crown was promised, by her father, a marriage portion of half a million of crowns. All the children resulting from this marriage and their descendants were also solemnly excluded from the possibility of succeeding to the Spanish crown. Spain ceded to France the county of Artois, and the towns of Gravelines, Landrecies, Thionville, Montmédy, Avesnes, and several others, and received Rousillon and Cerdagne. Lorraine was nominally restored to its duke, but in reality remained annexed to the French crown. As in the case of the treaty of Westphalia, France was the gainer by the war with the house of Austria, and succeeded in securing for herself the place of supremacy in Europe it had held for a century and a half.

Louis XIV. repaired to St. Jean de Luz, in May, 1660, and, after a splendid interview with the King of Spain at the Isle of Pheasants, married the Princess Maria Theresa in the church of St. Jean de Luz on the 9th of June.

The treaty of the Pyrenees and the marriage of the king placed Mazarin at the height of his power. Like Richelieu he did not long survive this fulfilment of his hopes, but died on the 8th of March, 1661, at the age of fifty-nine. He was one of the ablest and most unscrupulous of the statesmen who have ruled France, and but for his inordinate and insatiable love of money might have left a better name behind him.

Immediately upon the death of Cardinal Mazarin, Louis XIV. announced his intention to take the government into his own hands, as he was determined to rule France in actual fact as well as in name. He was well qualified for the task he assumed. Mazarin used to say of him, "There is enough in him to make four kings and one honest man." He was a man of good judgment, of a firm, determined will, of great sagacity and penetration, and of indomitable energy and perseverance. His powers of application were very great, and throughout his reign he was occupied in the labors of the cabinet for eight hours each day. He had imbibed the loftiest ideas of his divine right to rule, and regarded himself as the absolute master of the lives, liberties, and property of his subjects, which he became in actual fact. Believing that he was given his authority

direct from Heaven, he regarded himself as the author and source as well as the dispenser of all law and justice. His will was to be the law of his kingdom, and for his conduct he was responsible only to God. His celebrated saying, "The state is myself," expresses in a few words the essence of his theory of government. He was faithful to his principles throughout his reign, and succeeded in making his kingdom one of the most perfect specimens of an absolute and irresponsible despotism known to history.

Louis' first efforts were directed to the finances, which had fallen into a sad state of confusion through the peculations of the brilliant but dishonest minister, Nicholas Fouquet. Fouquet was arrested and sent to the Bastille in September, 1661, and the king appointed in his place the famous Jean Baptiste Colbert, who, in addition to his duties as minister of finance, directed the affairs of the departments of commerce, agriculture, and public works. Colbert found the finances in about the same state the great Sully had found them in the reign of Henry IV., and he set to work with energy and skill to reform them. In the course of a few years he placed them upon a sure and stable footing, and raised the gross income of the state to upward of one hundred millions, of which over ninety millions found its way into the public treasury. Throughout his superintendence of the finances he was always able to provide funds for the costly wars and extravagance of the king, and that without greatly increasing the rate of taxation. He introduced a rigid economy into the administration of his departments, and thus saved vast sums for the king to squander. Colbert wisely fostered every species of industry which could contribute to the wealth of the kingdom, and so made the royal demands easier to be borne.

While he was thus infusing energy into every department of his government, Louis gave to Europe characteristic proof of his determination to maintain his royal dignity. The Spanish ambassador at London having offended him by taking precedence of the French ambassador, Louis demanded satisfaction of Philip IV. of Spain, and threatened war in case of his refusal to make amends for the affront. Philip was compelled to make an humble apology, and to send a special envoy to the French court, who promised in the presence of the whole

diplomatic body and in the name of his master never again to give similar cause of complaint. In the course of the same year he inflicted a similar mortification upon the pope himself. Some of the pontiff's Corsican guard having insulted the French ambassador at Rome, the pope (Alexander VII.) was compelled to offer an apology, disband his guard, and erect an obelisk at Rome, with an inscription relating the offence and its expiation.

Louis had entered upon the active portion of his reign with the determination to dismember Spain by annexing to his own crown her dominions in the Low Countries, and every act of the early years of his rule, which were passed in peace, was directed toward the furtherance of this object. He encouraged the Portuguese, who had won their independence of Spain, and brought about the marriage of Charles II. of England and the Portuguese Princess Catharine. He secured the good will of Charles by buying Dunkirk of him for five millions of livres in November, 1662. Having secured the friendship of England, Louis next entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with the United Provinces of Holland, and thus prevented their siding with Spain against him.

War broke out between England and Holland in 1665, and the Dutch appealed to Louis, as their ally, for aid. He was unwilling to go to war with England, and vainly attempted to mediate between the combatants. Finding it impossible to accomplish anything, Louis sent a force of 6,000 troops to the Dutch, and declared war against England in January, 1666. The war was fought chiefly at sea between the English and Dutch fleets. It was brought to a close by the peace of Breda on the 31st of July, 1667. England restored to France all the places in North America and the West Indies that had been taken from her during the struggle.

Before the close of this war, however, Louis had embarked in the great contest which he had long foreseen, and for which he had long been preparing. In September, 1665, Philip IV. of Spain died, and was succeeded by his only son Charles II., the issue of a second marriage. Brabant, Flanders, and all the Spanish possessions in the Low Countries were at once claimed by Louis XIV. on the plea that his wife, who was the child of the first marriage of Philip IV., had a superior claim to that of

Charles, who was the issue of his father's second marriage. The Spanish court refused to acknowledge the claim, and reminded Louis of his wife's surrender of all her rights at the time of her marriage. Louis answered that this surrender on the part of his wife was conditional upon her dowry, which had never been paid, and that it was therefore null and void. The argument was cut short by Louis, who on the 24th of May, 1667, poured his army under Marshal Turenne across the border of Flanders, and overran that province with scarcely any opposition. The majority of the towns submitted upon the first demand, but Lille did not surrender until the 28th of August. Louis now suddenly paused in his career of conquest, made a truce for three months with the Spaniards, and returned to Paris.

The ambitious designs and the rapid success of the King of France alarmed all Europe, and England and Holland resolved to put a stop to his aggrandizement. On the 23d of January, 1668, a treaty, known as the Triple Alliance, was signed at the Hague between England, Holland, and Sweden. These powers agreed to mediate a peace between France and Spain, and to compel an adjustment between them by a threat of war in case of their refusal. They engaged to obtain from Spain the cession of all the places already conquered by France, upon which condition Louis was to promise to cease to urge his claim upon the Spanish possessions in right of his wife. Before he was officially informed of this treaty, Louis had sent an army of 20,000 men under the Prince of Condé into Franche-Comté, which province was overrun in fifteen days. Well satisfied with this splendid exploit, Louis consented to treat for peace, and on the 2d of May, 1668, the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle was signed. Spain ceded to France all her conquests on the Sambre, the Scheldt, the Scarpe, and the Lys, and also Bergues and Furnes on the sea. France restored Franche-Comté, but in a crippled condition, all its fortresses having been dismantled by the French troops. The parties to the Triple Alliance, together with the emperor and the German states, guaranteed the integrity of the rest of the Spanish possessions.

Though the Triple Alliance was the means of ending this war, it was the origin of another of still greater importance and severity. The Dutch republic had mor-

tally offended Louis in presuming to aid in limiting the career of conquest he had marked out for himself, and he resolved to punish it. His ministers, Louvois and Colbert, encouraged the king's design by representing to him that before he could reduce the Spanish Netherlands, it was necessary to humble and subdue the states of Holland. Louis at once set to work to destroy the Triple Alliance, and succeeded in buying off the unprincipled Charles II. of England, who, in consideration of an annual subsidy of one hundred and twenty thousand pounds, the possession of the island of Walcheren, and two fortresses on the Scheldt in case of the conquest of Holland, agreed to desert his allies. He pledged himself to assist France with a force of 6,000 men and fifty ships of war, and to make a public profession of the Roman Catholic religion, and exert all his power to re-establish it in England. In case this effort to change the faith of the kingdom produced a rebellion in England, Louis engaged to assist Charles with men and money. The French king then secured the neutrality of Sweden and of the emperor, and formed an active alliance with the Electors of Cologne and Hanover and the Bishop of Munster. These things were accomplished by bribery. Many of the German princes organized themselves into a league to oppose the designs of the French king, and the Great Elector of Brandenburg remained the faithful friend and ally of Holland. Spain, anxious to check the increase of the French power, made an alliance with Holland in December, 1671.

In April, 1672, Louis began his wicked and impolitic war against the Dutch republic. With an army of 200,000 men he crossed the lower Rhine on the 12th of June, at three points, and during the next few weeks overran the provinces of Guelderland, Utrecht, Overysse, and a part of Holland. Louis was nominally in command of his army, which was really directed by Condé and Turenne.

The Dutch were at first rendered helpless by terror. The Grand Pensionary De Witt, hopeless of doing more than securing what yet remained to the republic, offered the most abject terms. Luvois, the French minister of war, induced Louis to reject these terms, and the refusal of the French king was made in such an insulting manner that a storm of popular indignation burst

forth against the pensionary, and a revolution followed, in which the Pensionary De Witt and his brother, the admiral, were murdered by the mob, and the direction of affairs passed into the hands of William, Prince of Orange, who was given dictatorial powers. It was a fortunate choice, as the sequel will show. William set to work to infuse new vigor into his countrymen, and to arouse in them a more determined spirit of resistance. He proposed to the states that, rather than yield to the French, the whole population should embark on board the fleet with such movable property as they could carry with them, and seek new homes among their possessions in the Indies.

The genius and determination of William soon placed matters on a different footing. The Dutch fleet was able to hold its own at sea against the combined fleets of France and England. On land the progress of the French was checked by the grim resolution of William, who opened the great sluices around Amsterdam and laid the country under water. The French were thus confined to the more elevated portions of the land, and the Dutch fleet was enabled to come up to the capital and co-operate in its defence. Valuable time was thus gained for preparation for resistance. The Elector of Brandenburg entered into an alliance with the Dutch, and the emperor, notwithstanding his promise of neutrality, also joined the alliance. An imperialist army of 40,000 men, under Montecuculi, marched upon the Rhine, but Turenne defended that river with such masterly ability that the imperialists were not able to effect the passage of it or to join the Prince of Orange. The Elector of Brandenburg lost patience, and retired into his own dominions, pursued by Turenne as far as the Elbe. These movements afforded the Dutch some relief, though they did nothing more for them.

In 1673 Louis again invaded Holland with a force of 30,000 men, and captured the important cities of Maastricht and Treves. In the same year he occupied the ten imperial cities of Alsace, the prefecture of which had been guaranteed him by the treaty of Westphalia, deprived them of all the privileges guaranteed them by that treaty, and reduced them to perfect submission to him. France was now threatened by a coalition between Holland, the empire, Spain, and several of the German states, and the struggle seemed about to become a

European war. The Prince of Orange captured Naarden after a siege of twelve days, and, in spite of Turenne's efforts to prevent it, effected a junction with the army of Montecuculi. The allies then captured Bonn after a short siege, and thus obtained the command of the Rhine. England had been for some time anxious to put an end to the degrading alliance which her king had formed with France, and at length the parliament compelled Charles to abandon his connection with Louis, and to make peace with Holland. A treaty between that country and England was signed in February, 1674. Louis, thus left with Sweden as his only ally, was obliged to evacuate Holland, and retire towards his own frontiers. The republic was saved from the ambition of the "great king," who, of all his conquests, retained only Grave and Maestricht.

The theatre of the war was now entirely changed. In May, 1674, Louis invaded Franche-Comté, and by the 1st of July reduced it to submission. This time he meant to hold on to his conquests in this quarter. Turenne with an inferior force drove the imperialists out of Alsace, and ravaged the Palatinate with a barbarity which has left an indelible stain upon his name. Later in the year the imperialists gained some advantages in Alsace, but by a brilliant campaign in the depth of the winter, which is regarded as the most splendid effort of his genius, Turenne drove them across the Rhine again, and secured Alsace permanently for France. A severe battle was fought at Seneffe, in Flanders, on the 11th of August, 1674, between the French under Condé and the allies under William of Orange. The result was indecisive, but the campaign closed to the general advantage of the allies.

In 1675 Louis again crossed the Rhine with a powerful army under Turenne, but on the 27th of July that great commander was killed by a spent cannon-ball, and the French army was forced, after a bloody conflict at Altenheim, to recross the Rhine. Turenne was honored with a splendid funeral, and was buried in the Abbey of St. Denis, amid the kings of France. He was succeeded in his command by the Prince of Condé, the only man in France capable of carrying out the dead hero's plans with credit. Condé found that the imperial army, under Montecuculi, had passed the Rhine at Strasburg, and were besieging

Haguenau. He forced them to raise the siege of that place, and put a stop to their advance; but, following out the system of Turenne, refused to be drawn into a general engagement. At length Montecuculi withdrew from Alsace, and went into winter quarters at Spiers. Condé now finding himself too old for active service, resigned his command and retired to his estates, where he passed the remainder of his life in privacy. He died in 1686. This was also Montecuculi's last campaign; the veteran was vanquished by the same power that had ended the career of Condé.

In 1676 the principal events of the war occurred at sea. In three naval battles in the Mediterranean, off the coast of Sicily, the French were entirely successful; and in the last of these engagements De Ruyter, the heroic commander of the Dutch fleet, was mortally wounded.

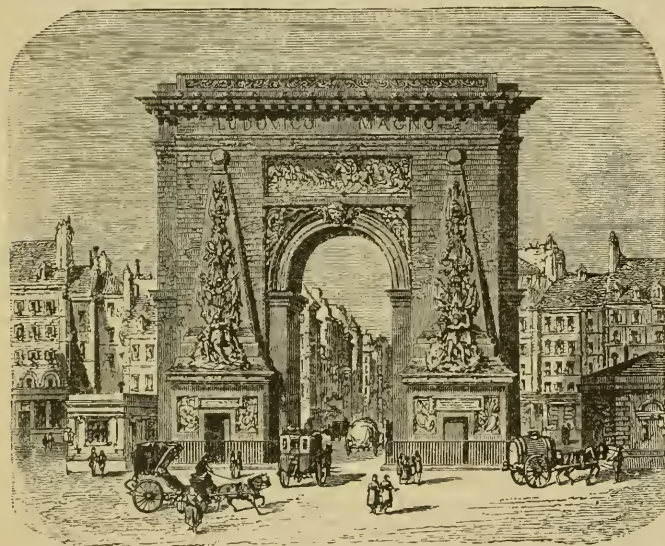
In 1677 the French army under the king and Marshal Luxembourg laid siege to Valenciennes. The operations were directed by the great engineer Vauban, and the town was quickly taken. The capture of Cambrai and St. Omer soon followed, and Luxembourg inflicted a sharp defeat at Cassel, on the 11th of April, upon the Prince of Orange, who was marching to the relief of St. Omer. On the Rhine frontier the French army was commanded by the Marshal de Créquy, who in this campaign proved himself the worthy successor of Turenne, and one of the first soldiers of France. He defeated the Duke of Lorraine at Kochersberg, near Strasburg, and captured the city of Freyburg on the 16th of November.

In the meantime measures had been set on foot for a close of the war, and through the mediation of Sweden a congress had been assembled at Nimwegen in 1675. The Dutch, who had been the chief sufferers by the conflict, were anxious to conclude a separate peace with France; but this plan was urgently opposed by William, who wished to win England over to his side and compel Louis to make peace upon terms favorable to Protestantism. Charles II. had again sold himself to Louis, this time for a pension of 200,000 livres per annum, and had promised not to form any alliance without the consent of France. The English Parliament, however, warmly supported the views of William, and the House of Commons urged the king to declare war against France, promising him a liberal

support. The pressure upon Charles grew stronger every day, and at length he was compelled to accede to the national wish. William of Orange repaired to England, and on the 23d of October, 1677, was married to the Princess Mary, the eldest daughter of the Duke of York, and in December of that year an offensive and defensive alliance between England and Holland was concluded. The two powers agreed to force the French king to accept terms of peace. Louis was not averse to peace, but was determined to make his own terms. By a bold movement he seized Ypres and Ghent, the possession of which enabled him to obtain his own conditions. With the news of these conquests, the Prince of Orange received satisfactory evidence that the

gun for the subjugation of Holland. On the 5th of February, 1679, the treaty was signed by the emperor, and the war was over.

The peace of Nimwegen saw Louis XIV. at the summit of his power and glory. The citizens of Paris solemnly bestowed upon him the title of "the Great," and erected the triumphal arches of the Porte St. Martin and Porte St. Denis in his honor. He was the most powerful sovereign in Europe, and he was greatly elated by his successes, which he imagined were due to his own merits. He regarded himself as master of Europe as well as of France. The treaty had not satisfied him, and in September, 1681, he seized the ancient free city of Strasburg and annexed it to his crown. It



PORTE ST. DENIS, PARIS.

King of England was insincere in his alliance. This determined the Dutch ministers to accept the terms offered by Louis, and to enter into a separate treaty with him regardless of their allies. Accordingly the treaty of Nimwegen was signed between Holland and France on the 14th of August, 1678. Holland ceded to France her settlements in Senegal and Guiana, which had been captured by the French. On the 17th of September Spain signed the treaty, ceding to France all of Franche-Comté and eleven towns on the frontier of Flanders, among which were Valenciennes, Cambrai, Ypres, and St. Omer—all important fortresses. Thus Spain was the chief loser by the war which had been be-

made impregnable by fortifications constructed by Vauban, and was held by France until 1870. Encouraged by this success, he continued his depredations. A league of the European powers was formed by the Prince of Orange to enforce the terms of the treaty of Nimwegen, but they were all so much exhausted by the war that they were not willing to renew hostilities. Louis was enabled to wrest twenty cities from the neighboring princes and annex them to his dominions. Between 1681 and 1683 he overran the province of Luxemburg with his army, and made

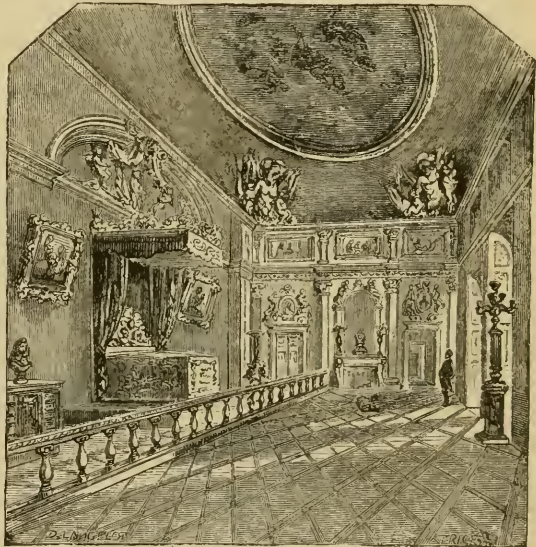
it a part of his kingdom. War was evidently on the point of breaking out again, when the states general of Holland interposed, and on the 15th of August, 1684, negotiated a twenty years' truce between France, Spain, and the empire. It was only a temporary settlement. The powers that had been robbed of their territory by Louis were fully determined to make another effort to crush him. Though he was at the height of his power, he had aroused the hatred of all Europe, and had sown the seed which were to bring forth countless troubles and mortifications in his later years.

Thus far we have considered Louis in relation to his foreign policy. We must

now examine his character as a man, and relate some of the most notable instances of his internal government. During the earlier years of his reign Louis gave himself up to the unrestrained indulgence of his licentious passions. He openly insulted his queen by retaining at court the successive mistresses to whom his affections were given for the time. His first mistress was the beautiful and unfortunate Louise de la Vallière, who, after having borne him two children, retired to a convent, heart-broken and penitent, in 1674. She was succeeded in the royal affections by the Marchioness de Montespan, who continued to hold her position for many years, and bore eight children to the king, all of whom he legitimated. Madame de Montespan chose as the governess of her children Françoise D'Aubigné, the widow of the comic poet Scarron. She was good-looking and highly accomplished, attractive in manner, and possessed of great tact. The king saw her frequently while in charge of his children, and she acquired over him an influence which she retained during the remainder of his life. As Madame de Maintenon she was destined to play an important part in the history of the latter part of this reign. In spite of her many good qualities, she was an uncompromising bigot in matters of religion, and this quality was destined to make her the evil genius of France.

Madame de Maintenon professed to be shocked by the evil ways of the king, and set to work to reform him. Louis was as superstitious as he was licentious, and as cruel as he was superstitious. Madame de Maintenon took advantage of these traits to persuade him that he could not render a better atonement for his evil life than by ridding his kingdom of heresy. France at this time contained about one million of Protestants, who had grown rich and prosperous under the wise protection of the Edict of Nantes. They were sober, earnest, faithful men, and had nearly monopolized the productive industry of the country. Their silks, paper, velvet, and other manufactured articles were the boast of the kingdom; and through their efforts France seemed on the point of becoming the chief manufacturing country of the world. The reformers were excellent farmers and vine-dressers, and wherever the

land gave evidence of more than usually skilful culture, the owner was almost sure to be a Huguenot. The Huguenots were noted for their integrity as well as their industry. "The Huguenot's word was as good as his bond, and to be 'honest as a Huguenot' passed into a proverb. This quality of integrity—which is essential in the merchant who deals with foreigners whom he never sees—so characterized the business transactions of the Huguenots that the foreign trade of the country fell almost entirely into their hands. The English and Dutch were always found more ready to open a correspondence with them than with the Roman Catholic merchants, though religious affinity may have had some influ-



BED-CHAMBER OF LOUIS XIV., PALACE OF VERSAILLES.

ence in determining the preference. And thus at Bordeaux, at Rouen, at Caen, at Metz, at Nismes, and the other great centres of commerce, the foreign business of France came to be almost entirely conducted by Huguenot merchants." Colbert had fostered the industries of the Huguenots, and had encouraged them to prosecute them in every possible quarter.

The Jesuits and the Roman Catholic Church had always looked with stern disfavor upon the tolerance shown to the Protestants, and the former had exerted themselves with some degree of success to renew the persecutions of the last century. For twenty years the Huguenots had been treated with stern severity, and notwith-

standing their great usefulness to the state, the king had been led to regard them with open hostility. The Jesuits now took advantage of Louis' infatuation for Madame de Maintenon, and secured her alliance by offering to favor the scheme upon which she had set her heart. The death of Queen Maria Theresa, in 1683, had left Louis free to marry again, and Madame de Maintenon had determined to become his wife. She carefully established her influence over him, and, as we have said, set to work to persuade him that he could render heaven ample satisfaction for his past sins by rooting out heresy from his kingdom. She was materially assisted by the bad health of her royal paramour, who was anxious during his fits of illness to quiet the qualms of conscience which he experienced for his past dissoluteness of life. Penance must be done, but not by himself. "Those who boasted of having converted him," says Sismondi, "had never represented to him more than two duties—that of renouncing his incontinence, and that of extirpating heresy in his dominions." Madame de Maintenon was well seconded by the Jesuit Père la Chaise, the king's confessor. Influenced by them, Louis let loose upon his Huguenot subjects all the horrors that bigotry could devise or a fiendish cruelty execute. In 1683, the year of Colbert's death, the military executions began. Life was made intolerable to the Huguenots. Every avocation was closed against them, and they were given the alternatives of abjuring their faith or starving. Their churches were closed or destroyed; their pastors forbidden to preach; and whole congregations were butchered by the royal troops. From Grenoble to Bordeaux cruelty reigned supreme. The reformed were massacred in the Viverrais and the Cevennes. It was generally understood that a Huguenot had no claim to the protection of the law, and that any one who wished to maltreat him was free to do so. Children were torn from their parents to be brought up Catholics. The fiercest and most brutal of the royal soldiery were turned against the helpless communities of the reformed. The horrors of the *Dragonades*, as these military executions were termed, cannot be related here. We have not the space. A refusal to abjure the Protestant faith was invariably followed by death or imprisonment. Many yielded and were "converted." In September, 1685,

Luvois wrote to the king: "Sixty thousand conversions have been made in the district of Bordeaux, and twenty thousand in that of Montauban. So rapid is the progress that before the end of the month ten thousand Protestants will not be left in the district of Bordeaux, where there were one hundred and fifty thousand on the 15th of last month."

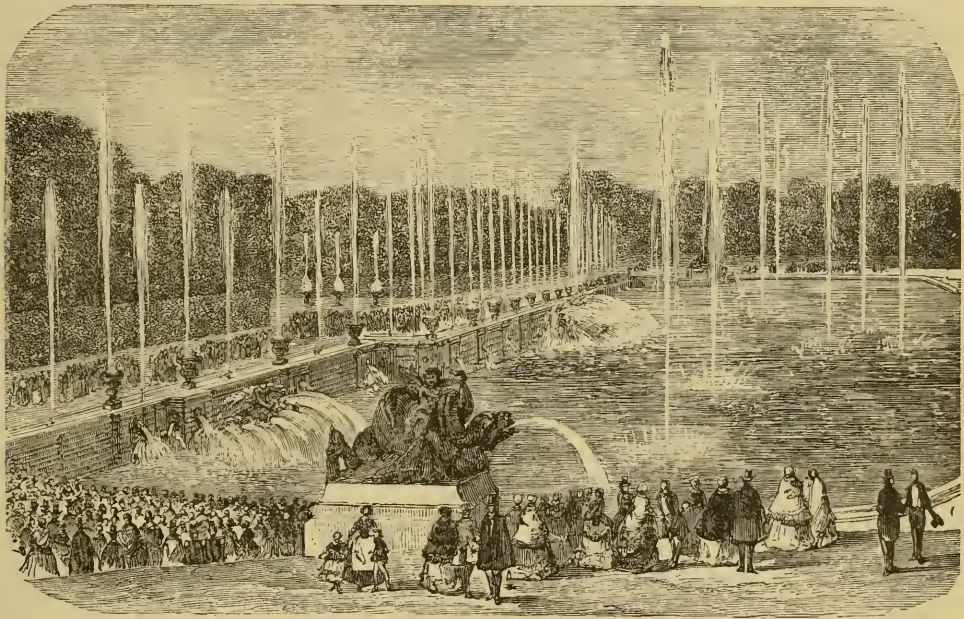
"The farce of Louis' conversion went on," says Smiles. "In August, 1684, Madame de Maintenon wrote thus: 'The king is prepared to do everything that shall be judged useful for the welfare of religion; this undertaking will cover him with glory before God and man.' The dragonnades were then in full career throughout the southern provinces, and a long wail of anguish was rising from the persecuted all over France. In 1685 the king's sufferings increased, and his conversion became imminent. His miserable body was beginning to decay; but he was willing to make a sacrifice to God of what the devil had left of it."

The Jesuits now made an agreement with Madame de Maintenon to advise the king to marry her on condition that she should induce him to revoke the Edict of Nantes. The infamous bargain was carried out. Père la Chaise advised a secret marriage, and the ceremony was performed at Versailles by the Archbishop of Paris in the presence of the confessor and two more witnesses. The union was never acknowledged, and the position of Madame de Maintenon at court remained in consequence anomalous and equivocal; but her influence over the king was supreme, and immediately after the marriage she induced him to revoke the Edict of Nantes. The revocation was made on the 17th of October, 1685, and the Huguenots were deprived of every privilege granted them by Henry IV. and Louis XIII. The exercise of the Protestant religion was absolutely prohibited in every part of the kingdom, except in Alsace; the destruction of the Protestant churches was commanded, and their pastors were ordered to quit France within fifteen days. The reformed themselves were forbidden to leave the kingdom on pain of confiscation of their property and penal servitude in the galleys. They were required to embrace the Catholic religion and to cause their children to be educated in that faith.

The revocation of the Edict of Nantes

was greeted with rejoicings by the Catholic world, but it struck a death-blow to the prosperity of France. The fierce soldiery of the French army, and thousands of mercenaries hired abroad, were turned against the Huguenots in all parts of France, and the most dreadful cruelties followed. Every Huguenot dwelling was invaded by these savage dragoons, from the hut of the herdsman to the castle of the noble, and their occupants subjected to the grossest outrages. Men and women were murdered at their own firesides, little children were snatched from their parents' arms and put to death in their sight, and wives and maidens were ravished amidst the ruins of

The persecution was so severe that the reformed fled from France by thousands, notwithstanding the cruel laws against emigration. Many were shot down by the soldiers in their efforts to escape; and many others were captured and sent to the galleys. The purest and gentlest of men were sent there and chained to the side of the vilest criminals. Over each galley was placed a Jesuit chaplain. To each captive Huguenot he constantly held out the offer of pardon if he would abandon his religion for that of Rome. In spite of the sufferings of the captives, there were few apostates among them. About 200,000 persons fled from France, and many thou-



BASIN OF NEPTUNE—VERSAILLES.

their homes. The Huguenots were forbidden to bury their dead, or to comfort their dying. The bodies of those who died without the last offices of the Roman Church were removed from their dwellings by the public hangman, and thrown into the common sewer. Those who refused the viaticum when sick were punished, if they recovered, with the galleys, or imprisonment for life, and the confiscation of all their property.

It has been said that the king probably knew nothing of these horrors; but a sovereign who gave such close personal attention to the affairs of his kingdom could not have been kept in ignorance of these everyday occurrences.

sands were killed in the dragonnades. Among the exiles were some of the noblest names of France. Marshal Schomberg, one of Louis' most gifted commanders, escaped into Holland and joined the army of the Prince of Orange. Many literary men of high distinction, such as Basnage, Bayle, Jurieu, Lenfant, Beausobre, Saurin, Rapin, and others, were among the exiles. The greater number of the refugees, however, belonged to the industrial, commercial and manufacturing classes. The industry of France was almost destroyed by the emigration. Lyons, Tours, and Nantes were ruined. The first-named city was a century in recovering its prosperity; the last has not yet rallied from the losses of

the emigration. The industry thus lost to France was transplanted to other countries. England, Holland, Switzerland and Protestant Germany were enriched by the skill and labor of the exiles. New branches of manufacture and commerce were established in those countries, which have grown steadily until the present day.

The cruelties practised upon the Huguenots aroused a fierce hatred of France and her tyrannical king in all Protestant Europe, and the position of William of Orange, who was universally regarded as the leader of the Protestant cause, as well as the inveterate foe of Louis, was greatly improved. William was able to organize a powerful coalition against France in July, 1686. It was known as the League of Augsburg, and the parties to it were the emperor, the Kings of Spain and Sweden, the Electors of Bavaria and Saxony, and the Elector Palatine. Holland did not at once join it, as it was not to William's interest to break openly with Louis just yet. He was secretly preparing to drive his father-in-law, James II., from the English throne. He skilfully concealed his designs from Louis until it was too late for that king to oppose them. Louis angrily warned William that any attempt against James II. would lead to war with France, but the League of Augsburg kept him so busy that he could not interfere with William's movements, and the Prince of Orange was able to embark without molestation in the expedition which, in November, 1688, drove James II. from England, and placed the Prince of Orange and his wife on the English throne as William and Mary. James and his queen and infant son sought refuge in France, where they were generously received and maintained by Louis.

The accession of William and Mary to the English throne was a severe blow to Louis, as it deprived him of his only ally, and made England his most resolute enemy. He determined to lose no time in striking a vigorous blow at the coalition against him. The leading states of Europe had combined to resist his insatiable and ever-grasping lust for territory, and either he must abandon his schemes of spoliation or break up the combination opposed to him. Taking advantage of the election of a Bavarian prince to the electorate of Cologne over a candidate of his own, as a pretext for beginning the war, he invaded the Palatinate in October, 1688, with an army of

80,000 men, commanded by the dauphin and Marshals Duras and Vauban. Philippsburg was taken after a month's siege, and Mannheim was reduced immediately afterward. The whole of the Palatinate on the left bank of the Rhine was occupied by a division under the Marquis de Boufflers, and Dinant, in the bishopric of Liege, was seized by Marshal d'Humières. Unable to occupy the whole of the Palatinate, Louis, at the instigation of the brutal Luvois, his minister of war, caused it to be laid waste with fire and sword. Heidelberg, with its magnificent electoral palace, Mannheim, Worms, Spire, Oppenheim, and Bingen were burned, and the beautiful country was made a blackened desert. Those of the inhabitants who could retire took refuge in other countries, but over one hundred thousand of the peasantry wandered helpless amid the ruins of their homes, imploring the curse of heaven upon the merciless tyrant who had reduced them to such sufferings. The effect upon Germany of the cruelties of the French was to arouse a passionate hatred of them in the German mind, which has not yet died out.

Another important result of these cruelties was the formation of a new coalition against France, consisting of England, Holland, and the parties to the League of Augsburg. Three armies of the allies took the field. The first, under the Prince of Waldeck, entered the Netherlands, defeated Marshal D'Humières at Walcourt, and forced the French back from the line of the Sambre. The second, under the Duke of Lorraine, and the third, under the Elector of Brandenburg, advanced upon the Rhine, and took Mayence and Bonn, after which they went into winter quarters in the Palatinate, which was still able to support them in spite of the barbarous ravages of the French.

The soul of the coalition was England, now under the vigorous rule of William of Orange. Louis endeavored to weaken England by assisting James II. to recover his throne. He sent James to Ireland with a considerable body of troops, in March, 1689, and in the summer of 1690 despatched a fleet of seventy-eight ships-of-the-line to make a descent upon England. This fleet was encountered off Beachy Head on the 30th of June by the allied fleets of England and Holland. The Dutch sustained the brunt of the engagement with great gallantry, but the English admiral is said to

have held off, as he was secretly in the interests of James. The allied fleet was compelled to withdraw and seek shelter in the Thames, and for a while it was confidently expected that England would be invaded by the French. On the day after this engagement, however (July 1st, 1690), William totally defeated the forces of James in Ireland in the battle of the Boyne. James soon after fled to France, and the war in Ireland was brought to a close in July, 1691. The French troops were allowed to return to their own country, and with them went a large body of Irish, who did good service to the King of France.

Early in 1690 Louis appointed Marshal Luxemburg to the command of his army in the Netherlands. Luxemburg forced the passage of the Sambre in spite of the resistance of the Prince of Waldeck, and defeated him in the great battle of Fleurus, on the 30th of June, 1690. In the spring of 1691 the French army, commanded by the king in person, captured Mons after a siege of nine days. In the summer of this year Luvois, the able but brutal minister of war, died. His death was regretted by few save the king, who found it hard to fill his place. In May, 1692, a French army of 30,000 men was assembled near Cherbourg for the purpose of invading England and replacing James upon his lost throne. It was commanded by King James and Marshal Bellefonds. Tourville, with a fleet of forty-four ships-of-the-line, was ready to embark the troops, when he was ordered by Louis to attack an English and Dutch fleet of ninety-nine ships-of-the-line which had entered the channel. Though he did not expect victory in the face of such odds, Tourville obeyed the royal order without hesitation, and attacked the allies on the 19th of May off the Isle of Wight. He held his own during the day, but at night withdrew. The most of his vessels gained the roadstead of La Hague, where they were stranded with their broadsides to the enemy. They were attacked by the English, under Admiral Rooke, on the 23d of May, and were utterly destroyed. James II. witnessed the engagement from the cliffs, and though it destroyed his hopes, could not restrain his admiration at the heroism of the English sailors. Louis was so greatly disheartened by the loss of his fleet that he abandoned the cause of James, who spent the remainder of his life in pious seclusion at St. Germain's.

On the 25th of May, 1692, Louis began in person the siege of Namur, the strongest fortress of the Low Countries. The skill of Vauban was irresistible, and the fortress surrendered on the 5th of June. King William advanced to the relief of the place with an army of 70,000 men, but Luxemburg kept him back with such skill that he was unable to cross the Sambre at any point. On the 24th of July William, wishing to end the campaign by a decisive blow, attacked Marshal Luxemburg at Steinkirk, in Hainault. The battle was contested with great obstinacy, but William was at length obliged to retreat. He conducted this movement with his accustomed skill, and retired to Brussels.

William opened the campaign of 1694 by seeking to draw Louis, who was in command of the French army, into a decisive engagement near Louvain. Although the conditions were greatly in favor of the French king, he declined to meet his great antagonist, and abruptly left the army and sent a part of his troops into Germany. This act greatly damaged his reputation as a commander, and he never again appeared at the head of his army. On the 29th of July the bloody battle of Neerwinden was fought between King William and Marshal Luxemburg. It resulted in the defeat of the king, who conducted his retreat with that masterly ability which caused his adversaries to say that he was more formidable in defeat than others in victory. In the same year Marshal Catinat defeated the Duke of Savoy at Marsiglia. On the 27th of June Admiral Tourville attacked the English fleet under Admiral Rooke in Lagos Bay. The English were engaged in convoying an immense fleet of merchantmen richly laden. Four men-of-war and forty merchantmen were captured by the French. The English commerce also suffered greatly from the ravages of the French privateers.

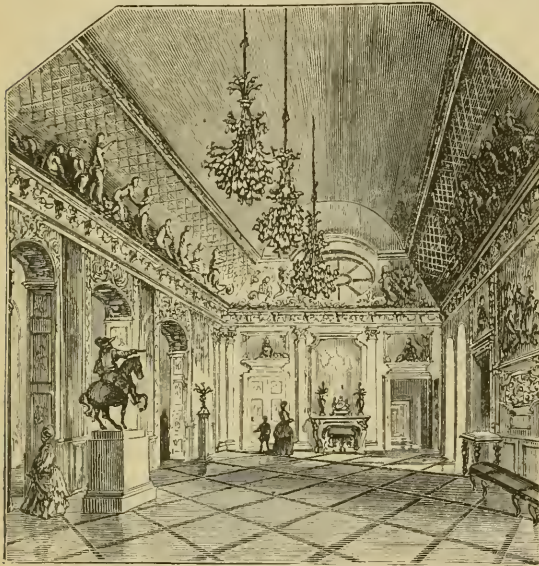
In January, 1695, the ablest of the French commanders, Marshal Luxemburg, died at the age of sixty-seven. He was succeeded by Marshal Villeroy, who began his career by allowing King William to recapture Namur, a success which produced a marked improvement in the fortunes of the allies.

France had now been for seven years engaged in a constant and ruinous war, and was exhausted. Her finances were no longer directed by the genius of Colbert,

and were involved in confusion and dishonesty. Louis was anxious for peace, and he set to work to break up the coalition. By surrendering Pignerol and restoring Nice and all the conquered possessions of the house of Savoy, he succeeded in inducing the Duke of Savoy to abandon the coalition and sign a treaty of peace and alliance with France on the 30th of May, 1696. The example of the duke, though condemned at first, was soon followed by the other members of the coalition. Sweden offered her mediation for a general peace, and the treaty of Ryswick was signed on the 30th of September, 1697, between France, England, Spain and Holland.

which would enable him to attempt the execution of the designs he had long contemplated upon the succession to the Spanish crown. Charles II., the reigning King of Spain, was slowly dying and was without heirs. His throne was claimed in the event of his death by three parties.

These parties derived their claims from the daughters of Philip IV. The elder daughter, Maria Theresa, had married Louis XIV. of France, and the younger Margarita had espoused the Emperor Leopold. The issue of the elder daughter was clearly entitled to the succession, but the Spaniards pleaded the surrender of Maria Theresa upon her marriage, of all her rights, as debarring her issue from the royal inheritance. Louis, however, maintained that this surrender had been rendered null and void by the non-payment of the dowry upon which it depended, and that the claim of his wife's children was good and valid. The emperor claimed the throne for his second son, the Archduke Charles, the child of Margarita, the daughter of Philip IV. A third claim was advanced in behalf of the Electoral Prince of Bavaria, whose mother was the daughter of the Emperor Leopold and the Empress Margarita. He was generally regarded by the Spanish people and by Charles II. himself as the rightful heir to the throne. Louis XIV. did not expect to secure the success of his claim without difficulty, but he hoped by continuing his intrigues to obtain at least a share of the Spanish dominions. To this end he negotiated a treaty with William III. in October,



SALLE DE L'ŒIL-DE-BŒUF—PALACE OF VERSAILLES.

France surrendered to Spain all her conquests in Catalonia, the Duchy of Luxemburg, and the towns of Charleroi, Mons, Ath and Cambrai. Louis acknowledged William III. as King of England, and engaged to make no further effort in behalf of James. A month later the Emperor Leopold, with great reluctance, signed the treaty. France relinquished to him all the imperial territory gained by her since the treaty of Nimwegen, but retained Strasburg. The duchy of Lorraine was restored to its rightful duke. These were humiliating terms to Louis, but the necessities of his exhausted kingdom allowed him no choice. Peace was indispensable to France, and besides, Louis was anxious to obtain a respite

1698, for the partition of the Spanish dominions, upon the death of Charles II. Spain, with her possessions in America and the Spanish Netherlands, were to be assigned to the Electoral Prince of Bavaria; France was to have the kingdom of Naples and Sicily, certain specified seaports in Tuscany and the border province of Guipuzcoa, while the duchy of Milan was to go to the Archduke Charles. In spite of the precautions of the contracting parties, Charles II. was informed of this insolent attempt to divide his dominions without consulting him, and at once declared by a solemn act of succession the Prince of Bavaria the sole heir to the dominions of Spain. Soon after this the Prince of Bavaria died suddenly

at Brussels on the 6th of February, 1699, and it was suspected that his death was due to the determination of Austria to remove him.

Upon the death of the Electoral Prince of Bavaria, Charles II. of Spain was induced by the French influence, which now reigned supreme at his court, to declare Philip of Anjou, the second son of the dauphin, and the grandson of Louis XIV., his heir. On the 1st of November, 1700, Charles died. Louis XIV. at first hesitated whether to remain faithful to the treaty with William III., or to sustain his grandson as King of Spain. He finally decided to adopt the latter course. The young prince was proclaimed King of Spain at Madrid as Philip V., and on the 5th of December left Versailles for his new dominions. Philip was acknowledged as king in all parts of the Spanish dominions, and his title was recognized by England, Holland, and several other foreign powers. The emperor, as we have stated elsewhere, protested against his elevation, and prepared for war for the purpose of securing the Spanish crown for his son, the Archduke Charles. The other European powers were greatly averse to war, and a general contest might have been avoided had not Louis exasperated England and alarmed Holland by his mistaken policy at this period. Upon the death of James II., he recognized his eldest son, the pretender, as King of England, in violation of his engagements with William, and about the same time expelled the Dutch garrisons from several towns in the Netherlands which had been granted to Holland as a frontier in that direction. William III., indignant at the recognition of the pretender, which was equivalent to a declaration of war against England, brought about the second grand alliance between England, the emperor, Holland, Prussia, and the Elector Palatine. The objects of this alliance were to prevent the union of the crowns of France and Spain in the person of the same sovereign, to procure reasonable satisfaction for the emperor respecting the Spanish succession, and the establishment of the Spanish Netherlands as a barrier between France and Holland.

Hostilities broke out in Italy before this alliance was concluded. The imperial army, under Prince Eugene of Savoy, entered Lombardy in May, 1701, and drove the French under Marshal Catinat from the region between the Adige and the Adda.

Marshal Villeroi succeeded Catinat, but was beaten by Eugene at Chiari and Cremona. The year closed to the great disadvantage of the French, and before the season for active operations arrived again, William III. died on the 8th of March, 1702. His successor, Queen Anne, declared her intention to continue his policy, and placed Lord Marlborough in command of the English forces on the continent.

Marlborough was invested with the command of the imperial forces also, and in the campaign of 1702, by his masterly manœuvres, forced the French under Marshal Boufflers to abandon the whole line of the Meuse. Venloo, Stephansworth, and Ruremonde surrendered to him in succession, and on the 28th of October Liege was taken by storm. This brilliant campaign raised Marlborough to the front rank of European generals, and greatly increased the importance of England in European affairs. The war in Piedmont was conducted by Prince Eugene, and for a few months Philip V. nominally commanded the French and Spanish forces. No decisive event occurred in this quarter during this year. The campaign in Germany was also indecisive. At sea the allies were more fortunate. On the 22d of October their fleet succeeded in capturing or sinking in the Bay of Vigo the entire Spanish West India fleet, laden with gold and silver.

In 1703 Marlborough, who had been created a duke, conquered the electorate of Cologne, the ruler of which was the ally of France, as was also his brother, the Elector of Bavaria. The allies likewise captured Limburg and Guelders. The principal successes of this year were won by the French Marshal Villars. He passed the Rhine and effected a junction with the Elector of Bavaria in the valley of the Danube. The Austrian forces were engaged in suppressing an insurrection in Hungary, and the way to Vienna was open. Villars proposed to the elector to march at once upon the imperial capital, which must have fallen, but the elector shrank from such a bold movement, and undertook the conquest of the Tyrol. He seized Innsbruck, but was soon driven out by the Tyrolese, who rose against him *en masse*. The imperial army now entered Bavaria in two columns and threatened Munich. By a skilful manœuvre, Villars interposed between these columns, and on the 20th of September defeated one under Count Styrum at Hoch-

städt. Villars now again urged the elector to invade Austria, and upon being refused a second time, asked the king to relieve him of his command. He was succeeded by Marshal Marsin. A little later the elector endeavored to carry out Villars' plan, but it was too late; the decisive moment had gone by. The advantages won for France by Villars were counterbalanced by the defection of the Duke of Savoy, who abandoned France and Spain, and on the 25th of October joined the allies, thus cutting off the communication between Spain and Italy. Portugal also made a perpetual alliance with England and the United Netherlands. By this accession to their cause the allies obtained the means of invading the Spanish Peninsula at any moment. They now enlarged their plans, and in addition to claiming the Spanish possessions in Italy and the Netherlands for the Archduke Charles, claimed also the crown of Spain for him.

During this war an insurrection had been in progress among the Protestants of the Cevennes mountains, on the borders of Languedoc. They were driven into revolt by the cruelties they had suffered at the hands of the Romish church and the government, and for several years maintained a vigorous and successful defence of their mountain homes. Upon his return from Germany Marshal Villars was sent by the king to put down the revolt. He succeeded in doing so by a mixture of firmness and generosity in his treatment of the rebels. The chief troubles were quieted by the close of the year 1704, but the rebellion was not totally suppressed until 1710.

In the year 1704 the war was transferred to Germany. Marlborough crossed the Neckar on the 4th of June, and effected a junction with the imperial army under Prince Eugene. On the 13th of August these commanders gained a decisive victory over the French and Bavarians at Blenheim. In consequence of this great victory the French were obliged to retreat beyond the Rhine and leave Germany to the allies. The Elector of Bavaria fled from his dominions to the Netherlands. Germany was freed from invasion, and France was seriously threatened. In August the allied fleet under Admiral Rooke captured the strong fortress of Gibraltar, and defeated the effort of the French fleet to regain possession of it. In October, 1705, the city of Barcelona was taken by the Earl of Peter-

borough, and Charles III. was proclaimed and acknowledged throughout Aragon, Catalonia, and Valencia. In Italy the French were more fortunate, and in August, 1705, the Duke of Vendome defeated Prince Eugene at Cassano.

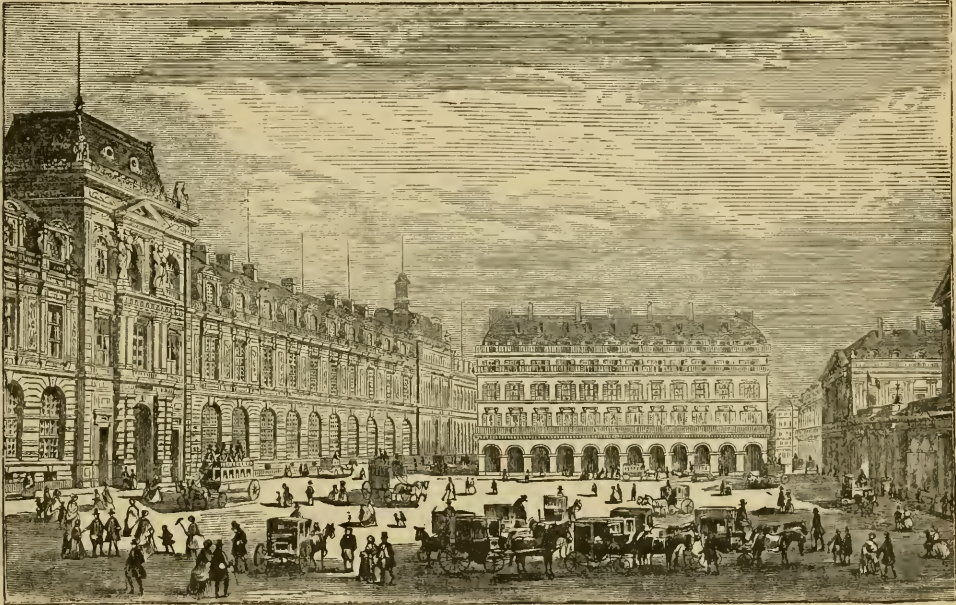
The events of the year 1706 were very disastrous to the French. In April Prince Eugene gained another victory over the French at Calcinato, and was preparing to follow up this success by driving them out of Turin, when he was ordered to join the Duke of Marlborough in Flanders. The junction was successfully effected, and on the 23d of May the French army, under Marshal Villeroy, was overwhelmingly defeated at Ramillies. The whole of Brabant and the greater part of Flanders fell into the hands of the allies in consequence of this victory. Brussels was occupied by them and Charles III. was proclaimed. Antwerp, Ghent, Ostend, Menin, Termonde, and Ath submitted shortly afterwards. In the autumn of 1706 Turin was invested by the French under the Duke of Orleans, the nephew of the King of France, and Marshal Marsin. Prince Eugene, having returned from Flanders, effected a junction with the Duke of Savoy, and advanced to the relief of Turin. On the 7th of September he stormed the French intrenchments and drove the besieging army in utter rout towards the Alps, capturing the French camp and the whole train of siege artillery. Lombardy was at once occupied by the victors, and Charles VII. was proclaimed at Milan. In Spain the allies were no less fortunate. Alicante and Carthagena were captured by the English fleet, and Madrid, from which Philip V. and his court had fled, was occupied by the army under Lord Galway. Charles III. was proclaimed at Madrid, and Philip V. fled to Burgos. It was seriously proposed at Versailles that Philip should relinquish Spain to his rival, and retain the vast colonial possessions of that country as his kingdom. Louis XIV., however, refused to sacrifice the interests of his grandson.

The year 1707 brought a change in the state of affairs. The Spaniards, preferring the French to the Austrian succession, rose against the allies and drove them into Valencia, and Philip re-entered Madrid amid the rejoicings of the people. In the decisive battle of Almanza, the Anglo-Portuguese army, under Lord Galway, was routed by the Duke of Berwick, a son of

James II., who was in the service of the French. The disaffected provinces of Spain submitted to Philip, and the Bourbon cause was triumphantly established in that country. An invasion of France in the direction of Provence by the allied army under Prince Eugene and the Duke of Savoy was unfortunate. They were forced by Marshal Tessé to raise the siege of Toulon after having sacrificed over 10,000 men. Vendome held Marlborough in check in the Low Countries during the year, and Marshal Villars performed the brilliant feat of forcing the lines of Stolhoffen, until now believed to be impregnable. In Italy, however, the French were obliged to abandon

on all sides. Chamillart, the finance minister, was replaced by Desmarets, a nephew of the great Colbert, but he was powerless to afford relief to the country. Louis had nearly ruined the industry of France to gratify his religious bigotry, and he was reaping the results of his unstatesmanlike policy.

In 1708 the allies took the field in heavy force in the Netherlands, under Marlborough and Eugene, and on the 11th of July gained a brilliant victory over Vendome at Oudenarde. This success placed the northern frontier of France at their mercy, and Artois and Picardy were rapidly overrun. Lille was besieged, and was forced to sur-



PLACE DU PALAIS ROYAL, PARIS, SHOWING THE PALACE AND THE LOUVRE.

the whole of northern Italy, and a small imperial army under Marshal Daun conquered the kingdom of Naples and proclaimed Charles III.

Though France was thus momentarily successful, her situation was growing more critical every year. The country was exhausted by the enormous cost of the war. Every means of raising money had been tried—"loans at ruinous rates of interest, the creation of new and frivolous offices, assignments on the revenue of future years, vexatious taxes, immense issues of paper money." Each new expedient was followed by a fresh embarrassment, and the nation was discontented and murmurs were heard

render on the 22d of October, after a gallant defence by Marshal Boufflers. Ghent and Bruges were taken a little later. Brussels was regained from the Elector of Bavaria, and all Spanish and a part of French Flanders passed into the hands of the allies.

To add to the miseries of exhausted France, the winter of 1708-9 was one of unprecedented severity. Even the Rhone was frozen over. Vineyards, orchards, and the grain that had been sown were frozen and destroyed, and it was evident that a severe famine was inevitable for the ensuing season. Whole families were frozen to death in their wretched cottages, and from

one end of France to the other suffering and misery prevailed. There was universal discontent throughout the kingdom, and the popular opposition to the war broke out in riots and other violent demonstrations. Humbled and mortified, Louis made proposals of peace to the allies. His overtures were scornfully rejected, and the most humiliating terms were demanded of him, which he could not accept without sacrificing his honor. Among other things, the allies demanded that he should turn his arms against his grandson Philip V., and pledge himself to exclude the Bourbon family from the Spanish throne. He refused to listen to such a proposal, and appealed to the patriotism of the nation to sustain him in another effort. The king and many of the nobles sent their plate to the mint, and by a series of vigorous measures funds were raised for the expenses of the ensuing year. The sum of thirty-five millions was also obtained from the Spanish colonies in the West Indies.

Marshal Villars was placed in command of the army in Flanders, and advanced upon the allied forces under Marlborough and Eugene, which had captured Tournay and were threatening the fortress of Mons. The two armies came in conflict on the 11th of September, 1709, at Malplaquet. The battle which ensued was the most terrible and stubbornly contested of the whole war. Marshal Villars was wounded and borne from the field, and this no doubt greatly assisted in the defeat of his army. The allies lost over 20,000 men—a much heavier loss than that of the French. The defeated army retreated in good order to Valenciennes, and Villars wrote to the king that another such defeat would render France safe from the efforts of the Grand Alliance. The allies occupied Mons, which surrendered immediately after the battle.

In 1710 Louis renewed his efforts to bring about a peace, and offered to aid the allies with a million livres a month in their effort to drive Philip V. out of Spain; but they haughtily insisted that he should aid them with his troops in this attempt. "If I must needs fight," exclaimed the aged king, "I prefer fighting against my enemies to fighting against my own children." Two brilliant victories were gained by Vendome—one over the English at Brihuega, on the 9th of December, and the other over the main army of the imperialists under Charles III., at Villa Viciosa, on the 11th

of December. Charles was driven out of Spain, and Philip was finally established on the throne of that country.

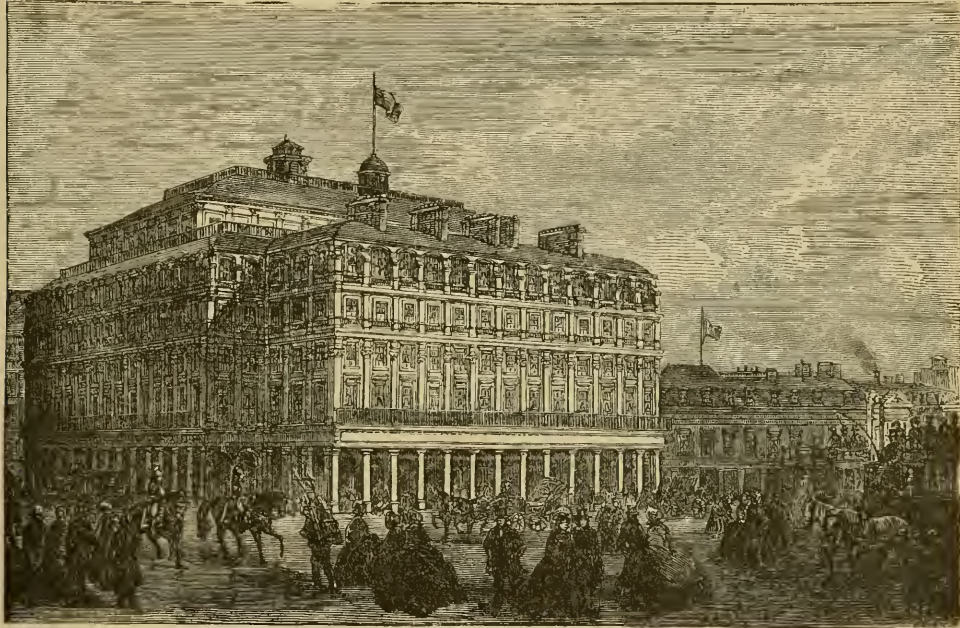
Matters now underwent a sudden and unexpected change. England was weary of the war, of which she had borne the heaviest burdens and reaped the smallest advantages. The Whigs went out of power, and Marlborough's enemies acquired the control of the English government. They were resolved to withdraw England from the war. The sudden death of the Emperor Joseph I., in 1711, placed the Archduke Charles upon the Austrian throne. He was soon after elected emperor as Charles VI. The allies now found themselves placed in the position of supporting the claim of the emperor to the Spanish crown, the success of which would be more dangerous to the peace of Europe than the continuance of Philip V. on his throne. It would be simply the revival of the universal monarchy which they had prevented in the case of Louis XIV. This conviction gave a great impetus to the negotiations for peace, and in October, 1711, two months before the coronation of the Emperor Charles VI., a preliminary treaty of peace was signed at London between France and England.

Hostilities went on in the meanwhile, and in 1711 Marlborough fought his last campaign, which was made memorable by two of his most important successes. He stormed and carried the intrenched camp established by Villars at Arleux, and captured the strongly fortified town of Bouchain. The malice of his enemies at home proved too strong for him, and he was recalled and stripped of all his offices. The war during the year 1712 was conducted by Prince Eugene on the side of the allies, and he was opposed by Marshal Villars on the side of France. Eugene was outgeneralled by the French commander, and the allied force under Lord Albemarle was defeated and captured at Denain. Douai, Le Quesnoy, and Bouchain were regained in rapid succession by Villars, and the northern border of France was successfully restored. A peace congress had been in session at Utrecht since January, 1712, and these successes very materially improved the interests of France in the deliberations of that body.

Louis had been sadly afflicted. In April, 1711, the dauphin, his only legitimate son, died, and was succeeded as heir to the

throne by the Duke of Burgundy, a young prince of great promise. In February, 1712, the young dauphiness, Adelaide of Savoy, who was greatly beloved by the king and the court, died of a malignant fever, which, a week later, carried off also the dauphin. Their eldest child, the Duke of Brittany, died a month later. His brother, the Duke of Anjou, now became dauphin. He was a weak and sickly child, and the next heir to the throne was Philip V. of Spain. The allies now saw that there was danger, unless peace was made at once, that the crowns of France and Spain might be united in the person of Philip V., and

ordered to be garrisoned by the Dutch as a barrier between France and the Low Countries. Lille was restored to France, and the fortifications of Dunkirk were dismantled. Louis agreed to recognize Queen Anne as the rightful sovereign of Great Britain, and also the succession of the Elector of Hanover to the English crown, as provided for by the Act of Settlement, and to compel the pretender and his family to quit France. Gibraltar, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and Port Mahon were confirmed to England. The Duke of Savoy received back his territories. Philip V. was recognized by the allies as King of



THÉÂTRE FRANÇAIS—PARIS.

the object of the war be thus defeated. This fear was more powerful than all the arguments of the diplomatists, and on the 11th of April, 1713, the peace of Utrecht was signed by France, England, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Prussia, and Savoy. It was stipulated by the terms of this treaty that the crowns of France and Spain should never be worn by the same sovereign. Naples, the duchy of Milan, the island of Sardinia, and the Spanish Netherlands were ceded to Austria by Spain. The island of Sicily was assigned to the Duke of Savoy, with the title of king. A line of frontier fortresses from Furnes, on the sea-coast, to Charleroi and Namur was designated, and

Spain, and that country and Portugal resumed their former boundaries.

The emperor refused to accede to the treaty, and the result was another campaign between France and Austria. It was conducted with great success by Marshal Villars in the Palatinate. The Austrian forces were beaten, and Spire, Worms, Landau, and Freiburg were taken by the French. Austria now consented to make peace, and a series of conferences was held between Villars and Prince Eugene which resulted in the treaty of Rastadt between France and Austria, in March, and the treaty of Baden, between France and the German princes, in September, 1714. The terms of

these treaties were substantially those of the treaty of Utrecht.

France emerged from the war greatly crippled, and it was considered in that country a matter for serious congratulation that, in spite of all her reverses and sufferings, she had been able to preserve her independence and her frontiers. Louis had been forced to abandon the magnificent dreams of his youth, and was glad to accept even this humiliating peace, since it gave him an opportunity to retrieve the broken fortunes of his kingdom. The credit of France was almost destroyed. The public debt amounted to \$430,000,000, and the revenues were mortgaged for many years to come. Agriculture, manufactures, and all branches of industry were reduced to the lowest state of depression; bankruptcy was general; and thousands of the laboring classes were dying of disease and famine. Such was the price paid by France for the seating of a Bourbon upon the throne of Spain, which had been stripped by treaty of some of its most valuable possessions.

Louis did not long survive the close of the war. His health had been failing for some time. Feeling that his end was near, he appointed a council of regency, with the Duke of Orleans as president, to conduct the government during the minority of his great-grandson, a child of five years; and in order to provide for the succession in case of the death of this prince, caused his two sons by Madame Montespan—the Duke of Maine and the Count of Toulouse—to be legitimated and placed in the line of succession. He was soon seized with his last sickness, and died at Versailles on the 1st of September, 1715, at the age of seventy-seven, having reigned seventy-two years.

The "Age of Louis XIV." was in many respects the most brilliant period of France. Apart from the events we have related, it witnessed the triumphs of Corneille, Boileau, Molière, and Racine in dramatic literature, and of Pascal, Malebranche, Mabillon, Ducauge, Nicole, La Rochefoucauld, and La Bruyere in the higher walks of literature. Its orators were Fénelon, Bourdaloue, Massillon, and Fléchier. Its painters Poussin, La Sueur, Claude Lorraine, Lebrun, and Mignard. Mansard and Perrault illustrated its architectural genius. The court of France was a model of magnificence and refinement, but was sadly lacking in the more substantial virtues. At no

period of the history of France did the great and rich display such splendor in every department of life. Good manners, wit, and chivalrous courtesy were the sure means of distinction, and gave a charm to French manners and customs which were regarded throughout Europe as models of elegance. Under all this splendor the people were impoverished, discontented, and in the last years of the reign, starving. The government of France during this period was an absolute despotism; the lives, fortunes, and liberties of the people were at the uncontrolled mercy of the king, who centred in his own person all the powers of the state.

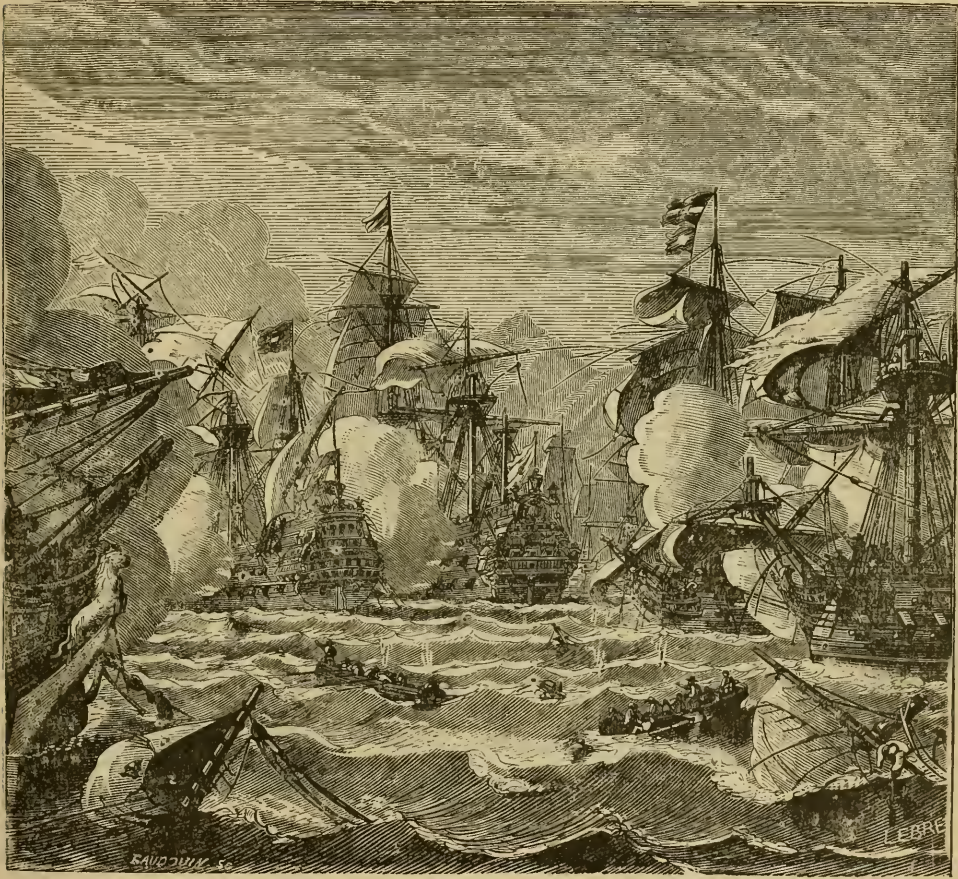
CHAPTER VII.

FROM THE DEATH OF LOUIS XIV. TO THE MEETING OF THE STATES GENERAL.

Louis XV.—Regency of the Duke of Orleans—The Most Corrupt Period of French History—The Abbé Dubois—The Quadruple Alliance—Coldness Between France and Spain—Conspiracy of Cellenmare—War with Spain—John Law—The Mississippi Scheme—Its Failure—Louis Assumes the Government—Marriage of Louis to Maria Leszczyński—Resentment of Spain—The Pragmatic Sanction—Disgrace of the Duke of Bourbon—Cardinal Fleury—His Able Measures—The War of the Polish Succession—The Treaty of Vienna—The War of the Austrian Succession—Death of Cardinal Fleury—Battle of Dettingen—Louis Joins his Army—His Illness at Metz—Death of the Emperor Charles VII.—Battle of Fontenoy—Marshal Saxe Conquers Belgium—The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle—Madame de Pompadour—Financial Troubles—Attempt on the King's Life—The Seven Years' War—France Joins the Alliance Against Prussia—Success of the French—The Convention of Kloster-Seven—Choiseul Minister—Treaty of Paris—France Loses her American Possessions—The Jesuits Expelled—Death of Madame de Pompadour and the Dauphin—Madame du Barry—France Seizes Corsica—Fall of Choiseul—Reckless Tyranny of Louis—Popular Discontents—The Encyclopædia—Death of Louis XV.—Louis XVI. King—His Character—Marie Antoinette—Turgot's Financial Measures—Neckar—France Aids the American Colonies—War with England—Spain Assists France—Battle of Cape St. Vincent—The "Armed Neutrality"—France Gives More Active Aid to the United States of America—Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown—Defeat of the French Fleet in the West Indies—Siege of Gibraltar—The Peace of Versailles—Financial Troubles—Neckar Resigns—Failure of M. de Calonne—Extravagance of the Court—Growing Discontent of the People—The Assembly of Notables—Dismissal of Calonne—The Cardinal de Brienne Imposes New Taxes—They are Resisted—Demand for the Meeting of the States General—Riots in Paris and the Provinces—Weak Conduct of Louis—The King Summons the States General—Neckar Recalled—The Winter of 1788-89.

LOUIS XV. was five years old. The first act of his reign was the violation, by the Duke of Orleans, of the will of Louis XIV. He set aside the council of regency, seized the full powers of the government and conducted it himself. He possessed some good qualities, but was on the whole a bold, bad man, and his regency

tion of Spain. It was no secret that Philip V. meant, in the event of the death of Louis XV., to claim the French crown, notwithstanding his oath of renunciation, and as Philip and the regent were declared enemies, it was not difficult to persuade the regent to adopt the plan of Dubois. An alliance was effected between France, England and Holland, in January, 1717, for



BATTLE OF AGOSTA.

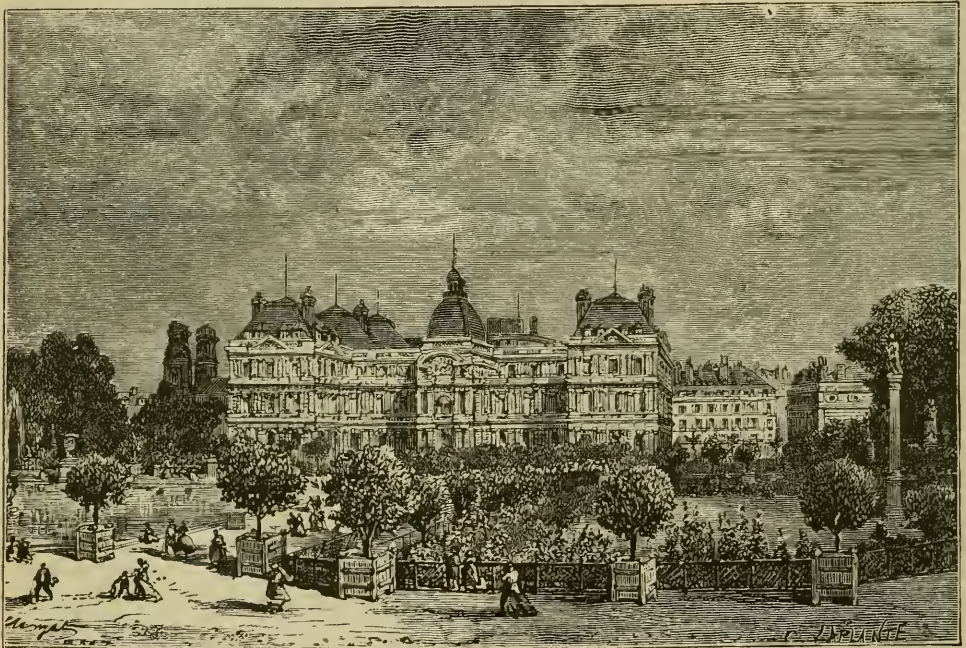
forms one of the most corrupt periods of French history. Arbitrary measures were adopted for the purpose of improving the financial condition of the kingdom, but the desired result was not produced. The regent's confidential friend was the Abbé Dubois, a profligate wretch, who was in the pay of England. He succeeded in inducing the regent to reverse the policy of Louis XIV., to withdraw his countenance from the pretender, and to cultivate the friendship of England as an offset to the ambi-

the purpose of maintaining the terms of the treaty of Utrecht. In August, 1718, it was joined by the emperor, and was known thenceforth as the Quadruple Alliance. Sicily was annexed to Austria in exchange for Sardinia, which was bestowed upon the Duke of Savoy, who became King of Sardinia. By this alliance France made an enemy of Spain, her natural ally, and entirely reversed the policy of Louis XIV.

The efforts of Spain to acquire Sardinia and regain her former commanding influ-

ence in European affairs involved her in a war with France, which was hastened by the discovery of a conspiracy in France, at the head of which was the Marquis of Cellemare, and which had for its object the seizure of the regent and the placing of Philip V. at the head of the French government. The parties implicated in this plot were treated with great severity, many being executed, and on the 10th of January, 1719, France declared war against Spain. The French army, under the Duke of Berwick, gained some successes in Spain, and the allied fleet drove the Spaniards out of Sicily. Philip was now alarmed, and sought peace. In February, 1720, peace

shares in an organization known as the Mississippi Company, and based upon a monopoly of trade with Canada and Louisiana. The Mississippi scheme became immensely popular, and all France plunged recklessly into the speculation. The shares could not be sold fast enough to supply the demand for them. All classes bought them, and the bonds of the government were readily exchanged for the paper money, which was preferred to gold because it could be counted more readily. In this way the public debt disappeared. It is most likely that the managers of this delusion were ignorant of the true principles of finance, and did not intend to perpetrate a



PALACE AND GARDENS OF THE LUXEMBOURG—PARIS.

was restored, Philip signifying his acceptance of the terms of the quadruple treaty.

Louis XIV. had left France burdened with a debt of over \$400,000,000. The interest on this immense sum was a terrible drain upon the resources of the kingdom. Various expedients of relief were proposed, and the regent, who was a man of acknowledged talent, vainly sought to utilize the vast, but as yet undeveloped, wealth of the American possessions of France as a means of relief from the embarrassments of the kingdom. At this juncture John Law, a Scotch banker, proposed to issue an enormous sum of paper money secured by

deliberate fraud; but the results were the same. In 1720 the bubble burst. The notes of Law's bank were found to be irredeemable in specie, and the stock of the Mississippi Company was worthless. Its holders, who believed themselves rich, were reduced to beggary, and the public credit received a blow which was as disastrous as the results of the most costly war could have been.

Louis XV. having attained his legal majority in 1723, the regency of the Duke of Orleans came to an end. He retained his place in the government as president of the council of state, and secured a seat in

that body for Dubois, for whom he had some time before procured a cardinal's hat. Louis was now betrothed to the Infanta of Spain, the eldest daughter of Philip V., and the young princess was brought to France to be educated. A little later the Cardinal Dubois died, and on the 2d of December, 1723, was followed by the Duke of Orleans, both being the victims of their debaucheries. The Duke of Bourbon, first prince of the blood, succeeded the Duke of Orleans as prime minister. He was a dull, indolent man, and was thoroughly under the influence of his mistress, the Marchioness of Prie, who is said to have been in the pay of the English ministry, and who was in her turn governed by a clever and unscrupulous financier named Paris Duvernay. Philip of Spain had offended the Marchioness of Prie, and she now had her revenge upon him. The king's health was feeble, and it was deemed best to provide for the succession. The Spanish infanta was too young to be married, and she was accordingly sent back to Madrid in the bluntest manner, and with scarcely an explanation, in January, 1725. The Duke of Bourbon then sought to obtain for the king the hand of an English princess, but without success, and then, in concert with his mistress, selected as the bride of the king the amiable Marie Leszczynski, the daughter of the dethroned Polish King Stanislaus Leszczynski, who was living in retirement in Alsace. The marriage was celebrated at Fontainebleau on the 4th of September, 1725. The object of the duke and Madame de Prie in negotiating this marriage was to retain their influence at court by attaching the queen to them by the gratitude she would naturally feel towards those to whom she owed her elevation.

Philip deeply and not unnaturally resented the insult put upon him by the rejection of his daughter, and met it by a change of his foreign policy. He now took sides openly against France, and made an offensive and defensive alliance with the emperor against France and England, and guaranteed the pragmatic sanction by which the emperor secured his Austrian dominions to his daughter, Maria Theresa. England, France, and Prussia thereupon made a counter alliance, and it seemed that Europe was once more to be involved in a general war. Fortunately the Duke of Bourbon fell into disgrace, and was ordered

to absent himself from court, and with him passed away Madame de Prie and Duvernay, the last of whom had done considerable damage by tampering with the finances. Cardinal Fleury, the king's preceptor, was made prime minister. He was seventy years old, and a man of upright and noble character. His wise and peaceful policy not only averted the threatened European war, but restored order in the finances, and revived the confidence of the nation. He remained at the head of the state for seventeen years, and during that period managed to preserve tranquillity in the kingdom, and gave to France an opportunity to repair the losses occasioned by the wars of Louis XIV., and greatly increased her commerce and wealth. Philip of Spain suddenly attacked Gibraltar in February, 1727, but Fleury managed to confine the struggle to the peninsula, and in 1729 peace was made between France, England, and Spain.

In 1733 Augustus II., Elector of Saxony and King of Poland, died. He was succeeded as Elector of Saxony by his son Frederick Augustus, who also claimed the Polish crown. His claim was sustained by Russia and by the Emperor Charles VI., whose niece he had married. Louis XV. determined to restore his father-in-law, Stanislaus Leszczynski, who was a native of the country, and the choice of a majority of the people. The Polish crown being elective, both parties used money lavishly to secure the votes of the electors. Stanislaus was chosen by the majority, but a minority cast their votes for Augustus III., who was immediately proclaimed, and was recognized by Austria and Russia. Stanislaus was obliged to quit Warsaw, and took refuge in Dantzic. A Russian army captured this city in 1734, and Stanislaus fled to the court of Frederick William of Prussia, who protected his person, but aided Russia and Austria with a contingent of 10,000 men. The European powers eagerly availed themselves of the war of the Polish succession as a pretext for fighting out their quarrels. France began the war in 1733 by seizing the imperial province of Lorraine, and Spain being resolved to take advantage of the struggle to recover her lost Italian possessions, sided with France. Marshal Villars, with a French and Piedmontese army, conquered the duchy of Milan. The army of the Rhine, under the Duke of Berwick, took Kehl, Treves, and Trarbach, and laid siege to Philipsburg.

Berwick was killed during the siege of this place in June, 1734, and Villars died at Turin a few days later. Spain sent an army into Italy, which quickly conquered Naples, where the Austrian rule was detested. The conquest of this kingdom was completed in May, 1734, and Sicily was subdued soon after. Don Carlos, the son of Philip V., was proclaimed as Charles III., and the rule of the Spanish Bourbons in Italy was successfully established.

The emperor, having lost all his Italian possessions, was now anxious for peace. Hostilities ceased in 1735, and in 1738 the third treaty of Vienna was signed. The

national feeling was very strong, however, and all parties demanded that the government should take advantage of this favorable opportunity to ruin the hereditary foe of France. Cardinal Fleury had not the firmness to resist this demand, though his judgment condemned the war; and in May, 1741, made an alliance with Bavaria, which was followed soon after by a secret treaty with Prussia. The French army sent to the assistance of the Bavarians was driven from Prague, which city it had occupied; and made a terribly disastrous retreat to its own country. It reached the French frontier in January, 1743, having lost 38,000



BOULEVARD DU TEMPLE—PARIS.

emperor was obliged to relinquish the Two Sicilies and the duchy of Lorraine. The Sicilian kingdom was confirmed to Charles III., and Stanislaus resigned his claim to the Polish crown and accepted the duchies of Lorraine and Bar. The pragmatic sanction was guaranteed by France, Spain, and Sardinia, and Francis, Duke of Lorraine, the husband of the emperor's daughter, Maria Theresa, was made Grand Duke of Tuscany to indemnify him for the loss of his hereditary duchy.

France had no real interest at stake in the war of the Austrian succession, the causes and events of which we have related in the German history of this period. The

men out of 50,000. Fleury was crushed by this disaster, and died on the 29th of January, 1743, at the age of ninety.

Louis XV. was constitutionally indolent and indisposed to attend to the duties of his position, and for some years after Fleury's death the affairs of the kingdom were left to the various ministers at the head of the different branches of the public service. The real ruler of France during this period was the king's mistress, the Duchess de Chateauroux, a woman of talent and ambition, who exerted herself to rouse Louis to a sense of his duty as a king.

In 1743 Frederick II. of Prussia, having obtained Silesia, withdrew from the

alliance with France and Bavaria, and Naples and Sardinia were compelled to do likewise by the threats of Great Britain. France was thus left to bear the burdens of the war alone. On the 27th of June, 1743, the allied army under King George II. of England defeated the French under Marshal de Noailles at Dettingen. This victory was due rather to the disobedience of Noaille's orders by one of his lieutenants than to the skill of the allied commanders. Its chief result was the escape of their army from a dangerous position.

In March, 1744, France declared war against Great Britain, and Louis took the field at the head of his army. The real command was exercised by Maurice, Count of Saxony (a natural son of Augustus II. of Poland), afterwards famous as Marshal Saxe. Frederick II. of Prussia now broke his engagements with Austria, and in June an alliance against Austria was signed by France, Prussia, the Emperor Charles VII. and Sweden. In August, Louis fell ill at Metz, and came near dying. On his recovery France broke out into rejoicings and hailed him by the title of "Bien-aimé," "the well-beloved;" a title which he in no way merited, and which surprised no one more than himself.

In January, 1745, the Emperor Charles VII. died. His son made peace with the Queen of Hungary by renouncing his claim to the imperial dignity, and received back his hereditary possessions. Thus Bavaria was withdrawn from the war, and as the cause of the struggle was removed in great part by this arrangement, France proposed terms of peace. They were rejected by Maria Theresa, who thenceforth fought for vengeance, while France sought only an honorable peace.

In the spring of 1745 the French army under Marshal Saxe and the king invested Tournay. The allies under the Duke of Cumberland marched to the relief of that place. Leaving a division to continue the siege, Saxe marched against them, and inflicted a terrible defeat upon them at Fontenoy on the 11th of May. The victory was followed by the surrender to Marshal Saxe of Tournay, Ghent, Bruges, Oudenarde and several other important cities of Flanders. Louis returned to Paris and was received as a conqueror. In September, 1745, Francis I., husband of Maria Theresa, was elected emperor, and soon after peace was made between Austria and Prussia.

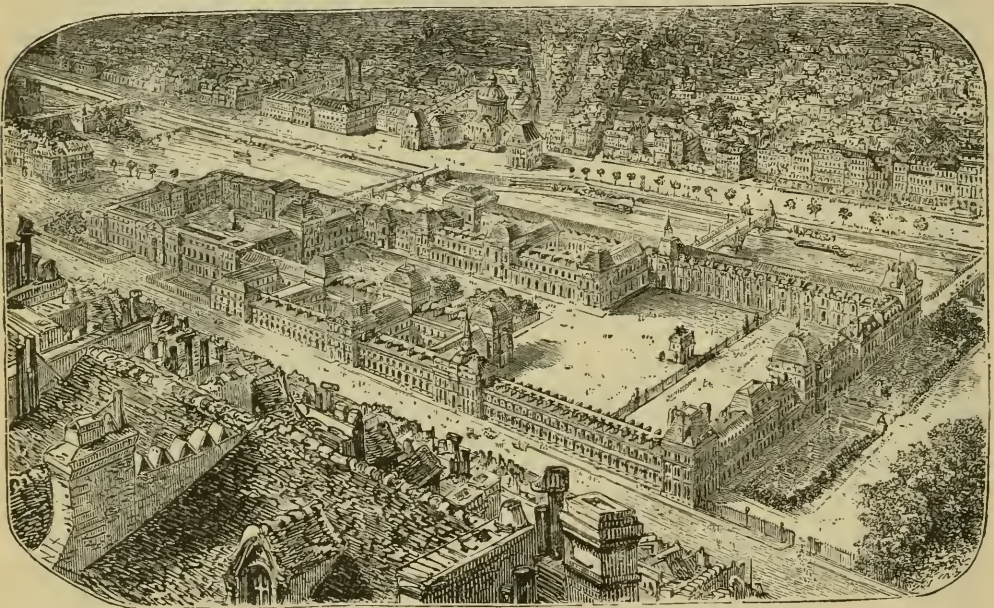
This enabled the empress-queen to reinforce her army in Italy, and in the spring of 1746 the imperial forces in Lombardy resumed the offensive. They inflicted a decisive defeat upon the allied French and Spanish army at Piacenza on the 16th of June. The French fled to Genoa, and continued their retreat into France, which they entered in September, closely followed by the Austrians, who crossed the Var and ravaged the country as far as the Durance. Marshal Belleisle, by a series of masterly manœuvres, checked the invasion and drove the Austrians back across the frontier in February, 1747.

Saxe in the meantime had followed up his victory at Fontenoy by besieging Brussels, which he captured after a siege of three months. Antwerp was taken by him in May, 1746, and in September Namur was captured also. Then concentrating his forces he inflicted a decisive defeat upon the Austrians under Prince Charles of Lorraine, at Raccoux, on the Meuse, near Liege, and made himself master of all Belgium. On the 17th of April, 1747, France declared war against Holland, and the French army under Marshal Saxe crossed the Dutch frontier and captured the whole line of fortresses on the Scheldt, from Antwerp to the sea, in less than a month. Great Britain now induced Russia to join the league against France, but before anything could result from this accession of strength, Saxe defeated the Duke of Cumberland at Lawfeld, and drove him behind the Meuse. In April, 1748, he captured Maestricht. A suspension of hostilities was immediately proclaimed, and in October, 1748, the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was signed. France and England mutually restored their conquests. Francis I. was recognized as emperor, and the pragmatic sanction was once more guaranteed. Silesia was confirmed to Prussia; and the duchies of Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla were ceded by Austria to Don Philip of Spain. France gained nothing by the war. Her public debt was nearly doubled, her commerce was almost ruined, and her navy was seriously crippled by the struggle; but she gained no advantage to offset these losses.

During the war Louis had shown proofs of possessing courage, energy, and practical sense, but peace was no sooner restored than he fell back into his old habits. Under a wise and firm sovereign France would have advanced rapidly in wealth and ma-

terial prosperity, for she had attained a proud position among the powers of Europe, and was making rapid strides in intellectual development, and the seven years following the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle were peaceful and quiet. Louis, however, neglected the interests of his kingdom, and gave himself up to sensual enjoyments. Upon the death of Madame de Chateauroux he promoted to her place Madame Lenormant d'Etioles, a woman of mean origin, but of decided talent and great beauty. She was soon created Marchioness of Pompadour, and for twenty years was the real ruler of France, the king being entirely submissive to her will. She arranged and

sisted by the privileged orders, and especially by the clergy, and when the government proceeded to order a survey of all ecclesiastical property in the kingdom with the avowed object of taxing it, the bishops undertook to defeat the measure by ordering the clergy to refuse the last sacraments, and Christian burial to all who were unprovided with certificates of confession attesting their acceptance of the bull Unigenitus. This produced a conflict which extended to every branch of society in France. The whole nation opposed with great bitterness this attempt to revive the ecclesiastical despotism of the Middle Ages, and the new school of free-thinking philosophers, whose



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE LOUVRE AND THE TULLERIES—PARIS.

directed all the leading matters of state, dispensed the favor of the government, promoted military officers, and appointed the clergy to the ecclesiastical honors. When her beauty began to wane, she managed to retain her influence over the king by means more discreditable than those by which she had gained it.

The financial condition of the kingdom had been greatly improved by the wise administration of Cardinal Fleury. It was now thrown into confusion again by the extravagance and the shameful misgovernment of the king. To remedy these troubles, Machault, the finance minister, levied a tax upon all incomes. This measure was re-

abled teacher was Voltaire, gained many adherents. The king pursued a shifting policy, favoring the church party sometimes, and the popular party at others, and finally sided with the former, and attempted to compel the Parliament of Paris to sustain the measures by which he sought to aid the churchmen. The magistrates, indignant at this interference with their privileges, resigned their offices.

The popular wrath was very great, and had a leader been found to conduct the movement, Paris would have risen in insurrection against the king. As it was, a lunatic named Damiens was wrought up by the excitement of the struggle to attempt

the life of the king, and on the 5th of January, 1757, stabbed him in the side with a penknife, as he was stepping into his carriage at Versailles. He declared that he intended to punish the king for his treatment of the Parliament of Paris, and for his failure to prevent the refusal of the sacraments. The king's wound was slight; but Damiens was put to death with the most horrible cruelty. This attempt on the king's life led to a revulsion of feeling on the part of the people, and a settlement of the dispute was effected.

While these matters were occupying attention at home, the conflicting claims of France and England to the valley of the Ohio, in America, led those countries into a conflict, which began in America, for the possession of that region, but which subsequently expanded into a general European war. The events of the struggle in America will be related elsewhere. War was not declared between France and England until January, 1756, although hostilities had been carried on in America and at sea during the whole of 1755. Both France and England sought alliances. Austria had long desired to secure the aid of France, for the Empress Maria Theresa was determined to make the war the occasion of destroying the kingdom of Prussia. By the advice of her minister, Kaunitz, this great woman condescended to write a letter to Madame de Pompadour, styling her "my cousin." The favorite was delighted, and the result was that France became the cordial ally of her inveterate foe, Austria. On the 1st of May, 1756, a treaty was signed between the two powers for the conquest and partition of Prussia. This alliance was subsequently joined by Russia, Saxony, and Sweden. Frederick, apprised of the danger which threatened him, struck the first blow, and began the Seven Years' War by seizing Leipzig and Dresden. Thus the hatred of one woman and the vanity of another were able to plunge Europe into one of the most terrible struggles of history. It is our purpose here to relate only the course pursued by France in this war, having already told the story as regards Germany.

In the first year of the war the operations of the French army under the Duke de Richelieu were confined to the lower Rhine, and were directed against the forces of Great Britain under the Duke of Cumberland. The English commander was obliged to evacuate all of Hanover and Brunswick;

and a little later he concluded an inglorious convention with the French at Kloster-Seven on the Elbe, by which all of Hanover was surrendered to them until the conclusion of peace. In the same year Richelieu captured the island of Minorca, and the French fleet took Port Mahon. In 1757 a second French army under the Prince of Soubise, with an auxiliary corps of Germans, invaded Saxony to drive out the Prussians. They were defeated by Frederick the Great at Rosbach on the 3d of November. The next year (1758) the convention of Kloster-Seven having been repudiated by the British government, the Prince of Soubise entered Hanover and defeated the allies at Lutterberg, on the 7th of October.

In November, 1758, the Duke de Choiseul succeeded the Cardinal de Bernis as minister of foreign affairs. He proposed to carry the war into England, and a powerful fleet was assembled at Toulon and Brest for a descent upon that country. The projected invasion was defeated by the gallantry of the English fleet. The Toulon squadron, while seeking to unite with that of Brest, was defeated by the English fleet under Admiral Boscawen off Cape Lagos, and on the 14th of November the Brest squadron was annihilated by the fleet of Admiral Hawke off Belleisle. These decisive defeats caused France to abandon the contest at sea.

In 1759 the French continued their operations in Westphalia. On the 1st of August they were decisively defeated at Minden, on the Weser, by Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, and abandoned Hanover, and nearly all Munster and Westphalia. In the same year, by the capture of Quebec by the English, France lost her province of Canada in North America.

In August, 1761, Choiseul negotiated a treaty of close alliance with the Spanish branch of the house of Bourbon. This treaty is known as the "Family Compact." By its terms Louis XV. and Charles III. guaranteed their respective territories in all parts of the world, and agreed to make common cause against any and all of their enemies. No power external to the house of Bourbon was to be admitted to this treaty, which Choiseul hoped would enable France to add the strength and resources of Spain to her own power. It failed to accomplish all he desired, but brought about a rupture between England and Spain in January, 1762.

On the 10th of February, 1763, the treaty of Paris was signed between France, England, and Prussia. France surrendered all her American possessions on the Atlantic seaboard to Great Britain, and also that part of Louisiana lying east of the Mississippi. She ceded also the West Indian islands of Grenada, Tobago, St. Vincent, and Dominica, and the settlement of Senegal, on the coast of Africa. Minorca was restored to Great Britain, and France recovered Martinique, St. Lucia, and Belleisle. The peace of Hubertsburg followed the treaty of Paris on the 15th of February and closed the Seven Years' War. Its con-

died at the age of forty-four, having retained her influence over the king to the last. In 1765 the dauphin, an excellent prince, died of consumption, at the age of thirty-six, leaving three sons, who were afterwards kings of France as Louis XVI., Louis XVIII., and Charles X. In June, 1768, the queen, who had been neglected for years by Louis, died. Some years previous her father, Stanislaus, had died, leaving the duchies of Lorraine and Bar to the crown of France. Louis showed great grief for his patient and much-enduring wife, and promised to amend, but in less than a year he installed Jeanne Vauber-



PONT DES ARTS, SHOWING THE LOUVRE AND THE TUILERIES—PARIS.

ditions were related in the German history of this century.

Immediately after the close of the war the Duke de Choiseul in concert with Madame de Pompadour took the bold step of suppressing the order of the Jesuits in France. The duke was the mortal enemy of the order, and madame had come to hate them for trying to break up her connection with the king. On the 26th of November, 1764, the order of the Jesuits was formally suppressed in France by a royal decree, and its members ordered to quit the kingdom. Its vast property was confiscated to the state.

In April, 1764, Madame de Pompadour

nier, a woman of infamous character, in Madame de Pompadour's place. He compelled an officer of his court to marry her, and she took her place at court as the Countess du Barry. Choiseul opposed this step of the king with all his power, but in vain, and so earned for himself the hatred of the new mistress. For the present, however, this able and enlightened minister continued to direct the affairs of the kingdom.

In 1768 the island of Corsica, which had thrown off the Genoese yoke, was relinquished to France by Genoa. A large military force was despatched to the island

by Choiseul, and after a short resistance Corsica submitted, and was formally annexed to France.

The Jesuits now made common cause with Madame du Barry and her followers, and succeeded in bringing about the downfall of Choiseul, who, on the 24th of December, 1770, was deprived of his office and banished to his estate at Chanteloup. Thus

tion of justice was violently changed by the forcible suppression of the ancient parliaments of the realm in all parts of France. The discontent aroused by this proceeding was shared by all classes, and the king was solemnly warned by the leading men of France of the danger of permitting such infractions of the ancient constitution of the kingdom. The nation was rapidly sinking



VIEW OF THE BASTILLE.

Louis, to please his infamous mistress, and the unscrupulous enemies of mankind, the Jesuit party, robbed France of her first living statesman. Choiseul carried into his retirement the respect and confidence of the greater part of the nation.

Under the guidance of Madame du Barry and her supporters, France sank rapidly into financial difficulties. The administra-

tion into financial ruin, and the growing discontent of the people threatened the most serious consequences. Speculation was rampant; combinations were formed to raise the price of grain; enormous and ruinous taxes were levied upon the nation, and went to support the infamous and dissolute court of Versailles. All complaint was silenced with imprisonment in the Bastille. Men

were arrested upon secret warrants, imprisoned without knowing their offence, and without hope of trial or release. Liberty, justice, commercial integrity, the prosperity of the kingdom, were all sacrificed to gratify the malice and avarice of a debauched king and an abandoned woman. Louis selfishly refused to summon the states general, or to take any measures to put a stop to the trouble. The present state of affairs, he

taire, Diderot, D'Alembert, Helvitius, Condillac, the Abbé Reynal, and others—were shaking the faith of the people in the great principle of *authority*, and were arousing the nation to a sense of its rights and its injuries. Above all, the writings of Jean Jacques Rousseau, whose brilliant genius blinded men to his contemptible character, were filling the minds of his readers—and they were the nation—with his ideas of

social reconstruction, and were dealing terrible blows to the structure of religion, morality and legitimate government. The great masses of the people were beginning to feel their strength, and men began to talk of an era in which the present state of affairs should give way to freedom of thought and faith, security for life and property, equality before the law, the abolition of privileges and monopolies, equal taxation for all orders, and freedom of trade. These were ominous signs, but they were not recognized by the court or the nobility, who continued their pleasures, regardless of the sufferings or the growing impatience of the people.

In the midst of this state of affairs Louis XV. died of an attack of malignant small-pox, on the 10th of May, 1774, at the age of sixty-four, having reigned fifty-eight years. Deserted in his last hours by his mistress and attendants, he was buried in haste at St. Denis, despised by the nation which had once styled him "The Well-Beloved."

which had once styled him "The Well-Beloved."

Louis XVI., the third son of the dauphin, was twenty years old at the time of his accession to his grandfather's crown. He had been imperfectly educated, and was not fitted by his character for the august station to which he was called. He was a weak, good-natured man, who sincerely desired



LOUIS XVI.

declared, would outlast his reign, and his successor could try to settle the troubles to which he was heir. "After us the deluge," was the motto of both king and court.

Meanwhile the discontent of the people was growing greater every day. The encyclopedists, as the contributors to *The Encyclopædia*, which was published during this reign, were called—Montesquieu, Vol-

the welfare of his subjects, but did not know how to accomplish his ends. His motives were good, but he had neither energy nor strength of character, and was timid and hesitating. He could be firm when he chose, but, unfortunately for him, he chose to be so always at the wrong moment; and he invariably yielded when he should have been firm. He was not lacking in good sense, and was, unlike his race, a man of pure morals, and was naturally kind-hearted. He was married to Marie Antoinette, a daughter of the Empress Maria Theresa, a young, beautiful, and accomplished woman, who inherited the imperious temper of her mother, and possessed a levity of manner which soon won her the dislike of the French people. Her influence over Louis was supreme, and her counsels were too often ill-judged, and were the cause of many of his misfortunes.

Louis XVI. began his reign by making the Count de Maurepas prime minister, and a little later made M. Turgot minister of finance. Maurepas was a man of slender abilities, but Turgot possessed real genius. He at once addressed himself to the task of restoring the finances to a healthy condition, and instituted a series of reforms, based upon the contribution of all classes in their just proportion to the support of the state. He also sought to remove some of the unequal burdens borne by the lower order of the people. He had succeeded in making a great reduction in the public debt, when, in May, 1776, he was driven from office by the selfish hostility of the nobles and the other parties interested in maintaining the old abuses.

Turgot was succeeded in the control of the finances by M. Necker, a wealthy banker of Geneva, who was considered one of the leading financiers of Europe. He sought to curtail the enormous waste of the public funds in useless offices, and hoped to remedy the financial troubles of the nation by raising immense loans upon the public credit. He swept away six hundred superfluous offices and introduced a more economical method of collecting the revenue, thereby securing an immense saving to the state.

In the meantime France, which, since the loss of Canada, had been watching for an opportunity to cripple England in America, decided to give her support to the revolted colonies of her rival, which had thrown off their allegiance and or-

ganized the independent republic of the United States of America. The king and his ministers were opposed to this step, as it was sure to involve them in a war with Great Britain, but were unable to resist the popular sentiment, which was overwhelmingly in favor of aiding the Americans. Secret aid was given at first, but on the 8th of February, 1778, a treaty of commerce and alliance was concluded between France and the United States, and France bound herself, in case a war with England should ensue, not to make peace until the King of Great Britain should recognize the independence of the United States. As soon as this treaty was known the British ambassador was recalled from Paris, and, though no formal declaration of war was made, hostilities immediately began by the seizure of the vessels lying in the ports of the two countries. On the 27th of July, 1778, the English Admiral Keppel encountered a French fleet of about equal force off Cape Ushant, and compelled it, after a running fight, to return to Brest to refit.

Spain was now summoned by France, in accordance with the family compact, to come to her assistance. A Spanish fleet attempted to capture Gibraltar, but was defeated by Sir George Rodney off Cape St. Vincent on the 8th of January, 1780.

In 1780 a coalition of the northern powers, known as the "Armed Neutrality," was organized by Russia, Prussia, Denmark, Sweden and Holland. It was subsequently joined by Portugal and the Two Sicilies. Its objects were to protect merchandise carried in neutral vessels against the right of search, which Great Britain, in consequence of her supremacy at sea, had exercised for many years. War broke out between Holland and England in consequence of the favor shown to America by the Dutch. Holland appealed to France for help, and received it. The French government now decided to prosecute the war with renewed vigor, and a powerful armament was sent across the Atlantic to the assistance of the Americans. It enabled Washington to bring the struggle in the United States to a successful close by the capture of the army of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown, on the 19th of October, 1781. The French were also successful in several naval engagements in the West Indies; but their effort to capture Jamaica was thwarted by the decisive defeat of the fleet

of the Count de Grasse by Admiral Rodney on the 12th of April, 1782. This defeat was fatal to the maritime power of France and Spain in the West Indies. Minorca was captured by a combined French and Spanish fleet in February, 1782. The allies then attempted to take Gibraltar. A fleet of forty French and Spanish vessels blockaded the harbor, and an army of forty thousand men invested the place by land. It was gallantly defended by General Elliot, and Lord Howe managed to enter the harbor with his fleet and throw supplies into the fortress. The defence was continued until the end of the war.

France was now anxious for peace, the war having cost over \$280,000,000. Peace was signed at Versailles on the 3d of September, 1783, between England and France, Spain and the United States. France received fair and honorable terms. She recovered her possessions in the East Indies and obtained considerable new territory around Pondicherry and Carical. Tobago in the West Indies, and Senegal and Goree in Africa were ceded to her. She restored to England all the islands she had captured in the West Indies.

The war had very greatly increased the difficulties of the financial problem with which Necker had to deal. Still he managed to make a favorable showing, and his administration was regarded with confidence by the nation, but when he undertook to reform the abuse of the exemption of the nobility from taxation, he roused the bitter hostility of that order and of the king, who was persuaded by the queen and courtiers that Necker's course tended to degrade the authority of the crown. The minister was forthwith subjected to a series of annoyances, which drove him, in utter disgust, to resign his office on the 25th of May, 1781. After two incompetent successors were tried and proved unfit for the post, M. de Calonne, a favorite of the queen, was at her instance placed at the head of the finance department.

Calonne was a dissipated profligate, though a man of talent, and undertook to administer the finances upon the plan he had adopted in his efforts to rid himself of his own overwhelming debts. He made light of the difficulties of the situation, and so won the confidence of the king. He retained his hold upon the queen by readily providing her with funds for the gratifica-

tion of her extravagant desires. Every demand of the greedy courtiers was granted, and Calonne was immensely popular at court. Under the lead of such a minister economy was ridiculed and present gratification alone considered. Every expedient for raising money was tried in rapid succession. All this while the financial difficulties increased rapidly. The burdens upon the people grew heavier with each year, and the popular discontent increased at an alarming rate. The extravagance of the queen and the royal princes was bitterly and openly denounced in all quarters. The court became the object of popular hatred, and the most discreditable stories concerning the queen were circulated, and, worse still, were generally believed.

At length it was found impossible to pay the interest on the national debt, and Calonne in alarm proposed to the king a series of reforms, and advised him to summon the assembly of notables to give these measures a sort of national sanction. After some hesitation Louis summoned this assembly, which met at Versailles on the 22d of February, 1787. It was composed of one hundred and forty-four members, belonging entirely to the privileged classes. It refused to sanction Calonne's measures—one of which was equal taxation, the nightmare of the privileged classes—and the enemies of the finance minister succeeded in inducing the king to dismiss him from office and banish him into Lorraine. Even the queen turned against him.

Calonne was succeeded by the Cardinal de Brienne, another creature of Marie Antoinette. He presented several of the measures of his predecessor to the assembly, and they were, after considerable opposition, accepted. The king then dissolved the assembly on the 25th of May, 1787. The measures accepted by the assembly were so many concessions to the rights of the people, but they were now stoutly resisted by the Parliament of Paris, which constituted itself the champion of the old abuses. That body refused to register the measures of De Brienne, and declared that the imposition of new and unusual taxes could be decreed only by the states general. This mention of the great legislative body of the nation, which had not met for a century and a half, was caught up by the people, and a general demand ensued that the states general should be summoned to find a remedy for the troubles of France.

De Brienne tried to force the Parliament of Paris to register his measures, and finding the magistrates still obstinate, induced the king to banish them to Troyes. Serious riots in Paris and in the provinces followed this unwise step. In the end De Brienne, whose incompetency involved him in fatal mistakes, was obliged to recall the parliament, and a compromise was effected. The cardinal a little later proposed to raise a loan of four hundred and twenty millions of livres, to be raised in five years, and the king most unwisely undertook to compel the parliament to give its assent to the measure. The parliament violently resented this interference with its independence, and refused its consent to the loan. The king at once arrested two of the refractory magistrates, and banished the Duke of Orleans, who had made himself prominent as a leader of the party opposed to the court, to his estates. In January, 1788, the parliament presented a petition of grievances to the king, who met this step with the arrest and imprisonment of two of the most obnoxious leaders of the opposition. Louis, by the advice of De Brienne, followed up this step by one of greater boldness. He took from the parliament the privilege of registering the royal decrees, and conferred it upon a "cour plénière," or council composed of nobles, clergy, or other persons of rank, named by himself. He adopted this violent and arbitrary course in the hope of avoiding the necessity for summoning the states general, but his action produced only opposition. Many of the bishops and nobles refused to accept seats in the new council, and those who did accept them were everywhere denounced as enemies of the country. Riots broke out in many parts of the kingdom, and the court was everywhere regarded with open enmity. The Cardinal de Brienne now found himself at the end of his resources. He could not even raise

money to defray the ordinary expenses of the government. In this humiliating emergency he, advised the king to convene the great council of the nation, and with extreme reluctance Louis summoned the states general to meet at Versailles on the 1st of May, 1789. The cardinal, foreseeing the storm, resigned his office in August,



APOLLO GALLERY—ST. CLOUD.

1788, and at once left France and went to Italy.

Louis was now forced to recall Necker, and confided to him the direction of the government. Necker's return was hailed with applause throughout the kingdom, and he at once set to work to repair as far as possible the mistakes of the Cardinal de Brienne. The cour plénière was abolished,

and the parliament was restored its ancient privileges, and its imprisoned members were liberated. A vast improvement was made in the financial condition of the country, and the government was able to raise immediately the loans it needed for its wants. Preparations were made for the meeting of the states general, whose numbers were fixed by royal proclamation at one thousand. The elections for the deputies took place amid great excitement, and it was manifest to thinking men that the people had at last determined to take their affairs into their own hands.

The winter of 1788-89 was very severe. The harvest had been a failure, and provisions were scarce and high. Great suffering prevailed among the poor, especially in Paris, and this increased the popular discontent very greatly. Efforts were made to relieve their distress, and Necker generously gave a large part of his private means to buy bread for the poor of Paris, who were threatened with starvation.

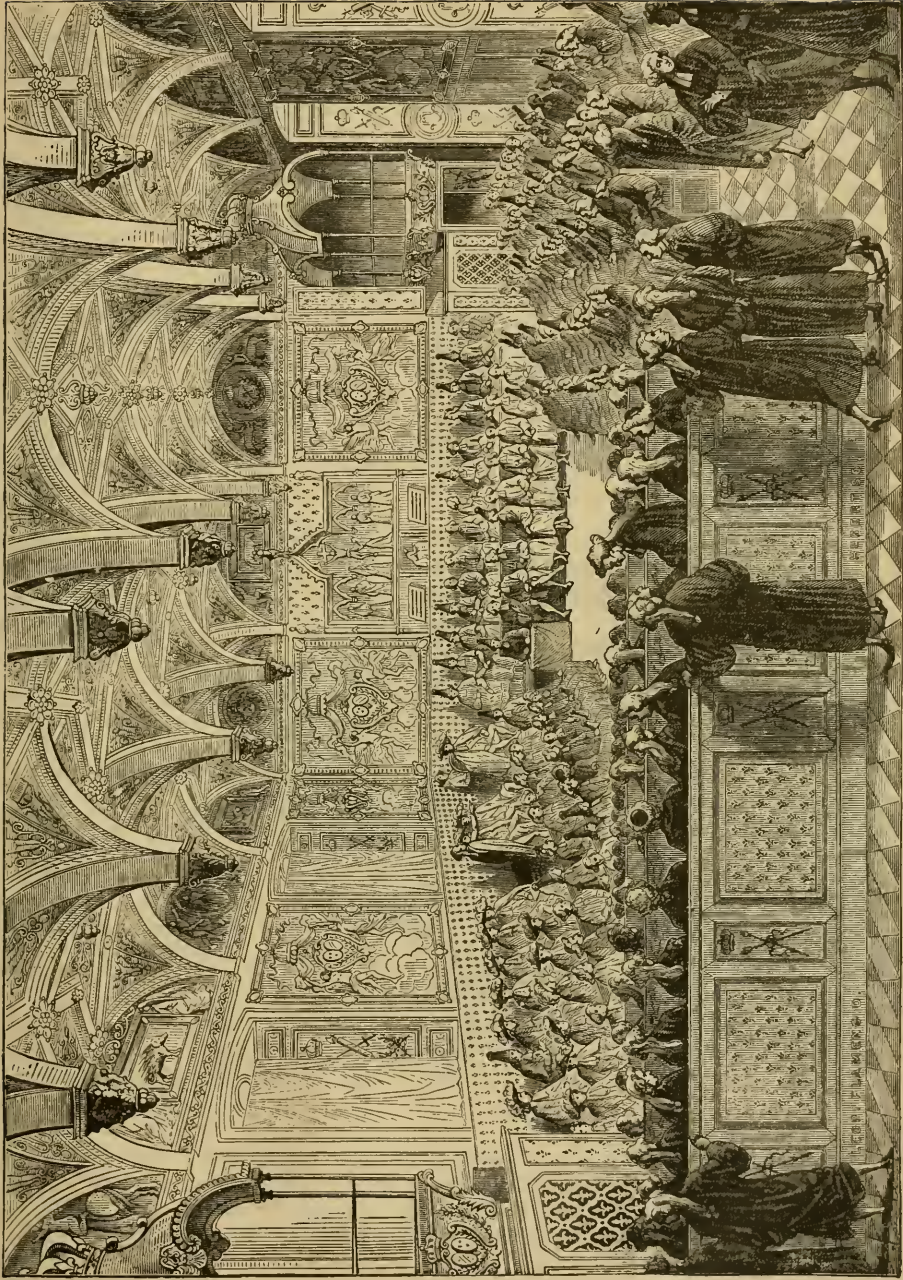
CHAPTER VIII.

THE REVOLUTION.

Meeting of the States General—The National Assembly Organized—The "Oath of the Tennis Court"—The Royal Sitting—Fusion of the Three Orders—The Assembly Warns the King—Troops Concentrated at Paris—Capture and Destruction of the Bastille—Louis at the Hotel de Ville—Murder of Foulon—Relinquishment of Privileges—Banquet at Versailles—The Mob of Paris at Versailles—Attack on the Palace—The Royal Family Forced to Remove to Paris—The National Assembly at Paris—Measures of the Assembly—Confiscation of the Church Property—The Assignats—Emigration of the Nobility—Fête of the Federation—Death of Mirabeau—Flight of the Royal Family—They are Captured at Varennes and Forced to Return to Paris—The New Constitution—The Legislative Assembly—The Parties in it—Decrees Against the Emigrants—Petition Mayor of Paris—Error of the Court—France Declares War Against Austria—Insurrection of the 20th of June—The Country Declared in Danger—March of the Federates to Paris—Proclamation of the Duke of Brunswick—The 10th of August—Capture of the Tuileries by the Mob—The King Deposed—The Royal Family Committed to the Temple—Defection of Lafayette—The Prussians Invade France—Capture of Longwy and Verdun—Massacres of September—Battles of Valmy and Jemappes—Belgium Conquered—The National Convention—Trial of the King—His Condemnation and Execution—League of the European Powers against France—Treason of Dumouriez—Fall of the Girondins—Insurrection in La Vendée—Execution of the Queen, the Duke of Orleans, and the Girondists—The Reign of Terror—Fall and Death of Robespierre—The Convention Suppresses the Jacobin Outbreaks—Success of the Republican Armies in Belgium and Italy—The Austrians Driven Across the Rhine—Conquest of

Holland—Peace with Prussia and Spain—Death of Louis XVII.—Release of the Princess Royal—Insurrection in La Vendée Suppressed—The Directory—Revolt of the Sections—It is put Down by Napoleon Bonaparte—Financial Troubles—Bonaparte in Command of the Army of Italy—His Campaign in Piedmont—Peace with Sardinia—Battle of Lodi—Milan Occupied—Siege of Mantua—Battles of Castiglione, Roveredo, and Bassano—Operations of Jourdan and Moreau in Bavaria—Battles of Arcole and Rivoli—Fall of Mantua—End of the Venetian Republic—Dissensions in France—The Coup d'Etat of the 4th of September, 1797—Treaty of Campo Formio—The French Seize the Papal Territories—The French in Switzerland—The Expedition to Egypt—Battle of the Pyramids—Napoleon in Syria—Siege of Acre—Return of Napoleon to France—Coalition Against France—Congress of Rastadt—Assassination of the French Envoys—The French Conquests in Italy Lost.

THE situation was gloomy and dark, when, on the 5th of May, 1789, the states general assembled at Versailles, and was opened with great pomp by the king. The complexion of this body was ominous. It consisted of 1,145 members, and was divided among the three orders as follows: clergy, 291; nobles, 270; deputies of the tiers état, or representatives of the people, 584. Two-thirds of the clerical deputies were parish priests, and were in sympathy with and ready to sustain the tiers état. The power of the people was therefore overwhelming in the assembly. They had met to redress their wrongs, and they were determined to do so. The tiers état met in the great hall of assembly, and the clergy and nobles in separate halls. The latter orders were invited by the commons to join them in organizing the states general, and to settle the all important question of voting, which the commons were resolved should be together and numerically, and not separately and by orders. The proposal was declined, and the nobles and clergy met in their own halls, and completed their separate organization. The tiers état thereupon declared that in the absence of the other two orders they were unable to organize for legislation. Several weeks passed away, all efforts to remove the disagreement proving futile. At length, being joined by a few members of the clergy, the tiers état, on the 17th of June, declared the title of States General abolished, and organized themselves into a NATIONAL ASSEMBLY. They declared themselves the sole legislative body in France and that they would at once proceed to enact the measures needed by the state of the country. On the 19th



MEETING OF THE STATES GENERAL

of June, the clergy, by a small majority, decided to unite with the national assembly.

The court was astounded at the boldness of the tiers état, and the king was urged by the nobles to crush the spirit of independence with a firm hand. The king yielded to these entreaties, and ordered the assembly to suspend its sessions for three days, at the end of which time he intended to hold a royal sitting in their hall, and to announce his intentions concerning them. The next morning the members of the assembly found the doors of their hall locked and guarded by the royal troops, who refused to allow them to enter the hall. Bailly, the president of the assembly, indignantly protested against this invasion of the rights of that body, and the members adjourned to a neighboring tennis court, where they took a solemn oath "that they would continue to meet for the despatch of business wherever circumstances might require, until the constitution of the kingdom had been established upon sound and solid foundations." On the 22d the assembly met in the Church of St. Louis, in spite of the efforts of the court to prevent it, and here it was joined by 149 of the clerical deputies, with the Archbishop of Vienne at their head. The royal sitting was held on the 23d, as had been determined by the court, and the king ordered the assembly to undo its action and resume the old constitution of the states general by assembling the next day in the separate chambers assigned them. Upon his withdrawal he was followed by the nobles and a part of the clergy, but the tiers état kept their seats. In a little while the Marquis de Brézé returned. "Gentlemen," he said, "you have heard the orders of the king." "Yes," answered the president, "and I am now about to take the orders of the assembly." Count Mirabeau, who had already taken his place as the great leader of the popular party, rose and said sternly to the royal messenger: "We have heard the king's intentions; and you, who have no seat or voice in this assembly, are no fit organ to remind us of his speech. Return and tell your master that we are here by the power of the people, and that nothing short of the bayonet shall drive us hence." The marquis withdrew, and the assembly proceeded to declare the personal exemption of its members from arrest, and denounced the penalty of death against any one who should

attack their liberties. The conflict between the king and the people was now distinctly joined, and the revolution was begun.

The king now had the weakness to ask the nobles and the rest of the clergy, as a personal favor to himself, to join the sittings of the assembly. They consented with great reluctance, and on the 27th of June the fusion of the three orders completed the constitution of the national assembly. Thus the king entirely surrendered all his claims, and sanctioned the unconstitutional action of the tiers état. After such folly he had nothing to hope for but ruin.

In spite of this surrender, Louis yielded to the ill advised counsels of the queen and her party, and resolved to maintain his authority by force; and accordingly an army of 40,000 men was assembled at Paris under Marshal Broglie. A number of the regiments of this force were composed of Swiss and German mercenaries. Feeling himself safe under the protection of this army, the king dismissed Necker, who was disliked and feared by the court party, from his offices, and ordered him to quit France at once. He immediately withdrew to Brussels.

The dismissal of Necker produced the most profound agitation in Paris. The people at once rose in insurrection, and resisted an effort of the royal troops to disperse them. An assembly of electors at the Hotel de Ville directed the outbreak, and ordered the enrolment of the national guard or militia. To arm this force large quantities of arms, cannon, and ammunition were seized at the Hotel des Invalides, and 50,000 pikes were manufactured in two days. Paris was completely in the hands of the mob, and the royal troops, encamped in the Champs Elysées, made no effort to interfere with the populace, their officers being profoundly convinced that they could not be relied upon to act against the people. On the 14th of July the populace made a desperate attack upon the Bastille, the terrible fortress prison which had become so odious to the nation as the stronghold of tyranny. It was defended with gallantry by the governor, De Launay, and a small garrison of 200 Swiss, but was carried by assault after a contest of five hours. The governor and three of his officers were put to death by the mob.

The king, now thoroughly alarmed, went, on foot and unattended, to the national as-

sembly the next day, and promised to dismiss the foreign troops, recall Necker, and rely upon the loyalty of the people. He was hailed with enthusiasm as the saviour of his country, and was escorted back to his palace by a deputation of the assembly. The next day, at the instance of Lafayette, and of Bailly, now Mayor of Paris, he visited Paris escorted by an armed mob. He was welcomed at the Hotel de Ville by Bailly with a loyal speech, and the keys of the city were placed in his hands. He then assumed the tricolor cockade, appointed Lafayette, whose services in the American war of independence had made him popular with the people, commander of the national guard, and returned to Versailles.

The mob was not to be pacified without blood, however, and Foulon, Necker's successor in the ministry, and his son-in-law Berthier, were seized and hung to the lantern at the corner of the street. The spirit of mob violence was not confined to the capital. The people had been so tyrannized over and crushed down by oppressive laws, that in their new-found liberty their first impulse was to be revenged upon their oppressors. In the provinces the peasantry rose against the landed proprietors, and, especially in Dauphiny, Provence, and Burgundy, committed fearful outrages upon them. The national assembly undertook to provide measures for restoring order, and for the purpose of removing the abuses of which the people complained, the Viscount de Noailles and the Duke D'Aiguillon proposed that all feudal rights and exclusive privileges should be abolished. The pro-

posal was accepted with delight by the assembly, and in a moment of generous enthusiasm the ancient feudal constitution of France was entirely changed. Serfdom was abolished, civil and military appointments were thrown open to all classes, the woods and streams of France were made free to all, the compulsory tithes for the support of the clergy were annulled, and the state assumed the support of the church, an in-



MIRABEAU.

consistency which did not escape the sarcasm of Abbe Sieyés. It was hoped that these measures would remove the evils from which the state was suffering, and the assembly proceeded to frame a new constitution, the principles of which it embodied in a Declaration of the Rights of Man, which, at the motion of Lafayette, included the right to resist oppression.

In the midst of its constitutional labors

the assembly was startled by a new outbreak in Paris. At a banquet given to one of the royal regiments at Versailles on the 3d of October, the tri-colored cockade was trampled under foot, and the white cockade of the Bourbons cheered with enthusiasm. This evidence of hostility to the people was reported in Paris while the city was agitated by disturbances of the hungry poor. It produced intense excitement, and on the morning of the 5th, a furious mob, led by a band of excited women, set out for Versailles, without having any definite purpose in view. A portion of them burst into the hall of the national assembly, and a ruffian named Maillard demanded instant relief for the starving poor of Paris. The president of the assembly was directed to go at once to the king to see what could be done, and a number of women accompanied him. The king received them with a kindness that disarmed them, and promised to do what he could for their relief. In the meantime a conflict had broken out between the royal guard and the rest of the rioters, and the mob gave utterance to furious threats against the court, and especially against the queen. They then built fires in the streets and bivouacked around them for the night. Towards midnight Lafayette arrived from Paris with the national guard, for the protection of the king. About five o'clock the next morning a party of rioters attacked the chateau, forced their way into the royal apartments, and but for the firmness of a part of the body guard, who defended the door of the queen's chamber until cut down, would most likely have massacred the entire royal family. Lafayette succeeded in driving out the mob with the aid of some of the grenadiers, and quelled the disturbance.

The mob now demanded that the king should return to Paris, where he would be under the control of the revolutionary leaders. Seeing that it was impossible to prevent a renewal of the conflict in any other way, Lafayette advised the king to comply with the demand. On the 6th of October the royal family set out for Paris, accompanied by an immense throng of the lowest class, which made the journey even more humiliating by their brutal exultations over their conquest of the king. Upon reaching Paris, the royal family proceeded at once to the palace of the Tuileries, which had not been occupied for more than a century.

The national assembly now transferred its sessions to Paris, and henceforth conducted its business without distinction of rank, nobles, priests, and commons sitting side by side. It resumed its labors upon the new constitution, and for a year conducted them without interruption. It swept away all the ancient privileges and disabilities. All religious creeds were placed on an equality; and all classes were declared equal before the law; the civil and military offices of the kingdom were thrown open to all Frenchmen without regard to rank or religious belief; the right of succession by primogeniture was abolished, and parents were required to divide their possessions equally between their children; the administration of justice was improved, and the death penalty was affixed to a smaller number of crimes; the right of suffrage was granted to nearly every citizen; and the ancient division of the country into provinces was swept away, and France was divided into eighty-three nearly equal departments, which were subdivided into districts and cantons. Hereditary titles of nobility were suppressed, and the nobles were reduced to the ordinary rank of citizens.

The finances also received the attention of the assembly. Necker, upon being recalled, proposed two heavy loans and an extraordinary tax, amounting to one-fourth of the income of the persons assessed. The measures were adopted after a prolonged debate, but the loans could not be negotiated, and as the incomes of the citizens were estimated by themselves, the tax yielded but a very unsatisfactory amount. In this emergency the assembly ordered the confiscation and sale of all the ecclesiastical property in France, and to meet the necessities of the moment the municipalities which purchased this property were allowed to issue promissory notes or bonds secured upon it. These were called *Assignats*; they were given a forced currency, and were circulated as money in the place of coin. Assignats were subsequently issued by the government, which pledged the national faith for their redemption. They finally became so much depreciated as to be worthless.

Since the fall of the Bastille the nobility had been steadily leaving France and seeking safety in Italy, Switzerland and Germany. All the princes of the blood and the great nobles abandoned both king and

country, and provided for their own safety in foreign lands.

On the 14th of July, 1790, the anniversary of the taking of the Bastile, the fête of the federation was held on the Champs de Mars. An altar was erected in this vast square, before which two thrones of equal splendor were prepared, side by side. On one sat the king, on the other the president of the assembly. The royal family were seated in the rear of the thrones, and the square was occupied by the members of the assembly, the national guard and the troops of the line, 60,000 federates, and an immense concourse of citizens. High mass was said by Talleyrand de Périgord, Bishop of Autun, and the oath to the new constitution was taken by the king, Lafayette, and the whole body of federates. At the moment the oath was pronounced by the king the queen held up the little dauphin in her arms, as if to associate him in his father's act. The greatest enthusiasm prevailed. Unhappily it was followed in the provinces by serious disturbances, in which many persons were killed. Necker finding that his measures were unsuccessful, and that he was becoming unpopular, resigned his office and retired into Switzerland in September, 1790.

Mirabeau was now president of the national assembly, and he conceived a plan by which he hoped to save the monarchy and preserve the liberties of the nation. He believed himself strong enough to unite all moderate men upon his plan, but unhappily for the king, he died on the 2d of April, 1791, and his measures perished with him. He was a great man, and his death was a serious misfortune to his country, as he might have saved both the monarchy and constitutional liberty. With Mirabeau the last hope of the king passed away, and, wearied with the annoyances to which he was subjected, Louis consented to attempt to escape from Paris, and join the army at Montmédy. Negotiations were completed with the Emperor of Germany and several foreign sovereigns to assist the French king with troops. On the night of the 20th of June, the royal family secretly left Paris, and proceeded as far as Varennes, on the way to Montmédy. There they were apprehended and brought back to Paris with brutal insults. Louis was declared by the assembly to be suspended from his royal functions, but it was decided that he could be restored to his throne upon

the promulgation of the new constitution. This decree greatly enraged the revolutionary party, which hoped the king's flight would be made the occasion of his dethronement, and by order of the Jacobin and Cordelier clubs, a violent demonstration was made against it on the Champs de Mars on the 17th of July. The assembly ordered Bailly and Lafayette to maintain order, and after vainly endeavoring to disperse the mob peaceably, Bailly, as Mayor of Paris, ordered the national guard to fire on the people. He was obeyed, and a number of the rioters were slain. This decisive conduct won for the assembly, the mayor, and Lafayette the dislike of the revolutionists.

The new constitution was presented to the king, who, after several days of deliberation, accepted it, and in the presence of the assembly, on the 14th of September, 1791, swore to maintain it. He was thereupon restored to his kingly office. The president declared the constituent assembly at an end, and having passed an act disqualifying any of its members from serving in the forthcoming assembly, it was dissolved on the 30th of September, 1791.

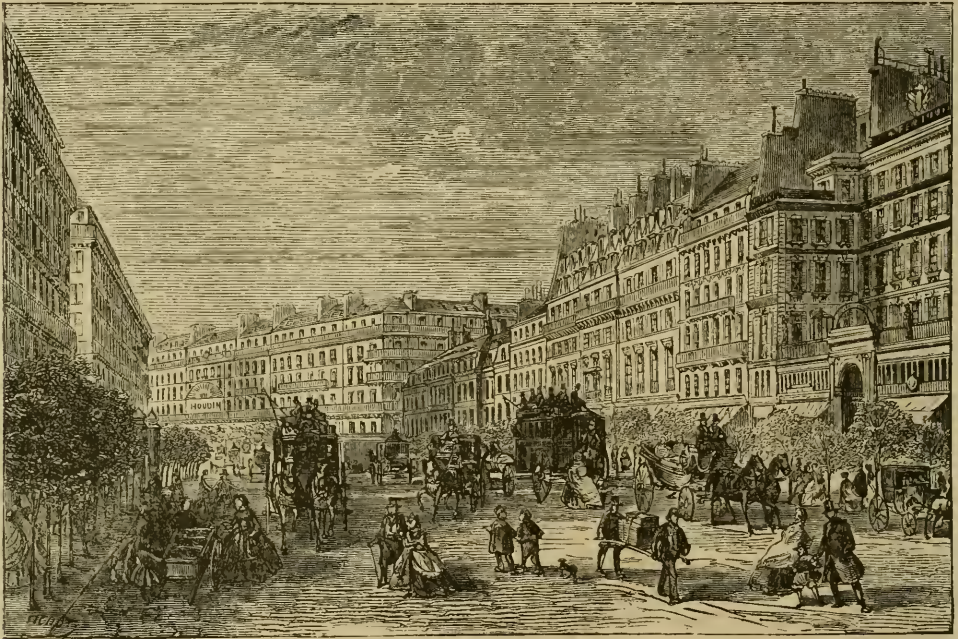
On the 1st of October the *Legislative Assembly* met. It consisted of 745 members, who were almost entirely men of the middle class and unknown to the country, and who could in no way be said to represent the wealth, the intelligence, or the real sentiments of France. It embraced several distinctly marked parties. The Right was composed of the Feuillants (or Constitutionals), so called from their club, which was held in the old Convent of the Feuillants. They were satisfied with what had already been accomplished in the way of reform, and sustained the new constitution as securing the rights of the people while preserving the forms of the monarchy. This party kept up a friendly intercourse with the king, and was supported by Lafayette. The Left consisted of Revolutionists, more or less extreme in their views. It embraced many of the ablest men in the assembly. Its recognized leaders were from the department of the Gironde, from which fact the party was named the Girondins. Closely allied with the Girondins was a small party of extremists, known as the Mountain, from their occupying the highest benches at the extreme left of the hall. They wished to overthrow the monarchy and establish a republic. They were the leaders of the mob of Paris, to whom they

looked for support, and exercised their power chiefly through the radical clubs known as the Jacobins and the Cordeliers. The chief of the former club was Maximilian Robespierre; the leaders of the latter were Danton, Marat, Camille Desmoulins, and Fabre d'Eglantine. The Centre was composed of weak and timid men, who voted generally with the Girondins, and had no influence.

The assembly began its career by ordering the Count of Provence (afterwards Louis XVIII.), who had emigrated, to return to France within sixty days, on pain of forfeiting his claim to the regency. This

was questioned, and he was denounced as an accomplice in the plots of the emigrants. The assembly next proceeded to decree that the clergy who refused to take the oath to the new constitution should be deprived of the support granted them by the state, and placed under the surveillance of the police. As all but a few of the clergy were non-jurors, this was a sweeping measure. It was vetoed by the king, who denounced it as an unmitigated persecution.

The court now committed a serious error. Lafayette, a sincere friend of the constitutional monarchy, and Pétion, an ardent Girondist, were candidates for the mayor-



BOULEVARD MONTMARTRE—PARIS.

measure was approved by the king. The nobles, who had emigrated, had formed an army on the German side of the Rhine, under the Prince of Condé, and were earnestly seeking to bring about a counter revolution in favor of the king. The assembly ordered them to return to France, and declared that if they were found in arms on the 1st of January, 1792, they would be punished by the confiscation of their estates, and with death if captured. As the emigrants were in arms in the king's behalf, Louis vetoed this measure, though he issued a proclamation commanding the emigrants to return, and threatening them with severe measures in case of refusal. His sincerity

of Paris. Lafayette was disliked by the queen, who induced the court to cast its influence in favor of Pétion, an enemy of the constitution and the monarchy. With the aid of this influence he was elected. This placed the municipal government of the capital entirely in the hands of the revolutionists, as the municipal council was already ruled by Danton, Robespierre, Tallien, Billaud-Varennes, and other sworn revolutionists.

The German states now intervened for the purpose of restoring Louis XVI. to the authority originally enjoyed by him, and of undoing the work of the Revolution. Upon the accession of the Emperor Francis II.,



THE MOB INVADE THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

Austria addressed an ultimatum to France, demanding the restoration of the French monarchy, the surrender of the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine to the dispossessed princes, the return of the county of Venaisin to the pope, and the restoration of the confiscated property to the church. This interference of Austria was met by the assembly with decisive measures. The king was obliged to dismiss his constitutionalist ministry, and to summon one composed of Girondins. On the 20th of April, 1792, war was declared against Austria. In all Europe there was not a man who had any conception of the terrible and overwhelming character the struggle now commencing was to assume. It was to change both the map and the character of Europe.

The confiscation of the church property had given the government a full treasury. Three strong armies were stationed to protect the French frontier. General Rochambeau with 48,000 men held the line from Dunkirk to Phillippeville, from which place to Lauterbourg it was held by the command of General Lafayette, 52,000 strong, and Marshal Luckner with 42,000 men occupied the country between Lauterbourg and Basle. Two strong detachments were routed by the Austrians near Lisle and Valenciennes, and these defeats were at once attributed to treachery. The Girondins, who were now supreme in the assembly, endeavored to pacify the mob by ordering the banishment of all non-juring priests, the disbanding of the royal guard, and the establishment of a camp of 20,000 federal troops near Paris. The king consented to the dismissal of his guards, but vetoed the other measures. The Girondin ministry remonstrated with considerable violence, and was dismissed by the king on the 12th of June, 1792. Louis then formed a new constitutionalist ministry. The new ministers made a feeble effort to save the new constitution, and Lafayette wrote from his camp on the Belgian frontier to the assembly demanding the suppression of the Jacobin faction and the clubs allied with it. At the same time the king despatched a secret envoy with confidential instructions to the emigrants and the princes of the coalition in his behalf. The measures of the ministry and the letter of Lafayette brought matters to a crisis, and the Girondins and Jacobins combined to destroy their opponents.

On the 20th of June a body of 20,000 rioters, armed with scythes, clubs, and

pikes, burst into the hall of the assembly, led by Sauterre, a brewer, who harangued the assembly and marched his men through the hall. The mob then departed to the Tuileries and entered the palace. They were met with firmness by the king, and did nothing but insult and menace the royal family, after which they departed. The firm conduct of the king produced a slight reaction in his favor, of which the ministry endeavored to take advantage. Lafayette returned to Paris, and attempted to raise a force to put down the Jacobins. Not a hundred men answered his call, and in despair he returned to the army, and he and his party made no further effort to save Louis from the fate which they now saw was inevitable.

France was now menaced with a foreign invasion, and at the same time her internal troubles threatened to plunge her into a bloody civil war. The assembly solemnly proclaimed, on the 11th of July, that "the country was in danger," and called on the people to rally to its defence. In obedience to this call thousands of volunteers rose in all parts of France and hastened by forced marches to Paris. While this general uprising was in progress, the Prussian army of invasion was approaching the frontier. Its commander, the Duke of Brunswick, issued a most ill-advised proclamation, commanding the French nation to submit at once to Louis XVI. as its lawful sovereign, and threatening, in case the least violence was offered to the royal family, to lay Paris in ruins. At the same time the duke insolently promised, in case his orders were promptly obeyed, to obtain from Louis XVI. a general amnesty for the rebellious French people.

This proclamation aroused a storm of indignation in France, and especially in Paris. On the 3d of August the sections of Paris, headed by Pétion, proceeded to the assembly, and demanded the immediate deposition of the king. On the 6th the same demand was made by the volunteers. The assembly hesitated, and finally resolved by a large majority not to arrest or bring the king to trial. This refusal exasperated the sections so greatly that they resolved to take the matter in their own hands, and, having secured the municipal government, they rose in arms on the night of the 9th of August, and before daylight marched to attack the Tuileries.

The force for the defence of the Tuileries had been greatly strengthened in anticipa-

tion of an attack, and was prepared to offer a determined resistance to the mob. Mandat, the commander of this force, was summoned before the commune, or municipal council, at the Hotel de Ville, and went to receive their orders. As he turned to depart he was shot down, and the force at the Tuileries was left without a commander and helpless. By seven o'clock on the morning of the 10th of August the palace was invested on all sides by the mob, and fifty pieces of cannon were trained upon it. The national guard, intrusted with the defence of the palace, went over to the people, and the king, who had shown neither courage nor good judgment in this crisis, decided to leave the palace and seek the protection of the assembly. It was a decisive step, being equivalent under the circumstances to an abdication of his throne, but it was the only means by which he could save the lives of the queen and her children and of the devoted friends who surrounded them. Under the protection of a small party of armed gentlemen and national guards, the royal family left the palace, and walked to the hall of the assembly, at the opposite side of the gardens. The king, upon entering, said with dignity that he had come among the assembly to prevent the commission of a great crime. The president replied that his majesty might count upon the firmness of the assembly, which had sworn to die in defence of the people and the constituted authorities. The royal family were then provided with seats behind the president's chair, and the assembly resumed its deliberations.

In the meantime the mob made a fierce attack upon the palace, carried it by assault, and massacred the handful of Swiss guards who bravely sought to hold them at bay. By eleven o'clock the insurgents were in full possession of the palace and of the city. The mob then rushed into the hall of the assembly, and dictated its terms to that body. In accordance with these terms the assembly declared that "the chief of the executive power" was provisionally suspended from his office, and the Palace of the Luxembourg was temporarily assigned him as a residence. A national convention was to be summoned at once, and charged with the task of determining the form of the future government.

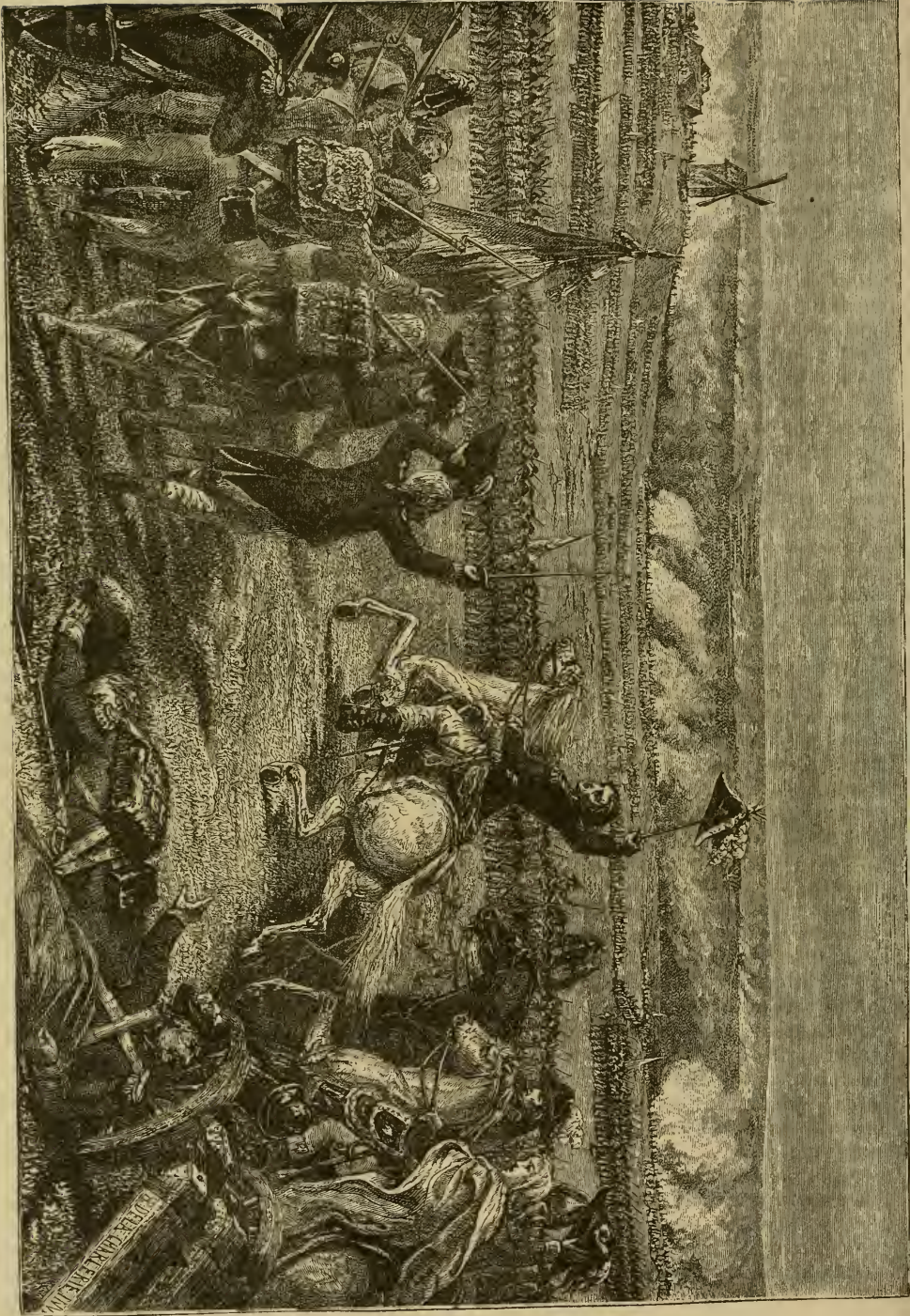
The Jacobins were thus the masters of Paris, and undertook to administer the national government by means of their muni-

cipal council. They retained the assembly, now entirely subservient to their will, in order to give a color of legality to their proceedings. A committee of safety was established under the presidency of Marat, a blood-thirsty wretch, which, under the pretence of detecting conspiracies against the state, inaugurated an infamous system of espionage and domiciliary visitation. A special tribunal, consisting of nine judges, was created for the trial of persons accused of conspiracy against the state. It was governed in its proceedings by martial law, and its decisions were final. On the 13th of August, by order of the commune, the royal family were removed from the Luxembourg and imprisoned in the gloomy fortress of the Temple. Their confinement was made from the first cruel and rigorous, and they were subjected to constant insult and outrages by the municipal guard. The assembly sent messengers to the army to announce the revolution of the 10th of August, and to secure the adherence of the troops. Lafayette refused to recognize the change, and arrested the messengers. He was declared a traitor by the assembly, and finding himself deserted by his troops and in danger of his life, he abandoned his command and sought safety in the camp of the allies. They held him as a prisoner, and subsequently sent him to the Austrian fortress of Olmutz, where he was kept a captive for five years. He was succeeded in his command by General Dumouriez.

In the meantime the allied army, one hundred and ten thousand strong, under the command of the King of Prussia, entered France on the 30th of July, and on the 20th of August invested Longwy, which surrendered on the 23d. The allies then advanced upon Verdun, sending a corps to lay siege to Thionville. Verdun was taken a few days later, and the invaders now threatened Paris.

The news of the successes of the Prussians created the most profound excitement and alarm in France. It was thought impossible to prevent the capture of Paris, and it was seriously proposed that the government should leave the city and retire south of the Loire. Danton opposed this proposal, and declared that "it was necessary to strike the royalists with terror." This ominous declaration was at once acted upon by the committee of safety, which arrested all the persons in the city believed to be hostile to the revolution. On the

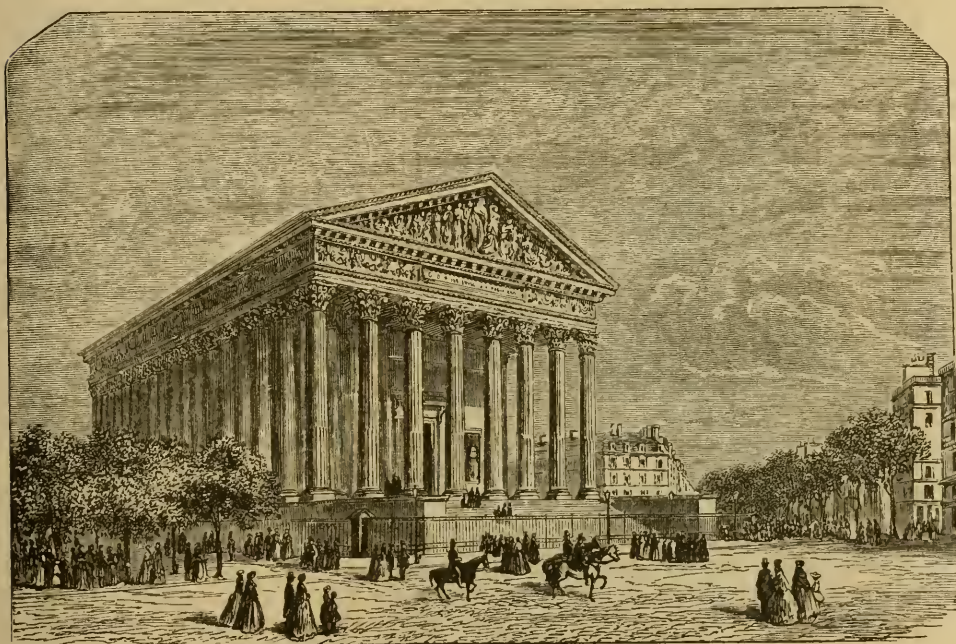
BATTLE OF VALMY.



night of the 30th of August 3,000 persons were arrested and confined in the various prisons, already full to overflowing. It had been decided from the first to put these prisoners to death. On the 2d of September the tocsin was rung, and the rumor was circulated that the royalists were about to rise, release the prisoners, and betray the city to the Prussians. The most intense excitement prevailed, in the midst of which the commune sent a band of hired ruffians to murder the prisoners. For five days the massacre was continued; the prisons were successively emptied, and as their inmates passed out into the open air

Dumouriez, Lafayette's successor, time to occupy the defiles of the forest of Argonne with a force of 30,000 men. After several indecisive battles, the principal of which was that of Valmy, fought on the 20th of September, 1792, the Duke of Brunswick, whose army had been reduced to a deplorable condition by sickness and a lack of provisions, was compelled to withdraw across the Rhine, with a loss of 30,000 men in this badly conducted expedition.

Dumouriez now received the permission of the convention to drive the Austrians out of the Netherlands. On the 23d of October he completely defeated their army



CHURCH OF THE MADELEINE—PARIS.

they were cut down by the assassins. Among those who perished was the young and beautiful Princess de Lamballe, the confidential friend of Marie Antoinette. Several thousand persons were killed in Paris, and the frenzy spread to the provinces, where about 2,000 more royalists perished. The leaders of the massacre at Paris were Danton, Robespierre and Marat.

The capture of Verdun left the road to Paris open to the allies, but the Duke of Brunswick, instead of marching upon that city at once, lingered ten days upon the line of the Meuse, and thus gave General

at Jemappes. By this victory he became the master of the whole of the Austrian Netherlands. On the 14th of November he entered Brussels. The people at once rose, renounced their allegiance to Austria, and organized a republic. On the 19th of November the convention ordered that the French commanders should, in all territory conquered by them from foreign nations, overthrow the old governments, confiscate the property of the priests and nobles, and establish a republican form of government.

On the 21st of September, 1792, the legislative assembly gave place to the national convention. It was a thoroughly

revolutionary body, but was divided into two bitterly hostile parties, the Girondins and the Mountain, the latter of which was supported by the Jacobins and the mob of Paris. The former was the more intelligent as well as the more numerous; the latter the more audacious and determined. On the first day of the session it was decreed that "royalty was abolished in France," and that the republic should date its existence from that day. All titles were abolished; men were to be called "citizen," women "citizeness;" the emigrants were condemned to perpetual banishment, and were to be punished with death if they reentered France, or were taken in arms.

A fierce discussion now ensued between the Girondists and the Mountain as to the punishment of the king; and resulted in the victory of the latter party. It was ordered that "Louis Capet," as the king was styled, should be brought to trial before the convention. On the 10th of December the indictment against Louis was read. The principal charges against him were, having invited foreign powers to invade France, having, by his neglect of the army, caused the loss of Longwy and Verdun, and having incited the insurrection of the 10th of August in order to cause a massacre of his people. The trial of the king was begun on the 11th of December. He was defended, and his innocence clearly shown, by three able lawyers, who risked their heads by this service, but his death had been determined on from the first, and he was declared guilty by an almost unanimous vote. The convention was then called upon to decide the manner of his punishment. By a bare majority the king was sentenced to death. The Girondins sincerely desired to save the life of the king, but they were lacking in courage and determined effort. Among those who voted for the death of the king was the notorious Duke of Orleans, his cousin, who sat in the convention under the name of Philip Egalité. The convention ordered the sentence to be executed within twenty-four hours. The king was granted the privilege of seeing his family without witnesses, and was allowed the attendance of a confessor of his own choice, the Abbé Edgeworth.

On the morning of the 21st of January, 1793, Louis was conveyed in a carriage, under a strong guard of troops, from the Temple to the Place de la Revolution (now the Place de la Concorde), in the centre of

which the guillotine had been erected. The crowd preserved a respectful silence, and the king, who bore himself with courage and dignity, attempted to address the throng. Santerre, the commander of the troops, ordered the drums to be beaten, and the king's voice was drowned. He then submitted himself to the executioner, and his head was severed from his body. The executioner held up the gory head to the crowd, and cried, "Long live the republic!" Louis was in his thirty-ninth year and had reigned nearly nineteen years. His brother, the Count of Provence, who was in exile, declared himself regent for his little nephew, Louis XVII., then a prisoner in the Temple.

The execution of the king aroused a feeling of horror and indignation throughout Europe, and was regarded by the European governments as a general menace to all the monarchies of the world, and the French were held to be the common enemies of mankind. All the kings and princes now made common cause against France. Great Britain, Russia, Prussia, the empire, Sardinia, the Two Sicilies, and Portugal entered into an alliance against her. The French ambassadors were ordered to quit those countries, and French citizens residing in them were either expelled or arrested. France at once declared war against the *rulers* of England, Holland and Spain, a distinction being made by the convention between the people and the sovereigns. It was clearly understood that the war was to be a death-struggle for the republic, and an army of 500,000 men was ordered to be raised and placed in the field at once. Sweden, Denmark and Switzerland were the only states with which the republic remained on friendly terms.

Dumouriez, upon the capture of the Austrian Netherlands, had made great efforts to save the life of the king and the constitutional monarchy. During the debate upon the fate of Louis he returned to Paris, and exerted himself actively to avert the execution. Seeing that his efforts were hopeless, he returned to his head-quarters. Soon afterwards he was ordered by the convention to march against the Austrians under the Prince of Coburg. He did so, and was defeated at Neerwinden on the 18th of March, with a loss of 4,000 men. He now entered into a treaty with the Austrian generals for the purpose of overthrowing the republic, and restoring the constitu-

tional monarchy, with the Duke de Chartres (afterwards king as Louis Philippe), the eldest son of the Duke of Orleans, at its head. News of his treasonable conduct was conveyed to Paris, and four commissioners were sent into his camp to arrest him. He seized them and delivered them to the Austrians, and called on his troops to follow him in an effort to rescue France from the tyranny of the convention. His troops deserted him, and he fled to the Austrian camp for safety. He was never permitted to re-enter France.

In the meantime the conflict between the Jacobins and Girondins hastened to a crisis. On the 10th of March, 1793, a "Revolutionary Tribunal" was established, to decide, without appeal, the fate of all persons accused of crimes against "liberty, equality, and the indivisibility of the republic." "A Committee of Public Safety" was established on the 27th of May, consisting of nine members, and this terrible body was given full dictatorial powers in the management of the government. The government was now thoroughly in the hands of the Jacobins, who were thus the masters of France. The great majority of the nation wished for a return of peace and order; but they were compelled to obey the will of the savage mob of Paris. On the 2d of June a mob of over 80,000 armed men surrounded the Tuileries and compelled the convention to order the arrest of its Girondin members. Thirty-two were arrested and imprisoned. Seventy-three more were expelled from the convention for protesting against the arrest of their fellow-members. Many of them at once left Paris and sought safety in the provinces. They repaired to Caen and placed themselves at the head of a rebellion against the convention which had sprung up in the western departments. A rival government was set up at Caen, and communications were opened with Bordeaux, Lyons, Marseilles, and Toulon, and other

disaffected cities, an armed force was raised, and it seemed that a formidable civil war was about to break out. At this juncture Charlotte Corday, a young woman of Caen, went to Paris, and obtaining admission to the house of Marat, one of the most bloodthirsty of the Jacobin leaders, stabbed him



ROBESPIERRE.

to the heart. She made no effort to escape, and was sentenced to death by the revolutionary tribunal. She met her fate with firmness.

A royalist insurrection in La Vendée was crushed with remorseless severity, and the city of Lyons, which had resisted the authority of the convention, was forced to surrender, and was punished by the summary execution of nearly 2,000 of its

inhabitants by order of a revolutionary tribunal, and the destruction of its public buildings. Toulon was devoted to the royal cause, and procured the aid of an English fleet under Admiral Hood. It was attacked by an army under General Dugommier, and was reduced mainly by the skilful dispositions of Napoleon Bonaparte, a young officer serving in the army as commandant of artillery. Toulon was evacuated by the British on the 19th of December, and several thousand French royalists escaped in the fleet.

The Jacobins, being now triumphant, proceeded to punish their enemies, and inaugurated a period of horror, which will always be known as the Reign of Terror. Robespierre, now one of the committee of public safety, Barrère, Carnot, Couthon, St. Just, and Billaud-Varennes were the leading spirits of this period. A general levy of the citizens of France was ordered for the defence of the country, a "law of the suspected" gave the government power to deprive any citizen of liberty or life, and its operations crowded the prisons of France with about 200,000 captives. General Custine was guillotined for his defeat at Mayence and the loss of Valenciennes. The queen, Marie Antoinette, who had been a prisoner all this time, was now brought to trial. She was charged with having exercised a criminal influence over her husband, with having wasted the public treasure, and with having instigated foreign invasion. She was condemned to death, and was executed on the 16th of October, 1793. The next victims were the twenty-one proscribed Girondins. One of them committed suicide in the court, but the remainder were guillotined on the 31st of October. The members of this party who had escaped to the provinces were hunted with a ferocity which has no parallel in history. On the 6th of November the Duke of Orleans, the notorious Philip Egalité, was guillotined amid the savage curses of the mob. Among the victims of the next few days were Madame Roland, the gifted wife of one of the Girondin leaders, Bailly, the former mayor of Paris, and Madame du Barry, the mistress of Louis XV. In the provinces the same cruelties were perpetrated. At Nantes a revolutionary tribunal was established under the presidency of a bloodthirsty wretch named Carrier. Not less than 15,000 persons were put to death by his orders at Nantes during the last three months of the year 1793.

The convention, under the lead of the extreme Jacobins, now abolished the Gregorian calendar, and substituted a ridiculous system of its own. The French era was dated from the 22d of September, 1792, and every tenth day was set apart as a period of rest. What little had been left of the Christian religion was formally abolished by the convention. A well-known dancer from the opera was enthroned on the high altar at the Cathedral of Notre Dame, and was worshipped by all the authorities of the state and city as the goddess of reason. Over the cemeteries was placed the legend, "Death is an eternal sleep." The sepulchres of the kings of France at St. Denis were violated, and the remains of the dead monarchs were cast into the common ditch.

These excesses were committed by the Hébertists, the most ultra faction of the Jacobins. Robespierre was not in favor of them, and seized the first opportunity to cause the Hébertists to be denounced. They had attempted an unsuccessful insurrection, and their leaders were seized and were guillotined on the 24th of March, 1794. Robespierre, under all his assumption of moderation, was aiming at the possession of the supreme power of the state. Between him and the object of his desires there was but one obstacle—his great rival, Danton. He determined to destroy him and his supporters at one blow. On the 1st of April, 1794, Danton, Camille Desmoulins, Fabre d'Eglantine, Héault de Séchelle, and eleven others were arrested and imprisoned. They were not allowed to defend themselves, and, after a mock trial, were guillotined on the 6th of April.

Robespierre was now master of France. He at once dropped the mask of moderation, and the work of the guillotine went on more mercilessly than ever. Between the 10th of June and the 27th of July, 1794, over fourteen hundred persons were guillotined in Paris. For three months Robespierre held undisputed power. He was not an atheist, and one of his first acts was to restore the worship of a supreme being, which he did with impious ceremonies designed for his own glorification. The immortality of the soul was also proclaimed as an article of the national faith.

The fall of this monster was but a question of time. A powerful opposition to him was silently gathering strength in the convention. He received intimations of his danger, and prepared to avert it by sending

his enemies to the guillotine. A secret list of those he meant to destroy was discovered, and was found to contain the names of the best men in the convention. The discovery brought matters to a crisis, and on the 27th of July, Tallien, Billaud-Varennes, and other leaders of the conspiracy against him, denounced Robespierre in the convention. Robespierre vainly endeavored to obtain a hearing, but his voice was drowned in shouts of "Down with the tyrant!" He was arrested, together with four of his associates. The commune at once took up arms, rescued him from his prison, and carried him in triumph to the Hotel de Ville. The convention was now bound to triumph or perish. Its troops were at once placed under arms, and the Hotel de Ville was surrounded. Robespierre, afraid to meet the fate he had inflicted upon thousands of his countrymen, made an unsuccessful attempt at suicide. The commune surrendered, and on the 28th of July Robespierre and the members of the commune were guillotined amid the rejoicings of the populace. With the death of Robespierre the Reign of Terror came to an end. The cruel Carrier and the infamous Fouquier-Tinville, the public prosecutor during the Reign of Terror, were guillotined by order of the convention.

Tallien, Fouché, Legendre, and their associates, into whose hands the government had now passed, were not naturally disposed to moderation, but the public sentiment had set so strongly in favor of a more humane course, that they wisely yielded to it. The seventy-three deputies who had protested against the arrest of the Girondins were readmitted to the convention, and 10,000 persons, detained in prison on suspicion, were released in Paris alone. A similar measure was put in force throughout France. The Jacobin club was suppressed; the laws banishing the priests and nobles were repealed, and the Christian faith and worship were restored.

The sufferings of the people were not ended, however. The winter of 1794-95 was very rigorous, and bread and fuel were scarce and high. The assignats were worthless, and there was no other currency to replace them. The distress of the people was extreme. The Jacobins endeavored to take advantage of this distress to regain their lost power, and on the 1st of April and 20th of May, 1795, the mob of Paris rose in arms to demand bread and the restoration to liberty of the terrorist leaders. These

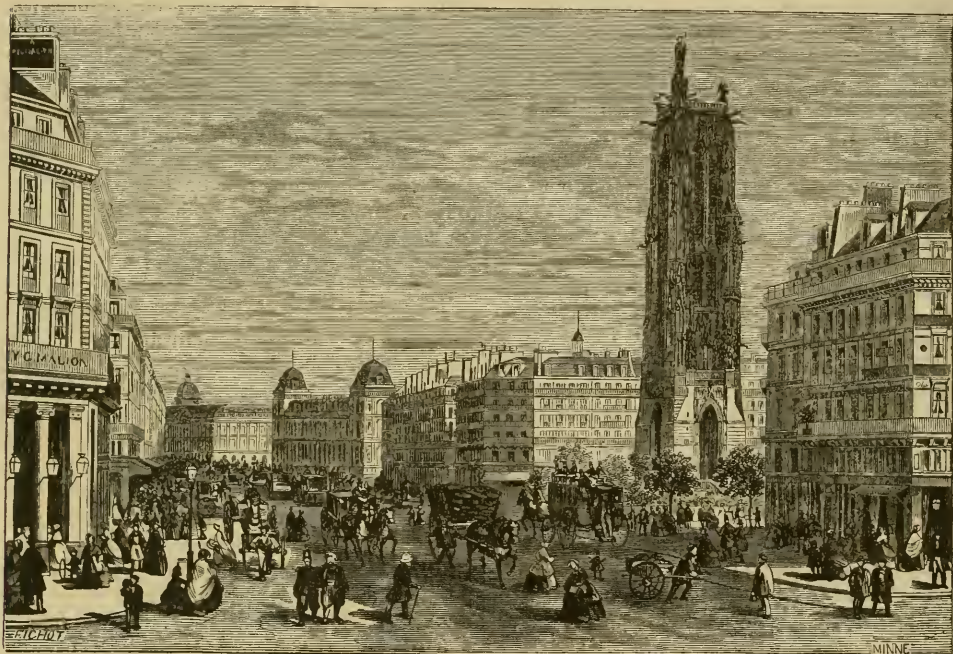
outbreaks were summarily quelled, and the people of the Faubourg St. Antoine, the chief seat of the disturbances, were compelled to surrender their arms to the convention. In the provinces a counter-revolution set in against the Jacobins, and was marked by as much cruelty as the Reign of Terror had produced.

While these terrible scenes were transpiring in France, the republic was compelled to maintain a life and death struggle against the foreign powers which were seeking its overthrow. The armies of the republic were thirteen in number, and amounted to between 600,000 and 700,000 men. The army of the Sambre and the Meuse was commanded by General Jourdan. On the 26th of June, 1794, he defeated the allies at Fleurus. He then formed a junction with the army of the north under General Pichegru, and on the 9th of July the French occupied Brussels. The allies under the Duke of York now fell back into Holland, and abandoned the whole of Belgium to the French. Pichegru now advanced to the Meuse, and prepared for the invasion of Holland, while Jourdan drove the Austrians back towards the Rhine, inflicted a crushing defeat upon them at Ruremonde, on the 5th of October, and compelled them to retreat into Germany. Cologne and Treves were quickly occupied by the French, who by the end of October held the Rhine from Worms to Nimwegen. On the Spanish and Italian frontiers the armies of the republic were equally successful during this year. The French were not without their reverses, however. An English fleet under Lord Howe won a brilliant victory over the French fleet off the Isle of Ushant, on the 1st of June, and Corsica revolted and placed itself under the protection of England.

Pichegru crossed the Meuse on the ice in the last week of December, and on the 11th of January, 1795, defeated the English and Dutch at Nimwegen, and compelled them to make a disastrous retreat. The Dutch welcomed the French with delight, and the stadtholder fled to England, and on the 20th of January Pichegru entered Amsterdam in triumph. The English army, after much suffering on their retreat, reached Bremen, and sailed from that port for England. Holland at once submitted, and the conquest of that country was accomplished without a single battle. A republican government, modelled upon that of France,

was set up by the French, and Holland became known as the Batavian Republic. Negotiations were now opened with Prussia, which was tired of the war, and on the 5th of April a treaty of peace was signed between that country and France, Prussia surrendering to the republic all her possessions on the left bank of the Rhine. The King of Prussia was now more anxious to enjoy his ill-gotten share of the Polish territory than to aid the French Bourbons. Peace was soon after made with the princes of the empire through the mediation of Prussia. A similar treaty was also negotiated with Spain. That power insisted that

In the summer of 1795 a fresh insurrection of the royalists broke out in La Vendée, under Generals Stofflet and Charette. An English squadron with 3,000 French emigrants joined the insurgents, and the Count of Provence, the brother of Louis XVI., was proclaimed king as Louis XVIII. A force under General Hoche was sent against them by the government, and a bloody and desperate war was maintained until March, 1796, when, Charette and Stofflet having been taken and put to death, the struggle in La Vendée came to a close. It is said to have cost the lives of 100,000 Frenchmen.



RUE DE RIVOLI, AND THE TOWER OF ST. JACQUES—PARIS.

the children of Louis XVI., who were still prisoners in the hands of the convention, should be set at liberty. The death on the 11th of June, 1795, at the age of eleven, of the unhappy dauphin, who was styled Louis XVII. by his adherents, removed the chief obstacle to the treaty. Spain recognized the French republic, and ceded to it her West Indian island of St. Domingo in return for the French conquests in northern Spain. The young daughter of Louis XVI. was then liberated from the Temple, and exchanged for the commissioners of the convention who had been betrayed to the Austrians by Dumouriez.

In the meantime the convention appointed a committee, almost exclusively Girondist, to draft a new constitution for the republic. Their report was presented to the convention, and adopted on the 22d of August, 1795. The new constitution restored to the middle class its legitimate influence in the state. It provided that the legislative power should be confided to two chambers. The first of these, the council of five hundred, so called from the number of its members, was to have the sole power of originating laws; the other, the council of the ancients, was to consist of 250 members, who must be over forty years of age.

They had the power of accepting the laws presented by the lower council, or could veto them. The executive authority was vested in a directory of five members, appointed by the two legislative chambers, one director retiring each year. This constitution was bitterly opposed by the royalists, who had returned to Paris in great numbers since the fall of Robespierre, and also by the sections.

It was evident to the convention that an outbreak was at hand, and measures were taken to crush it. Barras was made commander of the troops of the convention, and chose, as his second in command, Napoleon Bonaparte, then a general of brigade, and in Paris awaiting orders. He intrusted him with the defence of the convention, and the young general took his measures with promptness and decision. On the 5th of October the sections made their attack upon the Tuileries, but so well had Bonaparte prepared for them, that they were beaten and put to flight with heavy loss. Bonaparte was rewarded for his services by the appointment to the second place in the army of the interior. A little later, upon the retirement of Barras, he succeeded him as commander-in-chief.

The convention used its victory with moderation. A general amnesty was proclaimed to all except emigrants and their families. Only one of the conspirators was put to death, and a few imprisoned. Belgium was declared to be incorporated with France. On the 26th of October, 1795, the convention closed its labors, and passed into history.

The new government at once entered upon its duties. La Réveillère-Lepaux, Rewbell, Carnot, Letourneur, and Barras were chosen directors. They were all staunch republicans. The Luxembourg palace was allotted to them as a residence, a liberal revenue allowed them, and an armed guard assigned for their protection.

The state of the treasury demanded the immediate attention of the directory. It was utterly bankrupt. The currency was so depreciated that the notes of the government would not command the cost of printing them. The poor of Paris were reduced to two ounces of bread and a small quantity of rice to each person per day, and this the government was obliged to furnish. The country was full of bands of robbers, who committed the grossest outrages without fear of punishment; the roads, bridges, and

canals were in ruin; the army was in need of clothes and rations, and the troops were clamorous for their pay. The measures of the directory for the remedying of these evils were successful. Confidence was revived; a better financial system was inaugurated; commerce resumed its former footing; and France began to experience some degree of her old prosperity. These changes were gradual, but they were marked and successful.

Pichegru, after his conquest of Holland, found his good fortune to desert him. He was attacked by the Austrians in his position on the Rhine near Mayence, and was defeated, and lost all his artillery, stores, and baggage. He had hoped to use the favor which his conquest of Holland had won him with his countrymen for the restoration of the Bourbons, but his movements were indecisive, and ruined the cause he meant to serve. He then retired from the army in disgust.

The directory resolved to put three armies in the field for the campaign of 1796. Two of these were designed for service in Germany under Generals Moreau and Jourdan; the third was to conduct the campaign in Italy under General Bonaparte. The last-named general, whose services we have already noticed, was a native of the island of Corsica, and of Italian descent. He was twenty-seven years old, but had already given proof of his great genius as a soldier. Since his victory over the sections he had been promoted to the command of the army of the interior, and had married Madame de Beauharnais, a lady of great beauty and the friend of Barras, Tallien, and Carnot, the three most powerful men in France. This marriage was a decided gain for him at the time. Twelve days after it was celebrated he left Paris for the head-quarters of his army at Nice, which he reached on the 27th of March, 1796.

The army of Italy numbered about 35,000 men, and was in a wretched state of discipline, and in want of clothing and provisions. Opposed to it was an army of 60,000 splendid Austrian and Piedmontese troops. Bonaparte lost no time in infusing into his wretched force his own enthusiastic energy, and electrified the troops with the promise of victory and wealth in Italy. He then began a forward movement upon Genoa, his plan being to interpose his army between the imperialists and the Piedmontese, and prevent their union. His troops,

but a few weeks before a band of malcontents, followed him with enthusiasm. His plan was completely successful. The Austrians fell back toward Milan, the Piedmontese toward Turin. Bonaparte defeated a detachment of the Austrians at Montebotte, and following the Piedmontese army captured the fortified town of Cherasco, and completely cut off the Sardinians from the imperialists. He then forced the King of Sardinia to accept a humiliating armistice, and compelled him to cede Savoy and Nice to France, to expel all French emigrants, even his own daughters, who were the wives of the brothers of Louis XVI., from his dominions, and to place Alexandria, Tortona, and the other chief fortresses of his kingdom in the hands of the French as surety for his neutrality until the conclusion of a general peace.

This armistice concluded, Bonaparte marched at once against the Austrians, and defeated them in the desperate battle of Lodi, on the 10th of May, driving them back to the Mincio. Milan was uncovered by this retreat, and was occupied by the French amid the rejoicings of the people, on the 15th of May.

These rapid successes, and the boldness of the young general in venturing to treat independently with the Piedmontese king, astonished and alarmed the directory. They proposed to restrain him by dividing the command in Italy between himself and General Kellerman. Bonaparte refused to accept this divided command, and offered his resignation to the directory. His brilliant successes in Italy had rendered him so popular at home that the directors did not dare to accept his resignation, and left him without interference. From his headquarters at Milan, Bonaparte dictated peace to the minor princes of Italy, and compelled them to purchase it upon his own conditions. Money, materials of war, and works of art were demanded from them and sent to Paris to supply the needs of the republic and adorn the French capital.

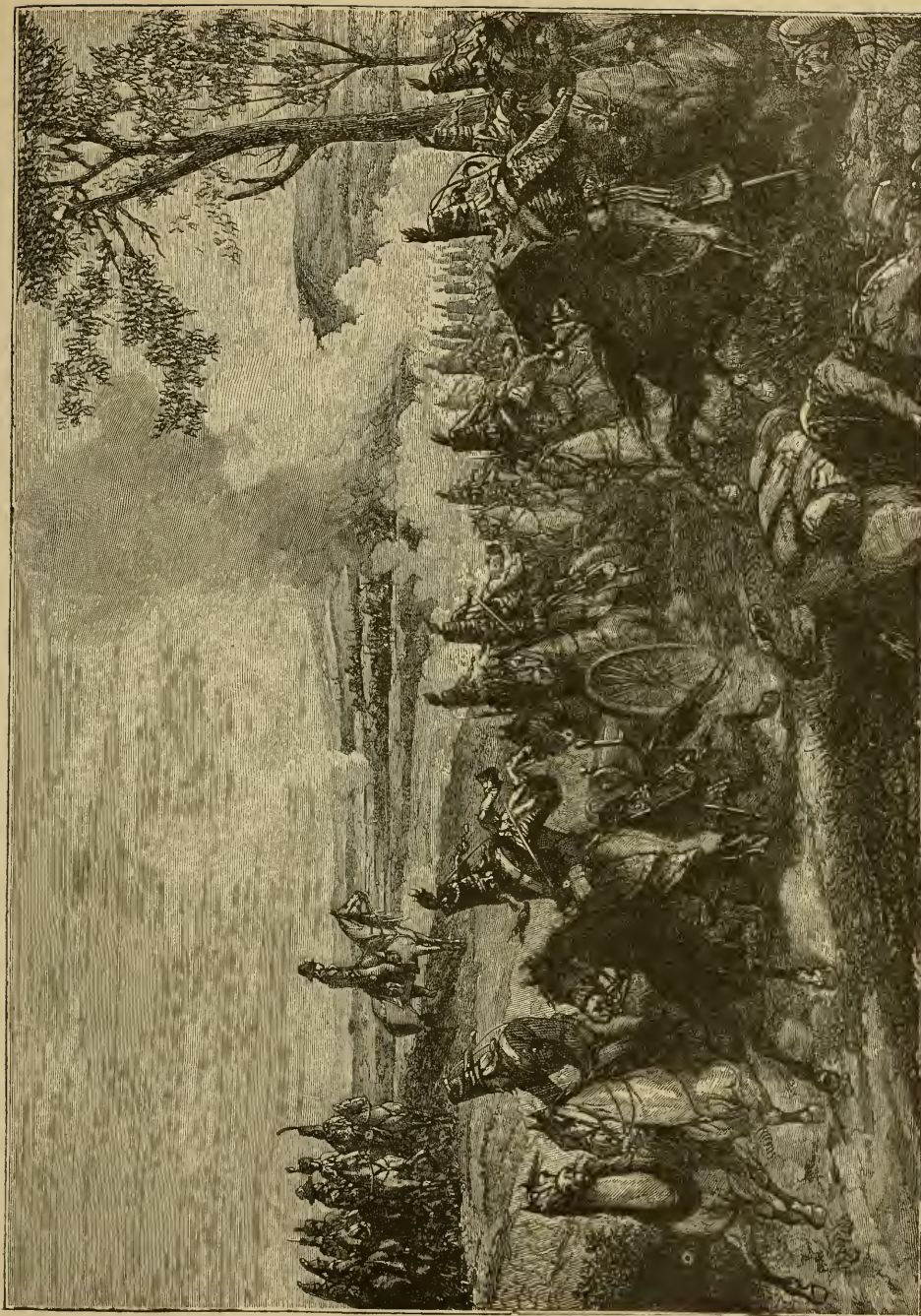
After allowing his army twelve days of rest at Milan, Bonaparte advanced to Mantua, and laid siege to that strong fortress. It was the chief Austrian stronghold in Italy, and the key to all further operations in that country. An Austrian army was despatched to its relief under Marshal Wurmser, one of the most trusted generals of the empire. While it was on the march Bonaparte left a strong detachment to con-

tinue the blockade of Mantua, and by a rapid movement overran the States of the Church with the rest of his army, and dictated an armistice with the holy see. The pope was compelled to pay to France the sum of twenty-one millions of francs, together with one hundred valuable pictures and other works of art, and to allow Bologna, Ferrara, and Ancona to be garrisoned by the French. The Grand Duke of Tuscany was compelled to receive a French garrison at Leghorn, in order to prevent the English from trading with that port.

Marshal Wurmser, at the head of 70,000 men, twice entered Italy from the Tyrol to the assistance of Mantua. He was no match for his youthful opponent, and was defeated at Brescia, Castiglione, Roveredo, and Bassano. Finding himself unable to keep the field, Wurmser, on the 19th of September, retired with the remains of his army within the walls of Mantua, which fortress was well provisioned, and capable of holding out during a long siege.

In the meantime the campaign in Germany was conducted by the armies of Moreau and Jourdan, who were opposed by the Archduke Charles, a general of great ability, with an army of over 100,000 men. Moreau crossed the Rhine between Strasburg and Kehl, and Jourdan at Mayence. On the 3d of September Jourdan was defeated at Wurtzburg, and was obliged to retreat across the Rhine into France. Moreau, who had advanced as far as Munich, was thus left in an exceedingly dangerous position, and the Archduke Charles made great exertions to cut him off from France. Moreau then resolved to retire into France by the valley of the Danube, and in spite of the efforts to intercept him made a masterly retreat through the Black Forest into France, which he reached without serious loss in twenty-six days.

The retreat of Moreau and Jourdan left the army in Italy to bear the full weight of the Austrian power, and a third Austrian army, 60,000 strong, was assembled under Marshal Alvinzi, for the purpose of driving Bonaparte out of Italy. The French were far inferior in strength to the Austrians, and Alvinzi believed he would have an easy victory. In the first part of the campaign the Austrians were successful, and the French army became disheartened. Bonaparte, by a series of bold and rapid movements, soon changed the condition of affairs. On the 14th of November he at-



BATTLE OF CASTIGLIONE.

tacked Alvinzi at Arcole, and in a three days' battle drove him back upon Montebello, and re-entered Verona in triumph. Alvinzi was reinforced, and early in January, 1797, appeared on the Adige with an army of 60,000 men. On the 14th of January he was utterly routed at Rivoli. The French were greatly inferior in force to the Austrians, and the victory was due to the superior genius of the French commander. It was followed by the surrender of Mantua by Wurmser, on the 2d of February, 1797, by which 20,000 Austrians yielded themselves prisoners of war to the French.

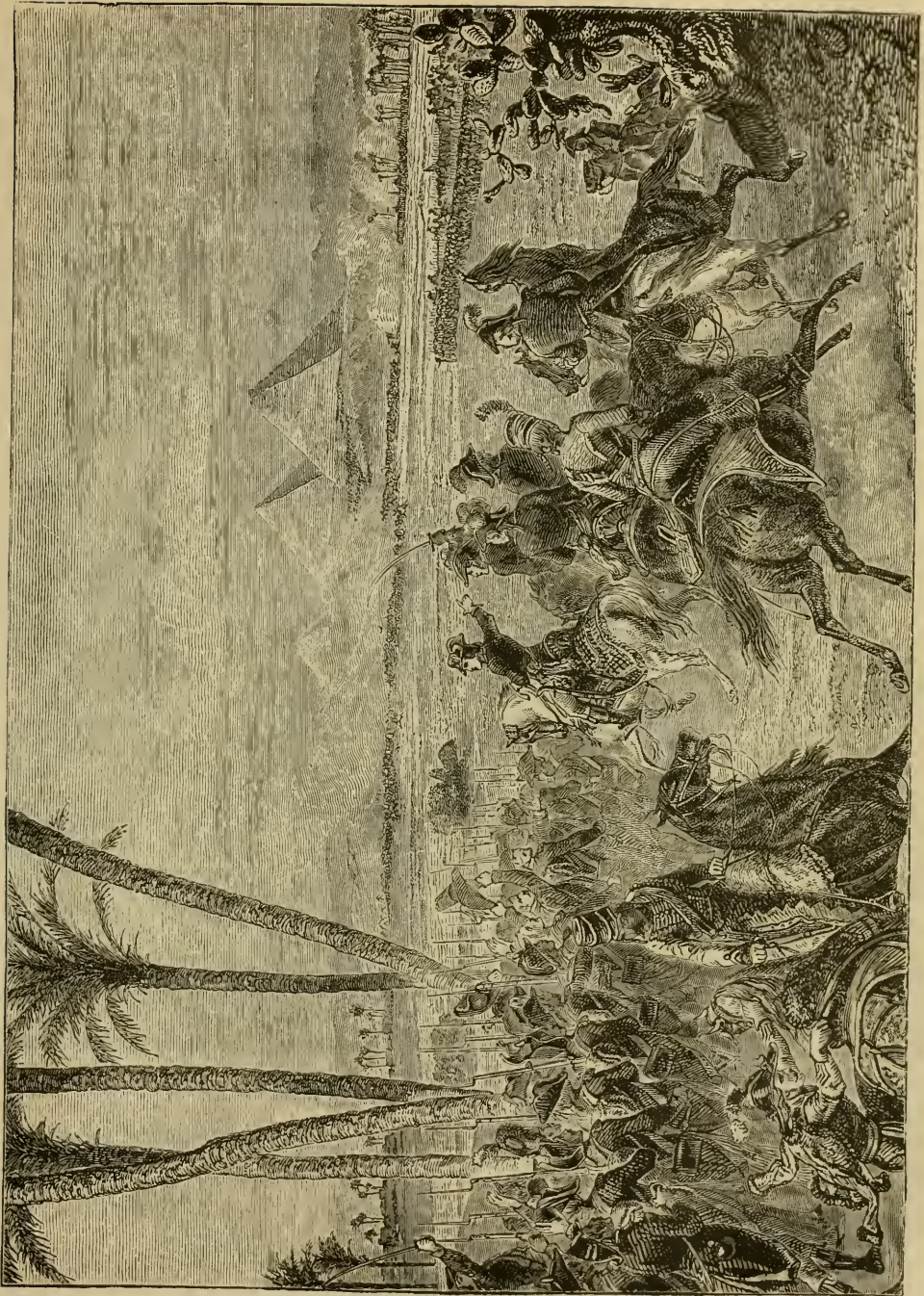
Bonaparte now invaded the papal territories, and rapidly overran them. He had orders from the directory to destroy the papal government, but on his own responsibility disregarded these instructions, and concluded with the helpless pontiff the peace of Tolentino, on the 19th of February, by which the pope ceded to France the legations of Bologna, Ferrara, and the Romagna, and Avignon and its territory in France, and paid a second contribution of fifteen millions of francs, and a number of the choicest art treasures of Rome. Thus far the brilliant success of Bonaparte had won for France a third of the papal states, and Savoy and Nice; had detached the King of Sardinia and the states of northern and central Italy from the coalition against France, and had laid Genoa and Venice under heavy contributions. The expenses of the campaign had not only been defrayed by the conquered territory, but Bonaparte had been able to remit thirty millions of francs to the directory. The officers and men of the conquering army had grown rich from the spoils of the war. Piedmont and Lombardy had been conquered, and four Austrian armies had been defeated or captured. It was the most brilliant campaign that had been conducted by the French since the commencement of the war.

The capture of Mantua opened the way to Austria, and Bonaparte advanced rapidly through the Tyrolese Alps, and drove the Archduke Charles beyond the Save, defeating him in a series of sharp engagements. On the 9th of April, 1797, the French were at Leoben, a few days' march from Vienna. The Austrian government now proposed a suspension of hostilities with a view to arranging a treaty of peace. The proposal was accepted by Bonaparte, and on the 18th of April the preliminaries of

peace were signed between France and the empire.

During the progress of these negotiations, the Venetians, encouraged by a report that Bonaparte had been defeated in the Tyrol, rose in insurrection against the French at Bergamo, Verona, and other places. At Verona the French garrison was massacred. Bonaparte at once marched into the Venetian territory, having first declared war against the republic. The city of Venice was occupied by a French division; the Venetian republic was overthrown; the Council of Ten abolished, and a democratic government set up. A fine of six millions of francs was levied upon the republic by the French, and its territory was occupied by French garrisons, and a large number of works of art, manuscripts, etc., were carried off to Paris. Thus perished the ancient commonwealth of Venice.

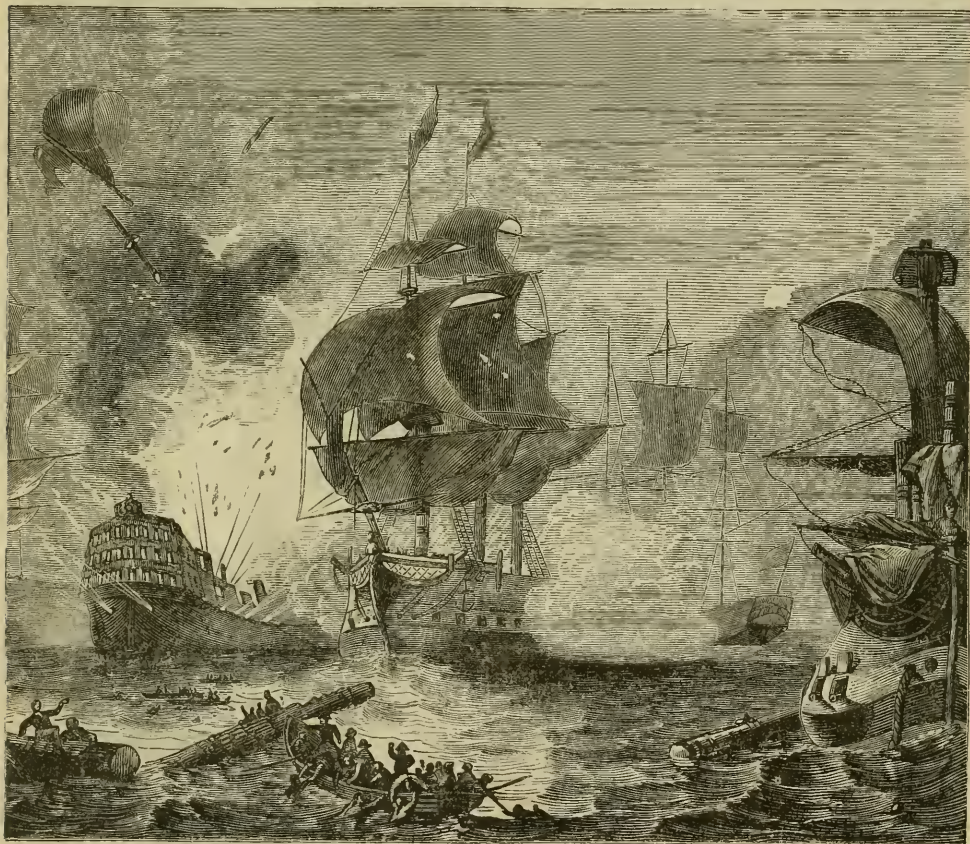
While her arms were thus successful abroad, France was passing through a serious crisis at home. In the elections of 1797 the royalists succeeded in returning over 200 of their partisans to the national legislature, and a strong party was formed in that body in opposition to the directory, which was itself divided by the alliance of Barthelemy and Carnot with the majority in the legislature. The royalists made no secret of their design of getting the government into their own hands for the purpose of overthrowing the republic. Barras, Rewbell, and La Réveillère were resolved to maintain the republic, even if they had to go to the length of a coup d'état to do so. They therefore sought aid of General Bonaparte and General Hoche, the latter of whom was then in command of one of the armies on the Rhine. Hoche rapidly advanced upon Paris with a large body of troops, and Bonaparte sent Augereau, one of his most trusted lieutenants, who was appointed commander of the army of Paris. On the 4th of September, 1797, the three directors struck the decisive blow. Carnot and Barthelemy, and the obnoxious members of the legislature, including Pichegru and Barbe-Marbois, were arrested and imprisoned. The remaining members of the directory then produced the correspondence of Pichegru with the exiled Bourbons, and the councils justified the course of the directors. The prisoners were exiled to Cayenne, and new elections were ordered to fill the places of the members of the councils thus exiled.



BATTLE OF THE PYRAMIDS.

This danger averted, the negotiations for peace with Austria were concluded, and a treaty was signed at Campo Formio on the 17th of October. France acquired the Austrian Netherlands, the Rhine frontier, and the Ionian islands. The states of Italy were erected into the Cisalpine republic, as has been related. France ceded to the emperor Venice, Friuli, Istria, Dalmatia, and the islands of the Adriatic. The treaty concluded, Bonaparte returned to France.

the papal states were thoroughly discontented. Berthier marched to Rome, and was received as a deliverer. He proclaimed the restoration of the Roman republic; made Pope Pius VI. a prisoner, and stripped him of all his property. He was conveyed to the Convent of Siena, and was subsequently removed to France, where he was detained in captivity. In the summer of 1799 Rome was pillaged by the French army, and the efforts of the people to pro-



THE BATTLE OF THE NILE, OR ABOUKIR.

He was received in Paris with a magnificent ovation, and was the most popular man in France. Efforts were made to obtain for him some substantial recognition of his great services, but the government refused to make the deserved award. The directors were already afraid of him.

Upon the return of Bonaparte from Italy, General Berthier was ordered by the directory to carry out its instructions respecting the papal government, which Bonaparte had declined to execute. The people of

to respect the private property of the city, was disgusted with the course of the directory and the conduct of his army, and demanded to be recalled.

France now attempted to get possession of Switzerland, and incited insurrections in the southern cantons, which were put down by the government. Upon the pretext of guaranteeing the independence of the Swiss, a French force entered Switzerland, and in



BATTLE OF MOUNT TABOR.

spite of a determined resistance by the people, reduced the confederacy to a dependence upon France. The ancient confederation was replaced with the "Helvetic Republic, one and indivisible." A treaty of peace and alliance was made with the new government, which secured to France two important military roads—one into the south of Germany; the other by way of the Simplon Pass into Italy.

The only enemy with which France was now at war was England. The directory seriously contemplated the invasion of Great Britain by a force under Napoleon Bonaparte. After further consideration, it was resolved to substitute for this plan the conquest of Egypt, by which a base would be secured for operations against the British dominions in India, or for an intervention in the affairs of Turkey. The possession of Egypt would make France mistress of the Mediterranean.

A fleet of twenty ships of war and a large number of transports was assembled at Toulon, under Admiral Bruëys. An army of 36,000 men, under General Bonaparte, embarked in this fleet, and on the 19th of May, 1798, the expedition put to sea. A numerous body of scientific men accompanied the expedition. Before the departure of the fleet Bonaparte had been in correspondence with the Knights of St. John, who held Malta, for the surrender of that island to France for a specified consideration. The French fleet at once sailed to Malta, and after a show of resistance on the part of the knights, took possession of it by a formal convention on the 10th of June. A garrison of 3,000 men was left at La Valetta, and the fleet set sail for Egypt, barely eluding the English fleet of Admiral Nelson, who was trying to intercept it. The Egyptian coast was reached on the 1st of July, and the next day the troops landed near Alexandria, and occupied that city.

Egypt, though nominally a part of the Turkish empire, was held by the Mamelukes, a race of warriors. Mourad Bey, one of their most powerful chiefs, had taken position to cover Cairo with his troops. Bonaparte advanced at once to attack him, and, after a painful march through the scorching sands of the desert, the French army on the 21st of July encountered the army of Mourad Bey, 30,000 strong, in the great plain of the Pyramids, opposite Cairo. A desperate battle ensued, and the steadiness of the French squares was tested as it

had never been before by the furious charges of the Mameluke horse; but the Mamelukes were defeated with heavy slaughter, and driven from the field. They fled into upper Egypt, and thence into Syria. The battle of the Pyramids was followed by the occupation of Cairo the next day by the French. It virtually decided the fate of Egypt, which submitted to General Bonaparte with but little more resistance.

The brilliant victory of the Pyramids was followed by a disastrous reverse. The English Admiral Nelson, who had vainly sought to encounter the French fleet on its way to Egypt, discovered it in the bay of Aboukir, near Alexandria, and on the 1st of August attacked it. The battle was resumed the next day, and resulted in the defeat or capture of the entire French fleet. This reverse left the French in Egypt without the means of communicating with Europe, and entirely dependent upon the resources of the country they occupied.

Undismayed by his disaster, Bonaparte undertook the task of organizing the government of Egypt, and of reducing that country to a permanent dependence upon France. His efforts were not well received by the people of the country, and the inhabitants of Cairo rose in revolt on the 22d of October. The suppression of this outbreak cost the lives of several hundred Frenchmen, and about 5,000 of the inhabitants. The sultan also declared war against France, and made an alliance with Russia. Two Turkish armies were assembled—one at Damascus and the other at Rhodes. The news of the presence in the East of these armies determined General Bonaparte to advance into Syria and assume the offensive, instead of waiting to be attacked in Egypt. He began his march with 13,000 men, commanded by his best generals, in February, 1799. He had marked out a magnificent programme for himself. He meant to conquer Syria and Asia Minor; capture Constantinople, and advance upon Germany from that city with an army recruited from the conquered peoples along his route. El Arish, the frontier fortress of Syria, was taken, and Jaffa was carried by assault on the 13th of March. Its resistance was punished by the cold-blooded massacre of its garrison. Acre held out against the French. Its garrison consisted of 1,000 Turks and 300 English marines, assisted by a small English squadron in the roads under Sir Sidney Smith. During

the siege a large Turkish army advanced from Damascus to the assistance of Acre, but was routed near Mount Tabor on the 16th of March by an inferior force under General Bonaparte. Acre held out for sixty days, and the plague having broken out in the French army, Bonaparte ordered a last assault, which was unsuccessful. He raised the siege and retreated into Egypt, having lost one-third of his army. The remainder were seriously disheartened. Cairo was reached on the 14th of June. During the absence of General Bonaparte Desaix, whom he had left in command at Cairo, had reduced Egypt as far as the Cataracts of the Nile, the most advanced post ever held by Rome. The disasters of the French encouraged the Mameluke leaders to excite an insurrection in upper Egypt, and at the same time a Turkish army arrived by sea from Rhodes, to the number of 18,000 men, and landed at Aboukir on the 11th of July, where they intrenched their position. On the 25th Bonaparte attacked them, and gained over them one of his most brilliant victories. The Turkish army was annihilated. This victory left the French undisputed masters of Egypt, and it but remained for them to secure what they had won.

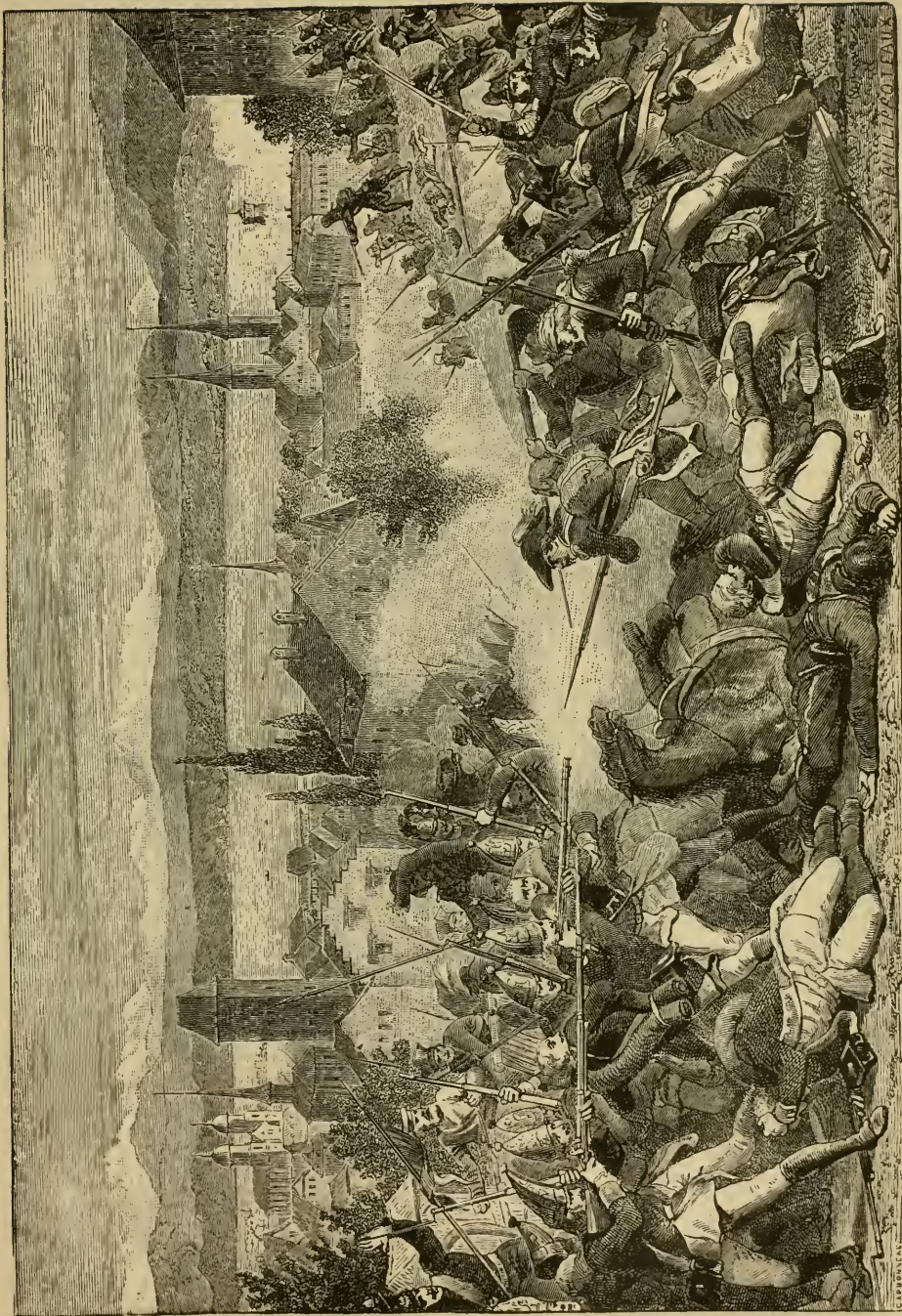
News now reached Napoleon of the reverses of the French army in Italy, of the incapacity and misgovernment of the directory, and the general discontent of the French people. He clearly recognized the opportunity which this disturbed state of affairs held out to him of seizing the supreme power, and at once determined to avail himself of it. Two frigates were gotten in readiness in Alexandria, and leaving the army in command of General Kleber, Bonaparte embarked on the 25th of August, accompanied only by five generals, wholly devoted to his interests. He landed at Fréjus on the 9th of October, and proceeded to Paris, greeted everywhere along the route by the acclamations of the people. He reached Paris on the 16th, and took up his residence in a modest mansion in the Rue de la Victoire.

In the meantime a second coalition had been formed against France by Russia, Turkey, Great Britain, Austria, and the Two Sicilies. The King of the Two Sicilies, before the treaties were signed between these powers, advanced upon Rome with an army of 40,000 men. The French drove back this force, and pursued King Ferdinand

IV. into the Neapolitan territories. He was driven out of Naples, and forced to take refuge in Sicily. The Neapolitan territory on the mainland was then erected into the Parthenopean republic.

In March, 1799, France declared war against Austria and Tuscany. The army of Masséna was successful in some of its earlier engagements, but the Archduke Charles defeated General Jourdan at Strach and Stockach, and compelled him to retire to the French side of the Rhine. This retreat neutralized the successes of the armies in Italy, and brought to an end the labors of the Congress of Rastadt. The imperial envoy was recalled, and the French envoys were assassinated by order of the Austrian government, an outrage upon the laws of civilized nations which Austria did not hesitate to commit.

In the meantime France had lost her hold upon Italy. In 1798 a powerful Russian army, under the famous Marshal Suwarof, entered Italy and formed a junction with the Austrians under General Kray. This force successively defeated the French army under General Sherer at Verona and Magnano. Sherer was succeeded by Moreau, who was defeated by Suwarof at Cassano. The allies then occupied Milan, and Moreau would have been crushed had not the Austrian government ordered Suwarof to lay siege to Mantua, Peschiera, and other places which were considered essential to the preservation of the territory he had won. Profiting by this delay, Moreau took position at Coni, where he could communicate with Genoa and with France. Reinforcements were hastening to him, but desiring to distinguish himself by some decisive act before their arrival, Moreau left his position and attacked Suwarof near the Trebia, and was utterly routed. This defeat was followed by the loss of Piedmont. The allies occupied Turin, Pignerol, Susa, and other important points, and the Cossacks of Suwarof's army passed the Alps, and invaded Dauphiné. Joubert was sent to supersede Moreau, but was defeated and slain in the bloody and decisive battle of Novi, on the 15th of August, 1799. Later in the year the city of Naples surrendered to the army of Ferdinand IV. and the English fleet under Lord Nelson. A combined force of Russians, Turks, and Neapolitans advanced upon Rome, which city was surrendered by the French on the 27th of September, 1799. By these reverses all of central and south-



BATTLE OF ZURICH.

ern Italy were lost to the French, who had already been driven from northern Italy.

In Switzerland the French were more successful. A second Russian army under Korsakoff entered Switzerland, and Suwarof moved from Italy into that country to cooperate with it. Masséna marched against Korsakoff and encountered him in the valley of the Linth near Zurich, and routed him and drove him out of Switzerland, while another French army under General Soult defeated the Austrians under General Hotze. Suwarof was advancing from Italy by the St. Gothard Pass, when he learned of these disasters, and at once made a hasty and disastrous retreat into Bavaria. Distinguished by these reverses, the czar soon withdrew from the coalition. In September, 1799, the English made a descent upon the coast of Holland, but were defeated. On the 18th of October the Duke of York signed a capitulation at Alkmaar, and re-embarked with the wreck of his army for England.

CHAPTER IX.

THE CONSULATE AND EMPIRE.

Intrigues Against the Directory—Coalition of Sieyès and Bonaparte—Revolution of the 9th of November—Overthrow of the Directory—Sieyès, Bonaparte, and Roger Ducos Appointed Consuls—"Constitution of the Year VIII."—Napoleon Bonaparte Elected First Consul—Endeavors to Make Peace with England—Campaign of 1800—Napoleon Crosses the Alps—Battle of Marengo—Moreau in Bavaria—Battle of Hohenlinden—Peace of Lunéville—The French Expelled from Egypt—Peace of Amiens—Internal Administration of the First Consul—The "Code Napoléon" The Concordat—Attempts to Kill Napoleon—He is Chosen Consul for Life—His Ambition—Revolution in St. Domingo—War with England—Seizure of Hanover—Conspiracy of Georges Coudal and Pichegru—Arrest and Execution of the Duke of Enghien—Napoleon Proclaimed Emperor of the French—His Coronation—Is Crowned King of Italy—His Letter to George III.—Coalition of England, Austria, and Russia Against France—Napoleon Takes the Field Against Austria—Capitulation of Ulm—Napoleon Enters Vienna—Battle of Trafalgar—Battle of Austerlitz—Treaty of Pressburg—The Bourbon Kingdom of Naples Overturned—The Crown Given to Joseph Bonaparte—The Confederation of the Rhine Established—War with Prussia—Battle of Jena—Napoleon Occupies Berlin—Prussia Crushed—The Berlin Decrees—The Continental System—Battles of Eylau and Friedland—Peace of Tilsit—Domestic Measures of Napoleon—The Censorship of the Press—Interference of Napoleon in the Affairs of Spain and Portugal—Portugal Occupied by the French—Dissensions in the Royal Family of Spain—Napoleon Forces the Spanish King to Surrender his Crown—Makes Joseph Bonaparte King of Spain—Insurrection of the Spaniards—British Expedition to Portugal—Bat-

tle of Vimiera—Napoleon Enters Spain—Occupies Madrid—Battle of Corunna—Second War with Austria—Battle of Eckmühl—Vienna Again Occupied—Revolt of the Tyrolese—Execution of Hofer—Battles of Essling and Aspern—Battle of Wagram—Treaty of Schönbrunn—The Papal States Annexed to France—The Pope a Prisoner—The War in Spain—Battle of Talavera—Divorce of Josephine—Marriage of the Emperor to Maria Louisa—Birth of the King of Rome—Bernadotte Made Crown Prince of Sweden—The Peninsular War—Battles of Busaco and Salamanca—The English Occupy Madrid—Lord Wellington Retires from Burgos—War Between France and Russia—Napoleon Invades Russia—Battle of Borodino—Destruction of Moscow—Retreat of the French—A Terrible March—Passage of the Berezina—Napoleon Hastens to Paris—Vigorous Measures of the Emperor—Prussia Declares War Against France—Battles of Lutzen and Bautzen—Austria Joins the Allies—Battle of Dresden—Defeat of Napoleon at Leipzig—The Retreat to the Rhine—Reverses of the French in Spain—The Campaign of 1814 in France—Brilliant Efforts of Napoleon—Surrender of Paris to the Allies—Abdication of Napoleon—Close of the War in Spain—Napoleon at Elba—Treaty Between Louis XVIII. and the Allies—The Congress of Vienna—Return of Napoleon from Elba—"The Hundred Days"—Battle of Waterloo—Napoleon sent to St. Helena.

THE elections in the spring of 1799 were unfavorable to the directory, and a powerful opposition to the government was organized in the councils. The leader of this movement was the Abbe Sieyès. On the 18th of June, 1799, he succeeded in bringing about a revolution which placed in power a new directory consisting of Barras, Sieyès, Gohier, Roger Ducos, and Moulin. The leading spirit of the new government was Sieyès. He regarded the directorial system as hopelessly corrupt and incompetent, and was resolved upon its overthrow. Believing that the time for striking a decisive blow was at hand, he entered into negotiations with General Bonaparte, who had just returned from Egypt. In the new system he meant to inaugurate Sieyès expected to be the controlling spirit. Bonaparte, he believed, would be useful in crushing out the opposition to it; and his participation in the scheme would secure the support of the army. On the 9th of November, the Council of Five Hundred, sitting at St. Cloud, was dispersed by the troops of Bonaparte. A small minority of the members assembled in the hall, and in concert with the Council of Ancients, which was favorable to the revolution, decreed the abolition of the directory. The new government was to be intrusted to three consuls—Bonaparte, Sieyès, and Roger Ducos. A committee of the

councils was appointed to prepare a new system of government, and on the 15th of December, 1799, promulgated, as the result of their labors, the "Constitution of the Year VIII."

The new government was to consist of three consuls, elected for ten years, and a council of state nominated by the consuls. The consuls and the council were to originate measures, and to submit them for discussion to a tribunate of one hundred

Bonaparte was chosen by a large majority first consul. Sieyès declined the post of second consul, and Napoleon, who had the power to nominate his colleagues, appointed Cambacérès and Lebrun to the other consulates. The former was a man of talent, the latter a nonentity.

On the 19th of February, 1800, the first consul occupied the Tuileries as his official residence, and soon gathered about him a brilliant court modelled upon that of the



BONAPARTE DISSOLVING THE COUNCIL OF FIVE HUNDRED.

members. The legislative assembly was composed of three hundred members, and had the power of accepting or rejecting these measures, without discussion. A conservative senate, appointed for life by the consuls, consisted of eighty members, and was charged with the duty of watching over the constitution, and punishing infractions of it. The real power and authority of the government was vested in the first consul, the other two being merely counsellors. Elections were at once held, and Napoleon

old monarchy. Immediately upon entering upon the duties of his office Napoleon addressed a letter to the King of England, expressing his desire to put a stop to the war and making overtures for peace. The English government replied that the only substantial security for peace which France could give was the restoration of the Bourbon dynasty. Failing in his efforts to secure peace with England, the first consul prepared to continue the war, and also to take the field against Austria in the spring.

In the meantime he addressed himself with vigor and success to the internal government of France. The infamous law of hostages was repealed; the churches were reopened for the worship of the Christian religion, and the "Decades" of the revolution gave place to the observance of Sunday. Several thousand non-juring priests, who had been in prison for several years, were set at liberty, and large numbers of emigrants were allowed to return to France. Great attention was paid to the finances, which, under the able management of Gaudin, the minister, improved rapidly.

Austria still continuing hostile, Napoleon resolved to take the field against her. In April, 1800, the Austrian army in Italy under Baron Melas attacked the French under Generals Soult and Masséna, and drove them back to Genoa, while another French division under General Suchet was forced to retreat upon Borghette. Melas sent a strong force to besiege Genoa, while with the remainder of his army he followed Suchet, intending to force him back and to invade France by way of Provence.

Napoleon now put in execution a brilliant and daring plan for preventing the invasion of France by the Austrians and for driving them out of Italy. He proposed to cross the Alps of Switzerland with his army, and plant it in Italy in the rear of the Austrians. He began his march from Geneva with a force of 35,000 men. The French engineers had examined the pass of the Great St. Bernard, and had reported that it was barely possible to cross the mountain. Napoleon at once gave orders to make the attempt. The cannon were dismantled, placed in the hollowed trunks of trees, and were dragged over the frozen paths by the troops. By the most indefatigable exertions the mountain was passed, and on the 16th of May the advanced guard of the French army under Lannes entered Piedmont. Another division under General Moncey crossed Mont St. Gothard, and a third under General Thunau passed over Mont Cenis. These divisions were reunited in Lombardy, and on the 2d of June Napoleon occupied Milan without opposition. The passage of the Alps by the French army has always been regarded as one of the most remarkable feats in military history.

In the meantime Masséna, who had held Genoa for sixty days against the efforts of the enemy to capture it, was reduced to the

necessity of capitulating, and on the 5th of June evacuated the place with the remains of his force. The exultation of the Austrians was suddenly checked by the startling news of the passage of the Alps by the French and their presence in Milan. Napoleon was between the Austrians and their base of operations, and they must fight to recover their communications with their own country. Melas hastily fell back to Alessandria, and concentrated his forces there. Napoleon took position in the great plain of Marengo, where on the 14th of June the decisive battle of the campaign was fought. The Austrians were successful in the morning, but the arrival of Desaix with a fresh corps in the afternoon enabled Napoleon to renew the battle, and the Austrians were defeated and driven in confusion across the Bormida. Each army lost about 7,000 men killed. The heroic Desaix was mortally wounded. Their defeat left the Austrians in such a critical condition that Melas was compelled to enter into negotiations with the first consul. An agreement was signed by which the Austrian army withdrew beyond the Mincio, and twelve fortresses, including Milan, Turin, Genoa, Piacenza, and Alessandria, passed into the hands of the French. By his single victory Napoleon regained all the territory he had won in his earlier campaigns and which had been lost by France during his absence from Italy. Austria lost all her conquests in northern Italy. A suspension of hostilities was agreed upon until the Austrian commander could receive definite instructions from Vienna as to a treaty of peace; and Napoleon returned to Paris, where he was received with an ovation.

While this campaign was in progress another French army under General Moreau advanced from the Rhine towards Vienna, driving the Austrians before it. Moreau had occupied Munich, when the news of the armistice agreed upon between the first consul and General Melas caused a corresponding cessation of hostilities in Germany. The armistice was broken towards the last of November, and on the 2d of December, 1800, Moreau inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Austrian army under the Archduke John at Hohenlinden. The Austrian army lost 7,000 men killed and wounded, 8,000 prisoners and 100 cannon. The imperial government was so disheartened by this defeat that it proposed a cessa-

tion of hostilities. Moreau consented to this, and negotiations for peace between France and Austria were begun. On the 9th of February, 1801, the peace of Lunéville was concluded. The terms of the treaty have been stated in the German history of this century.

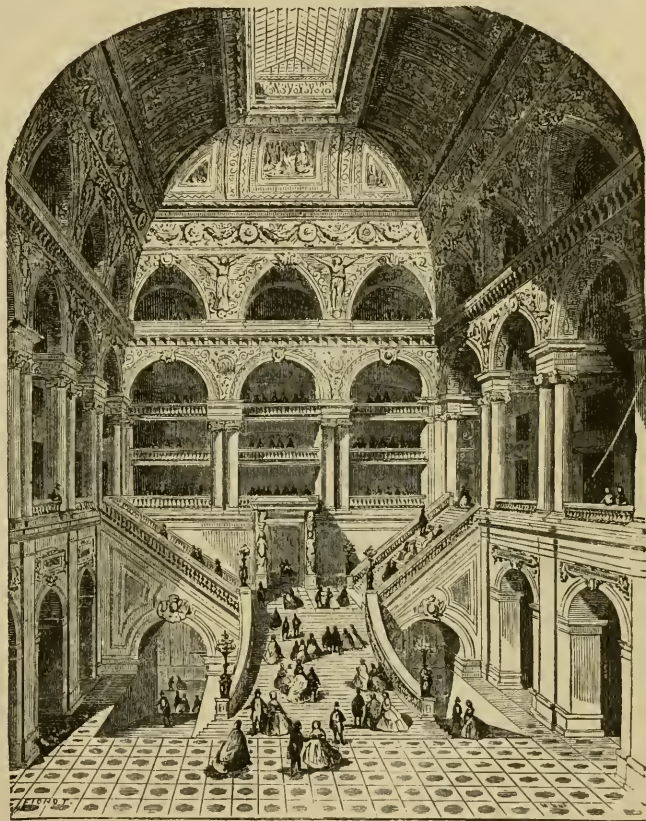
France was not without her reverses at this period, however. Malta was captured by the British in September, 1800, and the British government resolved to drive the French from Egypt. Kleber, whom Napoleon had left in command of that country, was assassinated by a fanatical Turk on the 14th of June, 1800, and General Menou, who succeeded him, was a man of small capacity. The English forced a landing at Aboukir on the 8th of March, 1801, and on the 21st defeated the French in a bloody battle near Alexandria. On the 31st of August General Menou signed a convention with the English commander, in virtue of which the French army was at once withdrawn from Egypt.

Mr. Pitt, the most determined enemy of Napoleon and of France, withdrew from the British cabinet in February, 1801, and shortly afterwards a congress met at Amiens, and on the 27th of March, 1802, concluded a peace between France, Great Britain, Spain and the Batavian republic. England surrendered all her conquests during the war save Ceylon and Trinidad.

Malta was to be restored to the Knights of St. John, and made neutral territory. Egypt was given back to the Sultan of Turkey. France pledged herself to evacuate the Neapolitan kingdom and the States of the Church, and to restore the territory she had taken from Portugal. The peace was hailed with delight in both France and England.

This interval of peace gave the first consul an opportunity to turn his attention

once more to the internal affairs of France. Every department of the state felt the impulse of his wonderful genius and energy, and his measures were for the most part statesmanlike and beneficial to the country. The most important as well as the most enduring was the arrangement of the confused mass of provincial traditions and laws into a systematic digest of national law. The work was intrusted to a commission of able jurists, headed by the second consul, Cambacérès, but Napoleon gave it his personal



VESTIBULE OF THE NEW OPERA HOUSE—PARIS.

supervision and contributed in a marked degree to its success. The labors of the commission extended over a period of three years, and the *Code Civil*, or, as it is more commonly known, the *Code Napoléon*, was formally promulgated on the 21st of March, 1803. A concordat was concluded with the pope on the 15th of July, 1801, by which the Roman Catholic religion was formally re-established in France. The liberties of the Gallican Church were se-

cured by a series of carefully considered provisos. The first consul was to nominate all bishops, but the See of Rome was to confer the canonical institution. The pope sanctioned the sale of the church property, and the French government undertook the support of the clergy, who were required to take the oath of allegiance to that government. Somewhat later a general amnesty was extended to emigrants with certain exceptions. On the 19th of May, 1802, the first consul founded the Legion of Honor, an order designed to reward distinguished services in military life, in science, and civil pursuits.

During this period the republicans and royalists, whose hopes had been defeated by the vigor and success of Napoleon's government, attempted to remove him by assassination. The most of their plots were detected, but one came near succeeding. An infernal machine was exploded on the 24th of December, 1800, in a crowded street through which the first consul and his wife were passing in their carriages to the opera. The carriage of Madame Bonaparte was damaged, but its occupants escaped unhurt. The first consul had passed by a minute or two before the explosion, which killed and wounded fifty-two persons in the street.

The wisdom and success of Napoleon's measures greatly added to his popularity with the nation, and on the 2d of August, 1802, he was elected, by a vote of over three millions and a half, consul for life. He had now reached the point at which a legitimate ambition should cease. He was the head of a great nation, which supported him with enthusiasm, and he had already proved himself a great ruler and the first general of his age. Had he been content to consolidate his power in France, and to refrain from interfering in the affairs of other nations, he might have enjoyed a long and prosperous tenure of office and have made France the strongest and most influential power in Europe. His ambition, however, was to make himself master of the world; and in attempting this he arrayed the world against him, and brought about great misfortunes as well as great glory for his country, and in the end accomplished his own ruin.

In 1802 the constitution of the Cisalpine republic was revised, and Napoleon was made its president. Piedmont was formally annexed to the French dominions in September, 1802, and about the same time the

duchies of Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla were seized and placed under a French administration. The authority of France was established by force over Switzerland, which was compelled to restore the republican constitution adopted during the French revolution. Geneva, Basle and the canton of Valais were annexed to France.

A successful insurrection headed by Toussaint l'Ouverture, a negro of unusual ability, having broken out in the island of St. Domingo, a powerful army was sent from France to suppress it, under the command of General Leclerc, who had married Pauline Bonaparte, Napoleon's sister. The outbreak was quelled, but the French army was almost destroyed by the yellow fever, 20,000 out of the 30,000 troops dying from the scourge. General Leclerc was among the victims. While the army was in this weak state, war having in the meantime broken out between France and England, St. Domingo was captured by an English fleet in November, 1803, and this valuable colony was forever lost to France.

It had never been believed on either side of the channel that the peace of Amiens would be lasting; and the conclusion of the treaty was followed by a series of bitter disputes between France and England. Great Britain refused to evacuate Malta, as she was bound by the treaty to do. In his discussions with Lord Whitworth, the British ambassador, on this point, Napoleon lost his temper, and insulted the ambassador, who demanded his passports and left Paris on the 13th of May, 1803. Great Britain at once seized all the French vessels in her harbors, thus inflicting upon French commerce a loss of \$15,000,000. Napoleon, in retaliation, seized all British subjects at that time in France. Several thousand persons belonging chiefly to the higher classes, who had taken advantage of the peace of Amiens to visit the continent, were thus consigned to captivity.

War was at once begun. In the latter part of May, 1803, a French force occupied the electorate of Hanover, which submitted after a brief resistance. Another force under General St. Cyr occupied Tarento, Otranto, and Brindisi, in the kingdom of Naples. Napoleon conceived the bold design of invading England, and collected a large and splendidly appointed army, along the coast of the channel, between Havre and Ostend, and a fleet of near 2,000 vessels of all kinds in the channel ports.



CORONATION OF NAPOLEON.

The danger of invasion aroused the British war spirit to the highest pitch. In the course of a few weeks the English fleet was increased to the enormous force of 600 ships of war, and 300,000 volunteers enrolled themselves for the defence of the country.

The war had no sooner begun than the conspiracies against Napoleon's life were resumed. The most formidable of these was headed by Georges Cadoudal, a Vendéan chief, General Pichegru, and two members of the Polignac family. They were landed in France by a British vessel, and repaired to Paris, where they endeavored to engage General Moreau in the conspiracy. Moreau does not appear to have countenanced the plot. It was detected by the police, and the leaders were arrested. Napoleon seized the occasion to destroy Moreau, whom he regarded as a rival, and caused him to be arrested for complicity in the plot, on the 15th of February, 1804. As a means of striking terror to the royalists, and compelling them to cease plotting against his life, Napoleon now proceeded to a most unwarrantable act. He caused the young Duke of Enghien, the eldest son of the Duke of Bourbon, and grandson of the Prince of Condé, who was residing in the imperial duchy of Baden, a few miles from the French frontier, and who had gone there in the hope of being able to engage in an attempt to restore his family to the French throne, to be seized and conveyed to Paris. He was taken to Vincennes, and a few hours after his arrival was tried before a military commission, and sentenced to death for complicity in the conspiracy of Pichegru and Cadoudal. He was shot in the moat of the Castle of Vincennes, at six o'clock on the morning of the 21st of March, 1804. This fearful deed caused a thrill of horror and indignation throughout Europe.

The conspiracy of Cadoudal and Pichegru caused Napoleon to hasten a step he had long resolved upon. He determined to make himself absolute master of France without further delay. The senate in an address to him urged him to establish a more fixed and stable government, as republican institutions had failed to meet the necessities of the country. The legislative chamber concurred in this address, and on the 18th of May, 1804, an "organic *senatus consultum*" proclaimed Napoleon Bonaparte Emperor of the French, and declared the throne hereditary in his family in the

order of male succession. This act was submitted to the people, who by 3,572,329 affirmative votes, against 2,569 votes in the negative, ratified the action of the chambers.

On the 28th of May, 1804, the parties engaged in the conspiracy against Napoleon were brought to trial, General Moreau being included in this number. Pichegru had committed suicide in prison on the 7th of April. Cadoudal and eighteen of his accomplices were condemned to death; and Moreau was sentenced to two years' imprisonment. Napoleon commuted Moreau's sentence to two years' exile to the United States of America. Cadoudal and ten of his accomplices were executed; the remaining eight were pardoned by Napoleon.

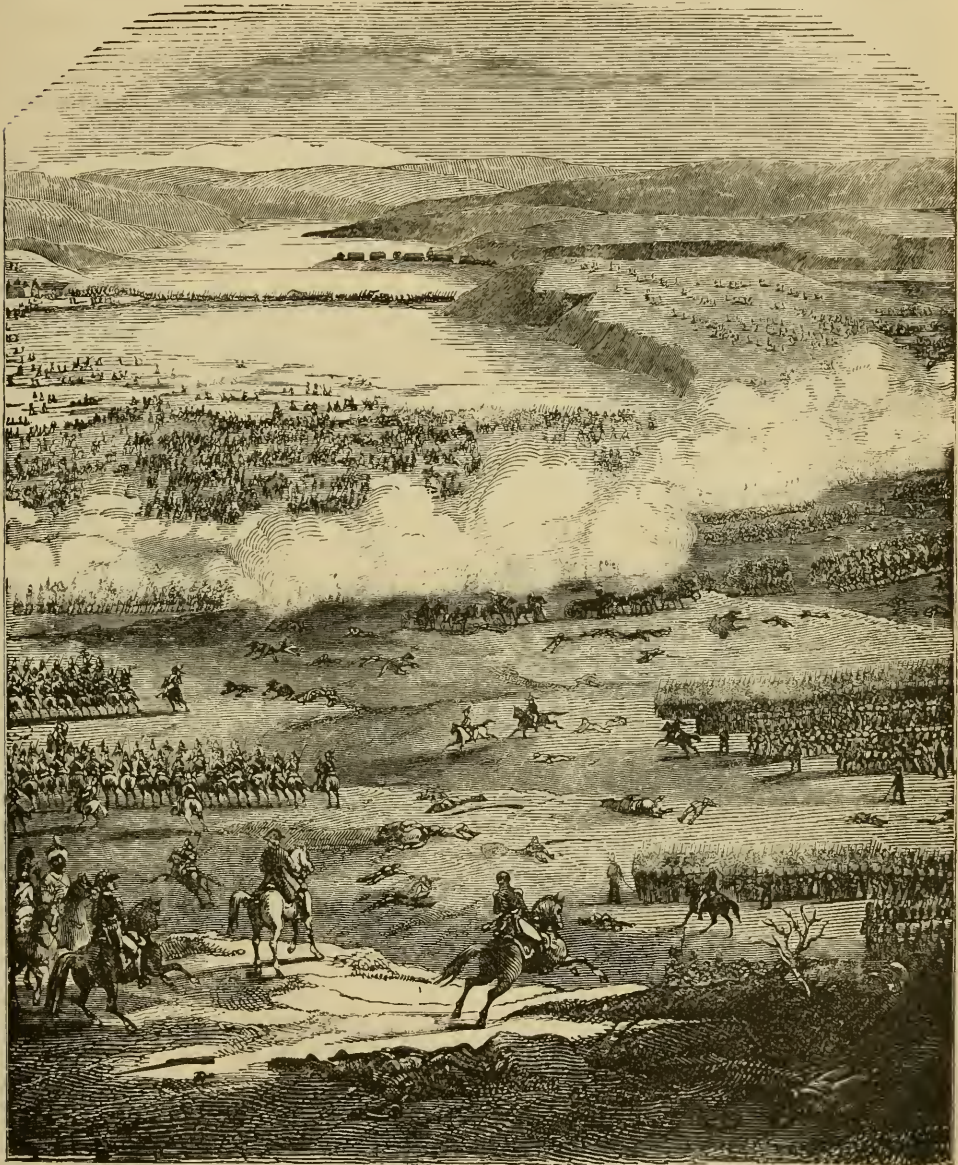
Preparations were now made for the coronation of the emperor. Pope Pius VII. came from Rome to Paris to perform the ceremony, and the coronation was performed with great pomp in the Cathedral of Notre Dame at Paris, on the 2d of December, 1804. Napoleon took the crown from the hands of the pope, and placed it on his own head, and then crowned the Empress Josephine, who knelt before him. A few months later the Cisalpine republic having been transformed into the kingdom of Italy, Napoleon was crowned King of Italy, in the Cathedral of Milan, on the 26th of May, 1805, the ancient iron crown of Lombardy being used on this occasion. The emperor appointed his stepson, Eugene de Beauharnais, his representative in Italy, with the title of viceroy. On the 30th of June, 1805, the Genoese territory was organized as three French departments and formally incorporated with France.

The emperor now made an effort to bring about a peace with England, but the British government met his overture with contempt, and in reply intimated to him that a new European coalition was being formed for his destruction. In April, 1805, an alliance was entered into against France by England and Russia, and was soon joined by Austria. Napoleon in the meantime had been actively pushing forward his preparations for the invasion of England. As soon as the accession of Austria to the league against him was known to him, he at once broke up his camp near Boulogne, and moved his immense army rapidly across France to the Rhine.

An Austrian army of 80,000 men, under General Mack, crossed the Inn on the 7th

of September, and moved upon Munich. Napoleon crossed the Rhine, and by a bold and rapid movement gained Mack's rear and seized his communications with Vienna. The Austrian commander attempted to

of three weeks the masterly movements of Napoleon had destroyed an army of 80,000 men without having fought a single great battle. From Ulm he advanced rapidly upon Vienna, and entered that city without



BATTLE OF AUSTERLITZ.

recover them in a series of engagements, but was beaten and driven within the walls of Ulm, which he was forced to surrender, together with his army of 30,000 men, on the 20th of October. In the short space

of opposition on the 13th of November. During these movements Marshal Masséna drove the Archduke Charles out of Italy, and occupied the Tyrol with his forces.

In the midst of these successes Napoleon

was startled by the defeat of the French fleet by the English fleet under Lord Nelson, in the great battle of Trafalgar, on the 21st of October, by which the French navy was annihilated.

Though in possession of the Austrian capital, the situation of Napoleon was by no means free from danger. A powerful army of Russian and Austrian troops was advancing from Moravia, and the Archdukes Charles and John had gathered a large force in Hungary. Napoleon determined to prevent the union of these armies, and resolved to attack the Austro-Russian army first. He accordingly crossed the Danube and marched upon Brunn. On the 2d of December, 1805, he inflicted a terrible defeat upon the allied army at Austerlitz. The allies lost 10,000 killed, 20,000 prisoners, and 120 pieces of cannon. The victory was decisive of the war. The Austrian emperor asked for an armistice and sought an interview with Napoleon. The preliminaries of a peace were agreed upon, and on the 26th of December the peace of Pressburg was signed. The terms of this treaty have been given in our account of the German history of this century. The Russian army was permitted to retire unmolested into its own country. The defeat of the coalition had an effect most unexpected to Napoleon. It was the cause of the death of William Pitt, Napoleon's most determined enemy, who expired on the 23d of January, 1806.

Naples had entered into a treaty of neutrality with France; but under the influence of Queen Caroline, a sister of the unfortunate Marie Antoinette, it had taken sides with the allies. Napoleon at once proclaimed that "the house of Bourbon had ceased to reign in Naples;" and in February, 1806, sent a powerful army, under Joseph Bonaparte and Marshal Masséna, into the Neapolitan territory. The royal family fled to Sicily; Naples was occupied by the French, and the emperor conferred the Neapolitan crown upon his eldest brother, Joseph Bonaparte. The emperor also erected Holland into a kingdom, of which he made his brother Louis king. Various duchies and principalities in Italy, Dalmatia, and elsewhere were conferred as "immediate fiefs of the empire" on the most eminent French generals and ministers, and were made hereditary in their families. The royal family of Naples made repeated efforts to drive King Joseph from

his new throne, but the insurrection was suppressed by the French troops.

In the summer of 1806 Napoleon, in order to strengthen his power in Germany, established the Confederation of the Rhine, the organization of which we have related in the German history of this century. The organization of this confederacy gave great offence to Prussia, which power, as we have related elsewhere, had other causes of quarrel with France. Influenced by these causes, Prussia recklessly rushed into war with France, without being in any way prepared for such a struggle. Napoleon, with his accustomed energy, crossed the Rhine, and advanced rapidly into Prussia. On the 14th of October, 1806, he defeated the Prussian army with great slaughter in the decisive battle of Jena, taking over 20,000 prisoners and 300 pieces of artillery. The Prussian fortresses surrendered to the conquerors, and King Frederick William withdrew with the wreck of his force to Königsberg, where he awaited the approach of the Emperor Alexander of Russia, who was marching to the Vistula to his assistance.

Napoleon entered Berlin without opposition, and proceeded to insult and plunder the Prussian capital and people. His course here has been related. During his occupation of this place he issued, on the 21st of November, 1806, his famous "Berlin Decree," in retaliation for an English "Order in Council," which prohibited trade with France. He declared the whole British coast in a state of blockade, forbade all intercourse or trade with England under heavy penalties, ordered the confiscation of all merchandise and property belonging to British subjects, and forbade any vessel coming from Great Britain or her colonies, or which had touched at any port subject to Great Britain, from entering the harbors of the French empire.

The emperor now advanced from Berlin into Poland, and took up his quarters at Warsaw. He was solicited by the Poles to restore their ancient kingdom, but he took care not to commit himself openly to such a restoration, as he had no wish to add Austria just then to his other enemies.

In January, 1807, the Russian army under Beningsen took the field, though the season was bitter cold. Napoleon at once advanced to meet it, and on the 8th of February attacked it at Eylau. The battle which ensued was one of the bloodiest and most desperate ever fought by Napoleon,

and resulted in his complete repulse, with the loss of 30,000 men. The Russians lost 20,000 men. The French emperor retired to the line of the Vistula, and exerted himself to refill his ranks with such success that in June he was enabled to resume operations with an army of 200,000 men. On the 14th of June, the anniversary of Marengo, he inflicted a decisive defeat upon the Russians at Friedland. The Russian army withdrew in good order, and on the 19th of June halted at Tilsit, near the Russian frontier.

Both Napoleon and Alexander were anxious for peace, and an interview was arranged between them. It was held on a

measures adopted by Napoleon against England.

Returning to Paris after the peace of Tilsit, Napoleon was received with enthusiasm by the French people. He was now at the height of his power, which he proceeded to strengthen. He abolished the Tribunal, the only body which had preserved any vestige of independent legislative action, and established a rigid censorship of the press, which was forbidden to publish any news that had not first been inserted in the *Moniteur*, the official journal of the government. The education of the young was placed under the immediate



MALMAISON—FAVORITE RESIDENCE OF NAPOLEON I.

raft in the middle of the river Niemen, on the 25th of June. The terms of peace were agreed upon, and were formally embodied in the treaty of Tilsit, which was signed between France and Russia on the 7th, and between France and Prussia on the 9th of July. We have related the terms of this treaty in the German history of this century. Out of the territory taken from Prussia and Hanover, Napoleon erected the kingdom of Westphalia, which he bestowed upon his brother Jerome. Prussia was literally dismembered, but the Russian emperor was treated as a friend and an ally, and was only required to give his adhesion to the

control of the government, and was so arranged as to give the greatest encouragement to the adoption of a military career.

The emperor now ventured upon a step full of the most serious and fatal consequences to himself and to France. Under the pretext of compelling Spain and Portugal to accept his "Continental System," and exclude British goods from their markets, he determined to overthrow the existing governments in those countries and convert them into appendages to the French empire. He ordered Portugal to close her ports against British vessels, and to confiscate all British property and arrest all

British subjects within her limits, on pain of war with France. The Portuguese prince regent obeyed reluctantly, as he was unwilling to sacrifice the ancient alliance of his country with England, and his slowness displeased Napoleon, who declared that "the house of Braganza had ceased to reign in Europe," and ordered General Junot to enter Portugal with 30,000 troops. The prince regent fled, and sailed to the Portuguese possessions in Brazil, and on the 30th of November, 1807, the French occupied Lisbon.

Having secured Portugal, the emperor

throned on the 19th of March, 1808, as Ferdinand VII., amid the rejoicings of the people. The old king, Charles IV., repented his abdication, and asked the aid of Napoleon to regain his crown. The emperor induced the whole royal family, including the favorite, to meet him at Bayonne. A disgraceful quarrel broke out between the father and son in the presence of the emperor, who compelled them to resign their sovereign rights to him. Charles IV. received, in exchange for Spain and the Indies, the Castle of Chambord, in France, and a pension of 7,500,000 francs a year. Ferdinand was offered the kingdom of Etruria, but refused to sell his inheritance for it, and was imprisoned, with his brother Carlos, in the Castle of Valençai. Napoleon then conferred the Spanish crown upon his brother Joseph, who resigned his kingdom of the Two Sicilies to his brother-in-law Murat, one of the most brilliant marshals of the empire.

Though the Council of Castile gave a formal consent, under compulsion from Napoleon, to the elevation of King Joseph to the Spanish throne, the people of Spain were justly indignant at being bartered away like sheep, and a formidable resistance to the French was organized throughout the kingdom. Juntas were appointed in every town, of which that of Seville was the chief. Ferdinand VII. was declared the rightful King of Spain, and six French war vessels were seized by the patriots in the harbor of Cadiz. Marshal Monecy at once moved forward towards



THE ARCH OF TRIUMPH—PARIS.

turned his attention to Spain. A bitter quarrel existed between Prince Ferdinand, the heir to the Spanish crown, on the one side, and the king and queen, his parents, and the favorite Godoy on the other. Napoleon adroitly seized upon this quarrel to ruin all the parties to it. Under various pretences he occupied the northern provinces of Spain with an army of 100,000 men. The king endeavored to reach the coast and follow the example of the Portuguese government by sailing for his American possessions, but was prevented, and abdicated in favor of his son, who ascended the

throne. Somewhat later the Spaniards were defeated at Medina del Rio Seco, but they more than atoned for this defeat by a brilliant victory over the French General Dupont at Baylen, in Andalusia, by which that commander and 20,000 of his troops became prisoners of war. The city of Saragossa was besieged by the French, but maintained an heroic defence for two months, until the besiegers were obliged to withdraw after suffering fearful hardships. King Joseph found himself unable to maintain his position at the

capital, and was obliged to retire beyond the Ebro.

Portugal, encouraged by the success of

defeated General Junot at Vimiera, and compelled him to accept the convention of Cintra, by which the French commander



NAPOLEON I.

the Spanish revolt, rose in rebellion and declared for the house of Braganza, and the British government sent Sir Arthur Wellesley with an army to her aid. He

agreed to evacuate the whole of Portugal. The English occupied Lisbon in triumph on the 12th of September, and by the 30th not a French soldier remained in Portugal.

Napoleon now resolved to make a grand effort for the recovery of his lost ground in the peninsula, and in order to be free to do so drew closer his alliance with Russia. He met the Emperor Alexander at Erfurt, and the czar consented to all the changes in Italy and the Spanish peninsula, and agreed to support Napoleon with 150,000 men in case war ensued between France and Austria. In return Napoleon agreed to the acquisition of Moldavia, Wallachia, and Finland by Russia.

Great Britain now resolved to prosecute the war in the peninsula with vigor, and her army in Portugal was largely reinforced and placed under the command of Sir John Moore. Napoleon about the same time took command of his armies in Spain in person, defeated in succession three Spanish armies which endeavored to stay his progress, and on the 4th of December entered Madrid in triumph. The junta fled in confusion, and the only resistance offered to the conqueror was that of the English army under Sir John Moore. Napoleon being called to the north by the sudden hostility of Austria, intrusted to Marshal Soult the task of driving Moore out of the peninsula. Moore, finding himself unable to oppose the greatly superior force under Soult, retreated to Corunna, intending to embark from that port for England. On the 16th of January, 1809, Soult attacked him with the hope of preventing his embarkation, but was repulsed. Sir John Moore purchased his victory with his life; he was killed in the heat of the battle, and was buried on the field. The English then embarked and sailed for their own country, leaving the French masters of Spain.

The sudden departure of Napoleon from Spain was owing to the action of Austria, which power, since the peace of Pressburg, had been preparing to renew the war. England having promised to assist her with \$20,000,000, Austria collected an army of 500,000 men, and selecting as the most favorable moment the time when Napoleon was engaged in his contest with the Spaniards, moved her forces into the territory of Bavaria, the ally of France. The army of the Archduke Charles, the Austrian general-in-chief, crossed the Inn on the 9th of April, 1809. Napoleon had reached Paris when he heard of this step. Though taken by surprise and somewhat at a disadvantage, he hastened into Germany, organized the forces of Wurtemberg and

Baden, and united them with his own. On the 18th, four days after his departure from Paris, his head-quarters were at Ingolstadt. On the 22d of April he attacked and decisively defeated the army of the Archduke Charles at Eckmühl. The archduke retreated to Ratisbon, pursued by the French, who carried that town by storm and drove the Austrians into Bohemia. The way to Vienna was thus left open to the French, and on the 13th of May Napoleon entered Vienna the second time as a conqueror.

The Austrians under the Archduke John had invaded Italy at the beginning of the campaign. They were driven out of that kingdom by the viceroy, Eugene Beauharnais, who followed them into their own country, and united his army with that of Napoleon before Vienna on the 26th of May.

The Tyrolese, under the leadership of Andreas Hofer, rose in rebellion against the French and Bavarians at the outset of the war. The insurrection was crushed, and Hofer was subsequently captured and shot by the French, as we have related elsewhere.

The Archduke Charles with a force of 80,000 men now advanced to drive the French out of Vienna, and on the 21st and 23d of May the desperate battles of Essling and Aspern were fought. The French lost 30,000 men, and the Austrians 20,000. Marshal Lannes, Duke of Montebello, one of the most gifted leaders of the French army, was mortally wounded. Napoleon retreated from the field, but the archduke was unable to profit by the French reverse. On the 4th of July, Napoleon having been reinforced by Eugene Beauharnais' army and other troops, advanced once more upon the Austrians with an army of 150,000 men, and on the 6th of July inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Archduke Charles at Wagram. Twenty-five thousand men fell on the side of the French. The Austrian loss was larger.

Thoroughly disheartened by the result of the battle of Wagram, the Austrian emperor sought peace. An armistice was signed, which was followed by the treaty of Schönbrunn, which was more humiliating to Austria than the peace of Pressburg. The terms of this treaty are stated in the German history of this period. The Emperor of Austria agreed to adopt the "Continental System" of Napoleon against British commerce, and to hold no friendly

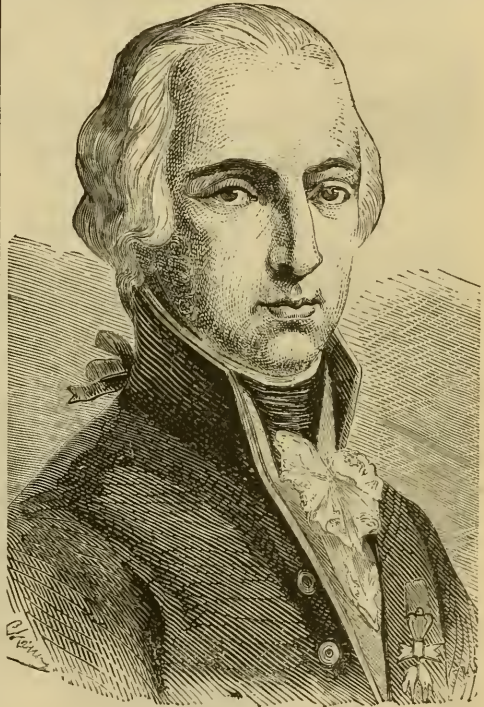
intercourse with England. This treaty greatly weakened the influence of Austria in European affairs.

In the midst of his struggle with Austria, Napoleon brought his quarrel with the pope to an end. The pontiff had refused to adopt the "Continental System" of the French emperor, and also to recognize Murat as King of Naples. On the 17th of May, 1809, Napoleon by a decree dated from Schönbrunn declared the papal states annexed to the French empire, and assigned to the deposed pope the use of the Vatican quarter and a revenue of two millions of francs per annum. Pius VII. met this decree with a bull excommunicating Napoleon and all his adherents and counsellors. Napoleon at once caused the pontiff to be seized in his palace at midnight, and conveyed to France. He was kept in an honorable captivity in the Palace of Fontainebleau until the downfall of the empire.

In the meantime Spain had been reduced by the French armies after the retreat of the English. Portugal remained to be conquered, and in April, 1809, Soult invaded that country and occupied Oporto. The English army at Lisbon was strongly reinforced, and Sir Arthur Wellesley was assigned the chief command in the peninsula. He drove the French out of Portugal into Galicia, and entered Spain, where he was joined by a Spanish force under General Cuesta. King Joseph, collecting all the troops he could, joined the army of Marshal Victor, which was seeking to stay the advance of the English. On the 28th of July a great battle was fought at Talavera, in which the French were defeated with a loss of 7,000 men. The English lost upwards of 5,000. Immediately after his victory Sir Arthur Wellesley was informed that Marshals Soult, Ney, and Mortier were advancing against him, and promptly fell back to the Portuguese frontier. The French made no further effort to molest him, and about the middle of December the campaign was brought to a close. In the rest of Spain, it had been very favorable to the French. Saragossa surrendered to them in February, 1809, after a defence which must ever rank among the most heroic in history. Forty thousand people were killed during the siege. On the whole, in spite of their defeat at Talavera, the year 1809 closed favorably to the French.

Napoleon now committed the chief error

of his life. He was tenderly attached to his wife, the Empress Josephine, but their marriage had been childless. He believed that the perpetuation of his dynasty demanded a son to inherit his crown, and he resolved to divorce Josephine, and find a wife who might give him a lineal heir to his throne. The empress, after a painful struggle, consented to the divorce, which was pronounced by the senate on the 15th of December, and was ratified by the ecclesiastical court of Paris. The title of empress and a revenue of two millions of francs per annum were secured to Josephine during



THE ARCHDUKE CHARLES.

her life. Napoleon then demanded of the Emperor of Austria the hand of his daughter, the Princess Maria Louisa, in marriage. Francis, unable to refuse, consented, and the marriage was celebrated by proxy on the 11th of March, 1810. The bride repaired at once to Paris, where the nuptial ceremony was repeated in the chapel of the Tuileries on the 2d of April. The divorce and the Austrian marriage of Napoleon were among the chief mistakes of his life. The Empress Josephine was greatly beloved by the French people, who regarded Maria Louisa with indifference. The mar-

riage with an Austrian princess was regarded by the French nation as an abandonment by Napoleon of the principles which had raised him to greatness; so that on the whole it was a loss rather than a gain to him. The Empress Maria Louisa, on the 20th of March, 1811, gave birth to a son, who received the august title of King of Rome. The event was hailed with great rejoicings throughout the empire.

The years 1810 and 1811 were passed in comparative tranquillity. Napoleon's infatuation for his "Continental System" led

nephew, annexed Holland to France on the 10th of July, 1810, and declared Amsterdam the third city of the empire. His course was viewed with great disfavor in France as well as in the rest of Europe.

In 1810 the emperor also seized and added to his dominions, without just cause, the Hanseatic towns, Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubeck, and the whole north coast of Germany, between the Ems and the Elbe. Among the German princes thus despoiled was the Duke of Oldenburg, a connection of the Emperor of Russia both by blood



BATTLE OF BUSACO.

him to the commission of acts which were in the end fatal to him. Louis Bonaparte, King of Holland, refused to sacrifice the interests of his subjects by enforcing the "Continental System," and the emperor, to compel obedience on his part, sent a force of 20,000 French troops into Holland, under Marshal Oudinot, who established his headquarters at Amsterdam. Louis at once abdicated his crown in favor of his son, and took refuge in the Austrian territory. Napoleon, disregarding the rights of his

and marriage. Alexander deeply resented the spoliation of his relative, and addressed a protest against it to Napoleon, and issued a decree opening the ports of Russia to British commerce, and levying a prohibitory duty upon articles of French manufacture imported into his dominions.

All through the Revolution, and until now, Sweden had been the cordial friend of France. The Prince of Holstein, heir to the Swedish throne, having died, the Swedish diet, anxious to strengthen their rela-

tions with France and to gratify Napoleon, elected Marshal Bernadotte, whom the emperor had created Prince of Ponte Corvo, to the vacant rank of crown prince. It was a wise choice as far as Sweden was concerned. Bernadotte had never been a warm supporter of Napoleon, though he had served him with zeal and ability, and was by no means a favorite of the emperor. Napoleon offered no opposition to his elevation to his new dignity, and Bernadotte set out for Stockholm in September, 1810; but from this time the relations between France and Sweden became more and more uncertain. Bernadotte soon gave proof that he was not disposed to sacrifice the interests of Sweden to those of France by his open unwillingness to enforce the "Continental System," and in a short while Swedish Pomerania became the principal place through which English merchandise found its way into the continent.

Being at peace with the nations of continental Europe, Napoleon now gave his attention to the prosecution of the war in Spain. His army, under Marshal Masséna, Prince of Essling, was reinforced to 80,000 men, and a vigorous effort was made to regain possession of Portugal. Masséna promptly reduced Ciudad Rodrigo, which surrendered on the 10th of July, 1810. Its fall was followed by that of Almeida, one of the strongest frontier fortresses of Portugal. The loss of these places compelled Wellington, whose army consisted of but 28,000 English and about 25,000 Portuguese, to fall back. He determined to make a stand for the defence of Lisbon at the strong position of Torres Vedras, which he had already fortified for such a contingency. He was attacked on his retreat, at Busaco, by the French on the 27th of September, but repulsed them, and on the 9th of October his army was safe in the strong lines of Torres Vedras, which were almost impregnable to any attack. Masséna made several attempts upon these lines, but was repulsed each time, and finally took position at Santarem, where he passed the winter. In the spring of 1811, finding that he could make no impression upon Wellington's lines, and that his own army was suffering from scarcity of provisions, he fell back into Spain. Wellington at once followed him closely, but the French commander conducted his retreat with such skill that his adversary could gain no advantage over him.

The British army now blockaded Almeida, while another division under Marshal Beresford formed the siege of Badajoz. Masséna, hoping to relieve Almeida, advanced from Ciudad Rodrigo, and attacked the English at Fuentes de Onor, on the 5th of May, but was defeated with the loss of 3,000 men, after one of the most stubbornly contested battles of the peninsula war. He retreated across the Spanish frontier to Salamanca, where he was soon after relieved of his command by Marshal Marmont, Duke of Ragusa.

Marshal Soult, Duke of Dalmatia, now marched from Seville to the relief of Badajoz, and attacked the army of Marshal Beresford at Albuera, on the 16th of May. The British were victorious, but bought their success at the cost of about 7,000 men. The French lost 8,000 men. Wellington was soon after informed that a strong force was marching from Salamanca to join Marshal Soult, and caused Beresford to raise the siege of Badajoz on the 18th of June, and retreat into Portugal. Nothing more of importance occurred during the year.

The year 1812 was opened by the capture of Ciudad Rodrigo by Lord Wellington on the 19th of January. On the 6th of April Badajoz was carried by assault. The English army now advanced into the interior of Spain, and on the 22d of July, 1812, defeated the French under Marshal Marmont in the great battle of Salamanca, inflicting upon them a loss of 8,000 killed and wounded and 7,000 prisoners. Following up this victory, Wellington advanced to Madrid, and occupied that city. Proceeding farther northward, he laid siege to Burgos, but finding that the French were concentrating against him from all parts of the peninsula, raised the siege on the 21st of October, and retreated to Ciudad Rodrigo. Soult pursued him with a force of 80,000 men, but was not able to profit by his superior numbers. Reaching Ciudad Rodrigo, the army of Wellington went into winter quarters. King Joseph returned to Madrid, but his authority was at an end south of the capital.

Since the battle of Wagram, in 1809, the relations between France and Russia had been growing colder every year. Towards the close of 1811 the two countries became involved in a diplomatic controversy of no little bitterness, but neither seemed desirous of engaging in open hostilities. Russia had grave cause of com-

plaint. The continental system had ruined her commerce, and the creation of the duchy of Warsaw was a menace to her internal tranquillity. The seizure of the duchy of Oldenberg by Napoleon was a personal affront to the czar, and the continued occupation of the Prussian fortresses, and the concentration of French troops between the Oder and the Vistula, were constant sources of uneasiness to her. The czar prepared for the struggle which he saw was inevitable, but shrank from hastening it.

Sweden, in the meantime, had drawn upon herself the hostility of Napoleon by her increasing unwillingness to sustain the continental system. Swedish ships were seized in German harbors and their crews sent in irons to Antwerp; and on the 27th of January, 1812, without any previous declaration of war, a column of 20,000 Frenchmen, under Marshal Davoust, suddenly entered and occupied Swedish Pomerania, imprisoned the Swedish officials at Hamburg, and filled their places with Frenchmen. Bernadotte, who was administering the government of Sweden during the illness of the king, appealed to Russia for aid, and his prayer was granted by the czar, whose army was at once set in motion. In the struggle which followed, Austria and Prussia supported France; and on the other side were Russia, Great Britain and Sweden.

On the 9th of May Napoleon left Paris to place himself at the head of his army, which was already on its march to the Vistula. At Dresden, where he remained several weeks, he was joined by the Emperor of Austria, the King of Prussia, and a crowd of German princes, whom he entertained in magnificent style. He then resumed his advance, and upon reaching the frontier of Russia declared war against the czar. His army consisted of over 450,000 men and 1,200 pieces of artillery. It crossed the Niemen in five columns. On the 28th of June Napoleon reached Wilna, the capital of Lithuania, and remained there seventeen days to arrange for the proper sustenance of his prodigious army. The movements of his troops were delayed by a terrible storm which raged throughout Lithuania.

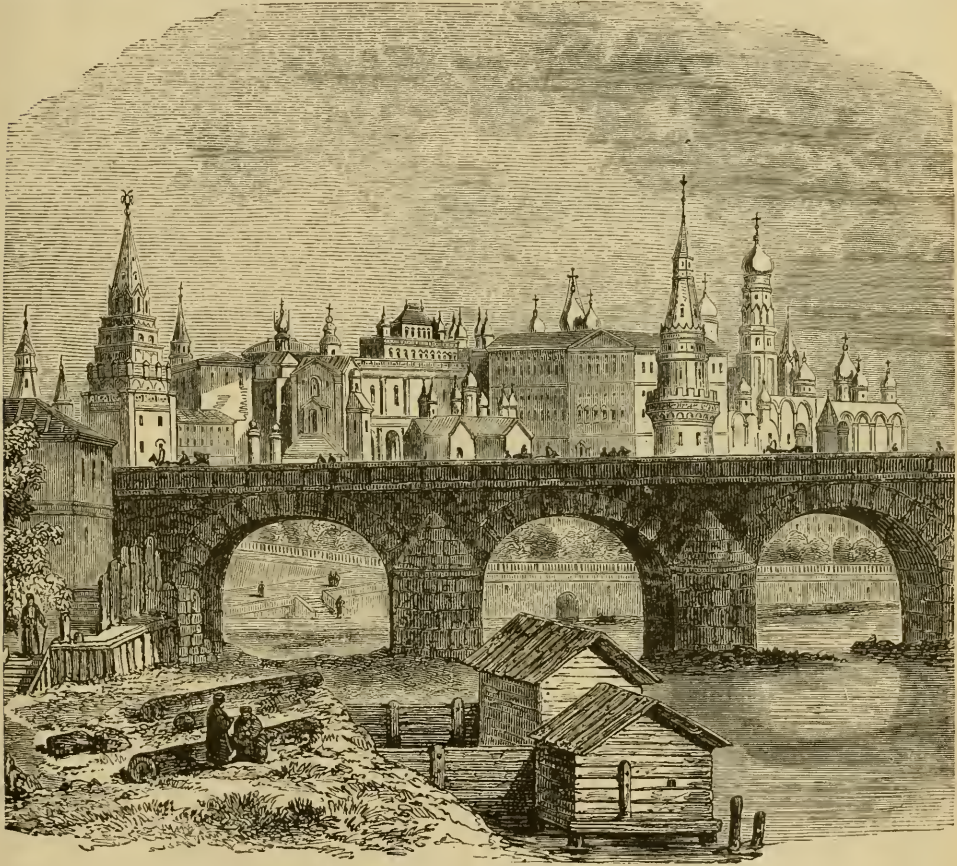
The Russians fell back steadily, destroying all the provisions within reach of the French, who had already begun to suffer for want of food. Pressing on, Napoleon

concentrated his whole army for an attack upon Smolensko, which city he assaulted with vigor on the 17th of August. He failed to carry the Russian defences, however, and lost 12,000 men; and that night the Russians set fire to the town and abandoned it. In pursuance of the same policy the Russians burned and abandoned Dorogobourg, Viazina and Gjatsk. The French secured only the blackened sites of these places, but pressed on with grim resolution, each day drawing nearer to Moscow and St. Petersburg.

The czar now changed his plan of resistance, and placing the veteran soldier Kutusoff at the head of his army, ordered him to bring on a general engagement. Kutusoff took position in front of the river Moskowa, his centre occupying the village of Borodino. His position was protected by strong redoubts and batteries, and was unusually formidable. On the 5th of September the French army arrived in front of the Russian position, and on the 7th stormed it and carried it after one of the most desperate struggles in the annals of war. The losses were immense on both sides. The French lost 12,000 killed and 20,000 wounded; the Russians 15,000 killed, 30,000 wounded, and 2,000 prisoners. The success of the French was limited to the capture of the intrenchments. The Russians retreated in good order, and without any material loss of enthusiasm. Kutusoff fell back upon Moscow, but instead of attempting to defend that city withdrew the inhabitants and removed from it everything of value that could be carried away. The Russians had determined that the occupation of their ancient capital by the French should prove their ruin. The Russian army marched out of Moscow on the 14th of September, followed by the larger part of the inhabitants, and retired towards Kolomna. The French army had pushed forward after the battle of Borodino, hoping to find comfortable winter quarters in Moscow, and on the 14th and 15th entered that city, which they were astounded to find deserted. Napoleon established his headquarters in the Kremlin, the ancient palace of the czars. In the night the French were startled with the cry that the city was on fire. The flames were extinguished with difficulty, but the next night burst forth again, and this time gained such headway that they could not be checked. For five days the city was a prey to the

flames, and 7,000 houses, or nine-tenths of the city, were destroyed. The fire was the deliberate work of the Russians, who destroyed their ancient capital rather than allow it to shelter the French through the winter. Napoleon was deeply dejected at this disaster. The winter was coming on, and his army would not be able to pass it in such a region without shelter. He must either make peace or retreat at once. He attempted to negotiate with the czar, but

earlier than usual and with uncommon severity. With the appearance of the snow began the horrors of the retreat. The French soldiers suffered terribly, and perished by hundreds in the drifts and at night around the bivouac fires. The roads were rendered very difficult by the snow, and troops of Cossacks hung upon the route of the army, ready to cut off any straggler from the main body. In a single night several thousand men and nearly all



VIEW IN MOSCOW.

Alexander refused to treat while the French were on Russian soil, and there remained nothing to Napoleon but to retrace his steps to the Russian border. On the 19th of October the French army evacuated Moscow. By the express orders of Napoleon the rear-guard blew up the Kremlin before withdrawing from the city.

On the 6th of November a heavy fall of snow announced the arrival of the terrible Russian winter, which opened this year

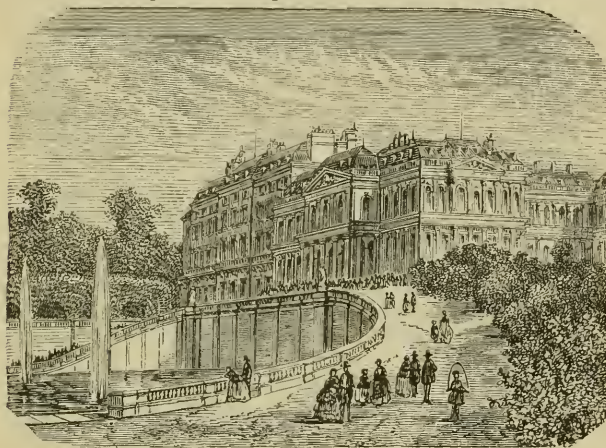
the horses were frozen to death. When the army reached Smolensko, on the 12th of November, it was found that 30,000 men had died from cold, exposure, and hunger, that almost the whole cavalry force was dismounted, and that over 300 pieces of artillery had been abandoned for want of means to drag them.

Napoleon divided his army into four columns and hastened on from Smolensko without delay. The roads were so slippery

with ice as to be almost impassable, and the cold was intense. On the 17th the French found their road barred by a force of 60,000 Russians, under Kutusoff, at Krasnoi. Napoleon's personal exertions alone saved his army from utter destruction in the conflict which ensued. Ney, who commanded the rear-guard, had not yet come up, and his absence aroused the gravest fears of the emperor, who felt that he must be overwhelmed by the superior forces of the enemy. Ney, however, surmounted his difficulties. He engaged the Russians in a furious battle on the Losmina, and managing to elude their pursuit, crossed the Dnieper on the ice, and rejoined Napoleon at Orza with but 1,500 men, the wreck of his splendid corps. The Russians

Leaving the command of the army to the King of Naples, the emperor now set out with all speed for Warsaw, whence he hastened to Paris, accompanied by Caulaincourt and two other officers. He reached Paris on the 18th of December, and found the capital in a state of great excitement, caused by the reports of the disasters of the army and a report of his own death. The broken fragments of the grand army were conducted by Murat to the Niemen, which was crossed on the 13th of December. The Russian pursuit now ceased, and the French could count their losses. Of the 450,000 men who had entered the Russian territory six months before, scarcely 100,000 remained. At least 125,000 had fallen in battle, and over 130,000 had perished of cold, hunger, and fatigue during the retreat. Never, since the days of Xerxes, had an army experienced such terrible suffering, or been forced to such a disastrous retreat. The whole French empire was filled with mourning.

The return of the emperor to Paris was attended with the happiest results. In spite of his immense losses in Russia, his ascendancy over the French people was so great that every demand he made upon them for men and money to repair his losses and to continue the struggle was promptly responded to, and by the opening of the



PALACE OF ST. CLOUD.

now put forth their utmost exertions to prevent the French from crossing the Beresina. Napoleon about the same time was reinforced by the comparatively fresh corps of Marshals Victor and Oudinot, and succeeded in laying two bridges across the Beresina and in transporting the greater part of his troops to the opposite bank. Victor's corps covered the passage of the river, and was driven back in confusion on the bridges. One of these broke under the weight of the artillery, and the other was blown up by Victor's orders. The Russian artillery kept up a fatal fire upon the struggling masses of the French, cutting down thousands. Thousands were drowned in the Beresina, and thousands were made prisoners. This terrible disaster completed the demoralization of the French army, of which scarcely 20,000 men remained with their colors.

year 1813 he had succeeded in placing in the field a fresh army of 350,000 men, exclusive of the troops employed in Spain.

As has been related, Germany had been for some time watching an opportunity to throw off the French yoke. Prussia had been preparing for this struggle for freedom ever since the battle of Jena. It seemed that no better opportunity could offer itself than that presented by the disastrous retreat from Russia. An alliance was formed between Prussia and Russia for the purpose of expelling the French from Germany, and on the 11th of March, 1813, the Russian army entered Berlin, where it was received with enthusiasm. On the 16th of March Prussia formally declared war against France. Austria professed her intention to act as a mediator between the combatants, but Napoleon was well convinced that she was preparing to

join his enemies in case they were successful.

Napoleon left Paris on the 15th of April and hastened to Erfurt, where he assumed the command of his army, and advanced against the allies. On the 2d of May he defeated them after a hard struggle at Lutzen, and compelled them to retreat. Dresden was at once occupied by Napoleon, who replaced his ally, the King of Saxony, on his throne. He then hastened on towards the Russians and Prussians, and found them posted in an intrenched camp near Bautzen. Two battles were fought here on the 20th and 21st of May, and the allies were driven from their position. The losses on both sides were immense, but the defeated army retreated in good order, leaving not a single trophy to the French. On the 22d Napoleon began the pursuit of the enemy. Marshal Duroc, to whom he was warmly attached, was mortally wounded during the pursuit, to the great grief of the emperor. The allies fell back to Schweidnitz, and the French continued the pursuit to Breslau. The former now asked for an armistice, and Napoleon consented to a suspension of hostilities for eight weeks—from June 4th to July 28th—for the purpose of endeavoring to arrange a peace. In the meantime he established his head-quarters at Dresden.

The allies were insincere, and used the time afforded by the armistice to organize a coalition of all the powers of Europe against France. Austria pushed forward her military preparations with all speed, and at length submitted her ultimatum to Napoleon. She demanded as the price of her assistance the surrender by France of Poland, Holland, Spain, Switzerland, and half of Italy, the dissolution of the Confederation of the Rhine, and the re-establishment of the pope at Rome. These terms were indignantly rejected by the French emperor. The peace congress met at Prague, however, according to agreement, on the 5th of July, and negotiations were carried on there for several weeks. They proved fruitless, and on the 10th of August the war was renewed. Austria now formally joined the coalition against France.

The allied army numbered 370,000 men, and was placed under the command of the Austrian Prince Schwartzenberg. It was accompanied by the Emperors of Russia and Austria, the King of Prussia, and a number of German princes. It advanced

at once upon Dresden, and on the 26th of August attacked the French army before that place. The battle was renewed on the 27th, but the allies were repulsed with a loss of 25,000 men, and retreated towards Bohemia. Being reinforced by 60,000 Russians, they again advanced into Saxony and took position on the left bank of the Elbe. Their design was to concentrate a strong force in the rear of the French at Dresden, and cut off their retreat to France. Bavaria now abandoned her alliance with France and joined the coalition with her forces. Napoleon, who had passed several days in indecision as to his course, fell back from Dresden, and on the 15th of October reached Leipzig. His army was 140,000 strong, but was largely outnumbered by that of the allies, who confronted him with a force of 230,000 men.

Napoleon, conscious of the disadvantage under which he labored, resolved to risk everything upon a decisive battle. On the 16th of October began the terrible battle of Leipzig. The first day's conflict was favorable to the French, and at night the French emperor made proposals of peace, but the allies, who knew their strength must tell in the end, and who were expecting fresh reinforcements every hour, refused to treat with him. On the 18th the battle was renewed, and the French were driven back at all points. During the battle the troops of Saxony and Wurtemberg deserted Napoleon, and went over to the Swedish army under Bernadotte, in a body. They numbered 12,000 men.

The safety of the French army now lay in a prompt retreat. It was begun at daylight on the 19th. A single, long, narrow bridge across the Pleisse, the Elster and the marshes which lay between them, offered the only means of escape to the beaten force. It was crowded to its utmost capacity, and a large part of the army crossed over in safety, but by a mistake of the engineer the bridge was blown up before all the troops had crossed, and several divisions were cut off, and compelled to surrender. In this fearful battle the losses of the French army amounted to over 70,000 men.

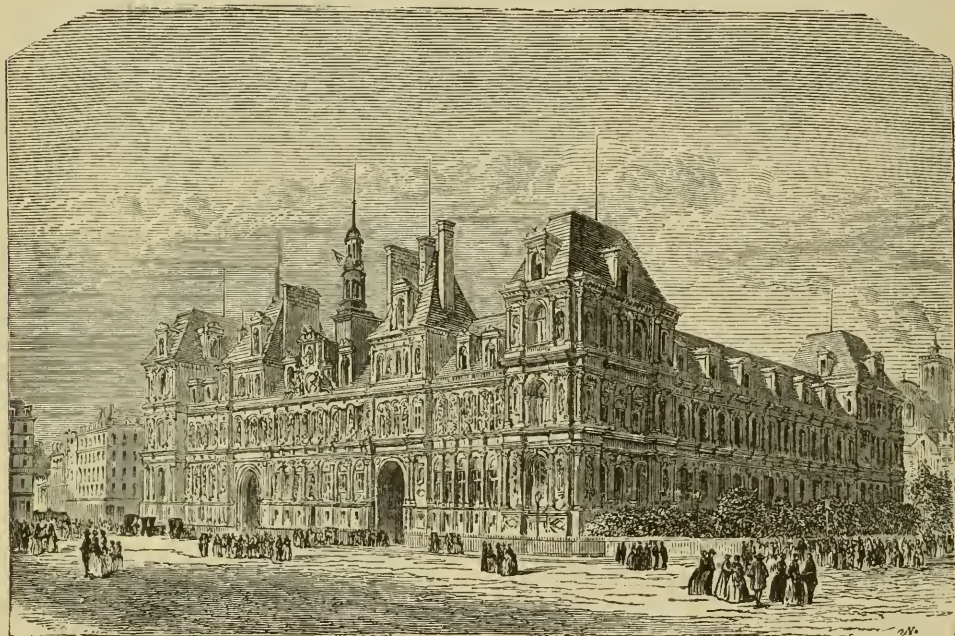
From Leipzig the French fell back to Erfurt in utter confusion. A halt of two days enabled the emperor to collect 80,000 men, and with this force he defeated the Bavarians, who sought to intercept him at Hanau, on the 30th of October. He continued his retreat to the Rhine, which he

crossed at Mayence on the 2d of November. Leaving his army to watch the frontier, the emperor hastened to Paris, where he arrived on the 9th of November.

The allies advanced to the Rhine in pursuit of the French immediately after the battle of Leipzig, and on the 5th of November the Emperor Alexander established his head-quarters at Frankfort. The mighty empire of Napoleon now fell rapidly to pieces. The French garrisons on the Elbe, the Vistula, and the Oder surrendered during the remaining months of the year. The Confederation of the Rhine was dissolved; the kingdom of Westphalia was over-

whole Spanish frontier. Marshal Soult was once more sent to oppose him, but was driven back in a series of encounters, and forced to retreat into France. San Sebastian was carried by storm by the British on the 31st of August, and on the 7th of October the British army crossed the Bidassoa, and in a short while secured a firm lodgment in the French territory.

Upon his return to Paris Napoleon frankly laid before the senate a statement of the actual condition of affairs, and demanded a fresh levy of 300,000 men. His demand was granted, and new taxes were added to the already heavy burdens of the



HOTEL DE VILLE—PARIS.

thrown; Hanover was restored to Great Britain; Holland expelled the French authorities and proclaimed the house of Orange, and Austria recovered all her possessions on the Adriatic. Murat, King of Naples, who had quitted Napoleon at Erfurt, offered to join Austria against France with all his forces, provided his kingdom of Naples were guaranteed to him.

The year 1813 was equally unfavorable to the French in Spain. On the 21st of June the French army was routed by Wellington at Vittoria, with a loss of 10,000 men and 150 pieces of cannon. Within a fortnight Wellington was master of the

empire to meet the expenses of the approaching campaign. The legislative chamber was not so subservient, and the emperor dissolved it. With all his exertions he could succeed only in raising a force of about 110,000 men, not including the troops opposed to Wellington.

Not content with the liberation of Germany, the allies now resolved to invade France and drive Napoleon from the throne. The Austrian army under Schwartzemberg crossed the Rhine at Basle, regardless of the neutrality of the Swiss, on the 21st of December, and advanced by easy stages to Langres, which surrendered on the 16th of

January, 1814. The Prussian army under Blucher crossed the Rhine between Mayence and Coblenz, and advanced to Nancy, which city was occupied by it. A third army of Russians and Prussians entered France by way of Cologne, Liege, and Namur, and advanced towards Soissons. By the end of January, 1814, the allied line extended from Langres to Namur, and was held by them with a force of about 200,000 men.

Having completed his preparations for the campaign, the emperor summoned the commander and principal officers of the national guard of Paris to the Tuileries, on the 23d of January, 1814, and confided the empress and his infant son, the King of Rome, to their protection; and on the 25th left Paris and proceeded with all speed to Chalons-sur-Marne, where he assumed the command of his army. In none of his previous campaigns had he ever shown such marvellous skill, such rapidity of movement, and such astounding fertility of resource, as he exhibited in this last effort of his genius, in which during the next few weeks he, with a handful of men, kept back the heavy masses of the allies and struck them blow after blow with telling effect. The emperor first encountered the army of Blucher at Brienne, and was defeated by him. Undismayed by this reverse he attacked the Prussian commander repeatedly, and finally drove him back towards the army of Von Bülow, which was advancing from the Rhine. Wheeling at once upon Schwartzberg the emperor inflicted a severe defeat upon him at Montereau, and the Austrians made proposals of peace. Blucher again advanced, and in the battle of Laon was victorious. Marmont and Mortier were left by the emperor to contest the march of the Prussians to Paris, while he turned upon the Austrians again, and attacked Schwartzberg at Arcis-sur-Aube on the 20th of March. The battle which ensued was the most obstinate of the whole campaign, but was indecisive.

It was not possible to maintain this unequal struggle much longer, for the superior numbers of the allies were sure in the nature of things to give them the victory. Napoleon was fully aware of this, and after the battle of Arcis-sur-Aube, resolved upon a movement, which could be excused only by the desperate situation in which he was placed, so full of peril was it. Abandoning the line of the Aube, he moved his army

rapidly into the rear of the Austrians, menaced their communications with the Rhine, and threatened to carry the war into Germany. His design was revealed to the allies by means of an intercepted letter. They hesitated for a while, but at length bolder counsels prevailed, and they resolved to take advantage of the opportunity to march upon Paris, and bring the war to an end. Leaving a force of 10,000 men under Winzingerode to engage the attention of Napoleon, the Austrian and Prussian columns united and set out with all speed for Paris. Napoleon at first fell into the snare, but on the 27th learned of the movement of the allies. He was then at St. Dizier, and countermarched with marvellous speed to Troyes, which he reached on the night of the 29th, only to learn that the allies were three days in advance of him. Still he hoped that the force under Marshals Marmont and Mortier, aided by the national guard of Paris, would be sufficient to hold the capital until he could arrive to its relief.

Vain hope. Marmont could only muster 8,000 troops of the line and 30,000 national guards for the defence of Paris. On the 29th of March the Empress Maria Louisa, attended by the high officials of the government, quitted Paris and took the road to Blois. On the 30th the allies arrived before Paris, and attacked the whole line of defences. Their immense superiority of numbers neutralized the gallant efforts of the French, and by noon the arrival of Blucher with 100,000 fresh troops made the case hopeless. To save Paris from the horrors of an assault, Marmont and King Joseph agreed to an armistice, and consented to surrender the city to the allies the next day. The French troops of the line were to be permitted to march out with their arms, and retire towards the Loire.

On the morning of the 31st of March the French troops marched out of Paris, and the allied forces, led by the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia, entered the city, and occupied it with a force of 230,000 men. The sovereigns were received with enthusiasm by the fickle populace of Paris. After a conference with the principal officers of the French government, the allied sovereigns issued a proclamation declaring that they would not treat with Napoleon Bonaparte, nor with any member of his family. The next day the senate formally pronounced the deposition of the emperor from his throne.

In the meantime Napoleon had pushed on ahead of his army, and had reached Fontainebleau at a late hour on the night of the 30th of March. There he learned of the capitulation of Paris. Feeling that all was lost, he abdicated his throne in favor of his son. The allies refused to accept this abdication, well knowing that the emperor was at their mercy. His means of resistance being at an end, the emperor was compelled to sign an unconditional abdication; and on the 11th of April the treaty of Fontainebleau was signed between Napoleon and the allied powers. Napoleon resigned for himself, his heirs and descendants all right to the crowns of France and Italy. In return for this surrender he was to retain the title of Emperor for life, and was given the sovereignty of the island of Elba, and a revenue of two millions of francs.

While these events were in progress in the north, the struggle between Wellington and Soult in the south of France was brought to a close. On the 27th of February, 1814, Soult was defeated by Wellington at Orthez, and again on the 10th of April at Toulouse. The French at once evacuated Toulouse, which was entered in triumph by the Anglo-Spanish army. The authorities of the city immediately raised the white flag of the Bourbons, and proclaimed Louis XVIII. On the 18th of April, the news of Napoleon's abdication having been received, a convention was signed between Soult and Wellington, and the war was brought to a close.

On the 20th of April, having previously taken a touching leave of his old guard, Napoleon left Fontainebleau. He embarked at Frejus on board a British frigate, and landing at Porto Ferrajo, on the 4th of May, took possession of his little island of Elba.

The allies now proceeded to settle the government of France to their own satisfaction. The Emperor of Russia, with characteristic generosity, insisted that a liberal constitution should be secured to the French people, and carried his point. It being settled that the Bourbon kingdom of France should be restored, Louis XVIII., after signing the new constitution, was permitted to make his public entry into Paris on the 3d of May, 1814. He was greeted with enthusiasm by the royalist party, but the mass of the Parisians received him with an ominous silence. The new king dated his first acts in the nineteenth year of his reign,

thus ignoring the existence of the republic and the empire.

On the 30th of May a treaty was concluded between Louis and the allies, by which France resumed her territorial limits of 1792, with a few slight additions. She recovered her colonial possessions, with the exception of the islands of Tobago, Ste Lucie, and Mauritius, but was forbidden to erect any species of fortification in her East Indian colonies. Malta and its dependencies were ceded to Great Britain in full sovereignty. Holland and Belgium were united into one kingdom under the house of Orange. The allied armies were withdrawn from France, after the conclusion of this treaty, and Louis XVIII. was left to administer the affairs of his kingdom.

On the 4th of June the chambers were opened by the king, who promulgated the new charter, or constitution, which differed in several respects from the one to which he had pledged himself before his entry into Paris. He declared that the whole authority of the government of right resided in his person; but that in view of the altered condition of the times, he, after the example of several of his predecessors, was determined to make several alterations in the fundamental law of the kingdom, and of his own free sovereign will granted this charter to his subjects. The peers of France were to constitute an upper chamber of the legislature, and were to be nominated by the crown, either for life or with hereditary descent. Their number was not limited. No one could be chosen to the chamber of deputies unless he should be forty years of age, and should pay taxes to the amount of 1,000 francs annually. The right of suffrage was restricted to persons of thirty years and over, who should pay an annual tax of 300 francs. The king possessed the sole power to propose laws. The chambers might request him to propose a law upon any subject they deemed necessary. If he should refuse their request, they could not renew it until the next session. The Roman Catholic faith was declared the religion of the state, but full toleration was granted to all Christian sects. This was hardly such a constitution as the Emperor Alexander had pledged himself to secure; but it remained the fundamental law of France until a comparatively recent period.

In the meantime the sovereigns and plenipotentiaries of the allied powers met in congress at Vienna. The action of this

congress and its results have been related in the German history of this period, to which the reader is referred. Its contentions and labors were suddenly interrupted by the news that Napoleon had escaped from Elba and had landed in the south of France. The great powers of Europe represented at Vienna once more combined against Napoleon. They proclaimed him an outlaw, and agreed to prosecute the war until he should be rendered incapable of again disturbing the peace of Europe. Three immense armies were organized: the first of Austrian troops under Prince Schwartzenberg; the second of British, Hanoverians, Belgians, and Prussians, under the Duke of Wellington; and the third of 200,000 Russians under the command of the Emperor Alexander.

In exiling the Emperor Napoleon to Elba, the allies had committed a mistake. He was left so close to France that he could and did easily maintain a correspondence with his friends in that country. The army was still devoted to him, and the Bourbon king was heartily disliked by the great majority of the French people. The allies had withdrawn from France, and it seemed to Napoleon that by a bold and determined effort he could rally the army to his support, and regain his lost throne. Having arranged his plans with his friends in France he left Elba on the 26th of February, 1815, and on the 1st of March landed near the town of Cannes. The first body of troops sent against him broke their ranks at the sight of him, and crowded around him with enthusiasm. Ney, who had volunteered to bring Napoleon a prisoner to Paris, was sent against him with an army corps, but both the marshal and his troops were conquered by the sight of the emperor and joined him. This defection reduced Louis XVIII. to despair, and he fled with his court to Ghent, where he remained until the final overthrow of the emperor. Napoleon meanwhile advanced rapidly by way of Lyons and Auxerre, his forces growing larger each day. On the 20th of March he entered Paris in triumph, and was escorted to the Tuileries amidst an enthusiasm which defies description. This success had been achieved without firing a shot or spilling a drop of French blood.

When the first burst of enthusiasm was over and Napoleon had leisure to examine his position, he found himself obliged to make great sacrifices in order to conciliate

the liberal party of the French people, which plainly intimated to him that he could reign in the future only as a constitutional sovereign, as far as the nation was concerned, and on the 21st of April he proclaimed a new imperial system, which went far beyond the charter of Louis XVIII. in its concessions to the people. But, however he might conciliate the people, the emperor was well aware that his tenure of power depended solely upon the issue of his struggle with combined Europe. He labored incessantly day and night in the organization of his army, and by the 1st of June he had collected and equipped a force of 217,000 effective troops of the line, and 150,000 national guards. He subsequently declared that had he been able to postpone the commencement of the war for three months longer, he would have had 800,000 men for the defence of France, "a wall of brass which no earthly power would have been able to break through." The English and Prussian armies, however, under Wellington and Blucher, were threatening the Belgian frontier, and the emperor resolved to attack them at once and endeavor to crush them before the Austrian and Russian armies should enter France.

On the 14th of June the French army crossed the Belgian frontier. It was 115,000 strong, and was commanded by Napoleon in person. The plan of the emperor was to attack the Prussians, who constituted the left of the allied line, while Ney, with 45,000 men, should hold Wellington in check, and prevent him from joining Blucher. Having defeated the Prussians, he would reinforce Ney, and crush the English army. This plan was betrayed to Blucher by General Bourmont, who deserted to the Prussians with his staff on the night of the 14th. On the 15th the emperor with the main army attacked the Prussians, 80,000 strong, at Ligny, and Ney was ordered to make himself master of Le Quatre Bras, after which he was to assail the rear of the Prussian army. The battle at Ligny began at four o'clock in the afternoon, and lasted until a late hour in the night, when the Prussians were driven from their positions with a loss of 15,000 men. The loss of the French was about 10,000 men. In the meantime the advance guard of Wellington's army had occupied Quatre Bras, and Ney's attack on the afternoon of the 16th was repulsed, with a loss to him of 4,000 men. This repulse put an end to

Napoleon's hope of interposing his army between the English and Prussians and beating them in detail. Blucher, however, having fallen back upon Wavre, Wellington, in order to maintain his communications with him, was obliged to fall back from Quatre Bras. He occupied a previously selected position near the village of Waterloo, by which he covered Brussels and maintained his communications with Blucher unimpaired.

On the 18th of June Napoleon attacked the British army at Waterloo. His troops never displayed more splendid valor than on this fatal day, but the English held their positions with a grim tenacity that baffled every effort of the French. Late in the day the Prussian army under Blucher began to arrive on the field, but the result of the battle had been decided before their arrival. Napoleon's last effort was made about seven o'clock in the evening, when the imperial guard was hurled against the English centre. It was broken and driven back in confusion by the British guards, and Wellington, profiting by this success, advanced his whole army and drove the French line back in utter demoralization. The emperor, upon witnessing this disaster, exclaimed: "All is lost!" and turning his horse left the field at a gallop. The Prussians took up the pursuit, and continued it with savage fury, taking no prisoners. The French loss at Waterloo was over 37,000 killed, wounded and prisoners.

Napoleon left to Marshal Soult the task of rallying the fugitives of his army, and hastened to Paris with all speed, reaching there on the morning of the 21st in advance of the news of the disaster of Waterloo. It was at once made known, and the capital was thrown into an agony of terror. The emperor abdicated his throne a second time and proclaimed his son his successor as Napoleon II. The assembly, without recognizing the imperial dignity of Napoleon II., sent a commission to treat for peace with the allies. They refused to enter upon any negotiations unless "Bonaparte" should be surrendered to them as a guarantee against his ever again disturbing the peace of Europe. The victorious armies advanced rapidly, and on the 6th of July entered Paris a second time. Louis XVIII. was reinstated upon his throne.

In the meantime Napoleon had fled to the coast, intending to take refuge in the United States. Finding it impossible to

include the vigilance of the British cruisers, he determined to throw himself upon the generosity of the British nation. On the 14th of July he despatched General Gourgaud with a letter to the prince regent (afterwards George IV.), announcing that, his political career being ended, he came, "like Themistocles, to throw himself on the hospitality of the British people, claiming the protection of their laws." On the 15th he embarked at Rochefort with his suite on board the line-of-battle ship *Bellerophon*, and sailed for England, landing at Torbay on the 24th. Napoleon now found to his cost that he had appealed to a quality which the prince regent did not possess. He was not even allowed to land, and he found that his enemies having him in their power, were determined to hold him fast, caring nothing for the infamy of such a course. After being detained on board the *Bellerophon* for several weeks, he was transferred to the *Northumberland*, the flag-ship of Sir George Cockburn, and conveyed to St. Helena, which he reached on the 16th of October. He was accompanied by a small retinue of devoted friends, who remained faithful to him to the last.

In the meantime Louis XVIII. made his second entry into Paris on the 8th of July, the day after the occupation of the city by the allies. He was received with marked coldness by the citizens. Paris was treated by the allies as a conquered city. Blucher was with difficulty prevented from blowing up the Pont de Jena and the Vendôme Column. The works of art of which Napoleon had deprived the various nations of Europe were restored to their rightful owners. The immense armies of the allies were quartered in the various parts of the kingdom, and occupied nearly the whole of the French territory. All who had held office during the "Hundred Days"—the period between Napoleon's return from Elba and the battle of Waterloo—were dismissed from the employment of the state.

CHAPTER X.

FROM THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO TO THE PRESENT TIME.

The Second Treaty of Paris—Execution of Marshal Ney—Treaty of Vienna—The Holy Alliance—Dissolution of the Chamber—Assassination of the Duke of Berry—Birth of the Duke of Bordeaux—Death of Napoleon—Insurrections in Spain and Naples—A French Army Restores the Rule of the Bourbons in Spain—Death of Louis XVIII.—



NAPOLEON AFTER THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO.

Charles X. King—Reactionary Measures—The National Guard Disbanded—Success of the Liberal Party in the Elections—Capture of Algiers—The Polignac Ministry—The *Ordonnances* of the 25th of July—The Revolution of 1830—Capture of the Tuileries—Flight of Charles X.—The Duke of Orleans Becomes King as Louis Philippe I.—The Constitutional Monarchy—The Revolution in Belgium—The Belgian Kingdom Established—Attempt to Assassinate Louis Philippe—MM. Thiers and Guizot—Prince Louis Napoleon at Strasburg—France Intervenes Between Turkey and Egypt—The Quadruple Treaty—Fortification of Paris—Removal of the Remains of Napoleon I. to France—The Spanish Marriages—Death of the Duke of Orleans—Conquest of Algeria—The Session of 1847—Revolution of 1848—The Republic Proclaimed—Flight of the Royal Family to England—The Provisional Government—Its Troubles with the Socialists—Insurrection of June, 1848—It is Suppressed—Cavaignac Dictator—The New Constitution—Louis Napoleon Elected President of the Republic—The French Expedition to Rome—Dissensions in the National Assembly—The Coup d'État of December, 1851—Establishment of the Second Empire—Napoleon III. Emperor—His Marriage—Birth of the Prince Imperial—Alliance with England—The Crimean War—Capture of Sevastopol—Napoleon III. Espouses the Cause of Italy—The Italian War of 1859—Battles of Magenta and Solferino—Peace of Villafranca—France Acquires Savoy and Nice—The Mexican War—Failure of the French—Death of Maximilian—The Plebiscité—The Quarrel with Prussia—The War with Germany—Disasters of the French—Battle of Sedan—Napoleon III. a Prisoner—Revolution in Paris—Fall of the Empire—Investment of Paris—Mission of M. Thiers—Siege of Paris—Close of the War—The Republic—M. Thiers President—The Revolt of the Commune—Second Siege and Capture of Paris—Treaty of Frankfurt.

N On the 20th of November, 1815, the second treaty of Paris was signed between Louis XVIII. and the allies. It was humiliating beyond precedent. An indemnity of 700,000,000 francs was exacted of France for the expenses of the war, besides a still larger sum demanded as compensation to the allies for the occupation of their territory by the French troops. France was reduced to her limits of 1790, and in order to prevent her from again engaging in war, her entire frontier was to be occupied for five years by a force of 150,000 troops from the allied armies, to be commanded by a general selected by the allies; the whole to be paid and supported by France. This occupation was subsequently reduced to three years, and was terminated in the autumn of 1818. To strike terror to the Bonapartists, General Labédoyère, a devoted friend of Napoleon, and Marshal Ney were shot. In the autumn of 1815, Murat, ex-King of Naples, was captured in an effort to recover his throne, and was shot on the 14th of October at Naples.

The work of the Congress of Vienna had been continued during the Hundred Days, as has been related. The treaty of Vienna was signed in June. For its terms the reader is referred to the German history of this period. Not content with this treaty, the Emperor of Russia induced the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia to join him in a league known as the Holy Alliance, which, though nominally designed to enable them "to remain united in the bonds of true and indissoluble brotherly love; to govern their subjects as parents; to maintain religion, peace, and justice," was really intended to make it possible for them, by combining their forces, to compel the submission of all Europe to absolutism in government, and to suppress all movements in favor of popular liberty.

In September, 1816, the king dissolved the chamber of deputies, the reactionary tendencies of which had disgusted even this believer in absolutism. He announced his intention to govern the kingdom in strict accordance with the principles of the constitution, and the elections held a month later resulted in the choice of the candidates of the moderate or constitutional party, which gave the government its hearty support.

On the night of the 13th of February, 1820, the Duke of Berry, the nephew of the king and the second son of the Count of Artois, was assassinated as he was leaving the opera. The assassin was moved to his horrid deed by his hatred of the Bourbons, and the city was rife with rumors of a conspiracy for the destruction of all the royal family. Under the influence of the excitement of these rumors the king yielded to the demands of his brother, the Count of Artois, and the extreme royalist party, and dismissed his moderate ministry. On the 29th of September, 1820, the widowed Duchess of Berry gave birth to a son, who received the title of Duke of Bordeaux. This event was hailed with joy by the partisans of the Bourbons.

On the 5th of May, 1821, the dethroned Emperor Napoleon died at St. Helena, after a captivity of nearly six years, in the fifty-second year of his age. His death was sincerely mourned by the mass of the French people, who regarded him as a martyr to the cause of France.

In 1820 insurrections, caused by the misgovernment of the Bourbons, broke out in Spain and Naples. Ferdinand VII.,

finding it impossible to put down the outbreak, accepted the constitution of 1812 for Spain, and in Naples the king was obliged to accept a constitution modelled upon that of Spain. The members of the Holy Alliance were resolved that this effort to establish constitutional government in these kingdoms should not go unpunished. Austria assumed the task of restoring absolutism in Italy; with what success we have seen.

aside the charter, and by means of intimidation, bribery, and corruption to secure at the elections of 1824 a chamber of deputies which contained only nineteen liberal members.

On the 16th of September, 1824, Louis XVIII. died. He was succeeded by his brother, the Count of Artois, who ascended the throne as Charles X. He was a true Bourbon; ignorant, narrow-minded, a firm



DEATH OF NAPOLEON.

A meeting of the sovereigns of the Holy Alliance was held at Verona, and France was selected to restore the absolute rule of Ferdinand of Spain. In the spring of 1823 an army of 100,000 French troops entered Spain, and putting down the resistance of the Spaniards, re-established Ferdinand in the exercise of the most odious tyranny in Europe.

The success of the army in Spain emboldened the French government to set

believer in absolute rule, and thoroughly under the influence of the Jesuits. In his disposition he was frank and cordial, and his friends were warmly attached to him. He was crowned in the Cathedral of Rheims, on the 29th of May, 1825, and the ancient ceremonial of the Middle Ages was revived in all its details for this occasion. Charles had been the first to emigrate from France in 1790, at the outbreak of the Revolution. He returned to it in 1814 with the same

ideas and prejudices he had taken away with him. The world had moved far beyond him in the thirty-five years which had rolled by since he fled from his country.

The reactionary tendencies of the new government alarmed and angered the nation. The first evidence of this feeling was given at a review of the national guard in the spring of 1827, when the troops, upon passing the king, shouted, "Down with the ministers! Down with the Jesuits!" The king at once disbanded the national guard of Paris, but unfortunately for himself left them in possession of their arms. In the elections of 1827 an overwhelming majority against the government was returned to the chamber. The king was obliged to dismiss his ministers and to summon a more liberal cabinet. One of the first acts of the new ministry was to remove the system of public education from the control of the Jesuits. This was a very popular measure with the nation, but it gave great offence to the king, who, on the 8th of August, 1829, dismissed the ministers and appointed a new cabinet, with Prince Polignac at its head. The appointment of this ministry—every member of which was noted for his devotion to absolutism—was regarded by the people as a declaration of war on the part of the king against the charter and all the liberties of Frenchmen. The chamber of deputies plainly told the king that the new ministers did not enjoy the confidence of the country, and was dissolved by the angry sovereign. The deputies were re-elected by the people, and the new chamber was more than ever in the hands of the opposition.

While this struggle had been going on in France, a foreign dispute had been engaging the attention of the government. The Dey of Algiers had robbed the French merchants residing in his dominions of large sums, and had insulted the French consul upon his demanding redress. In the summer of 1829 an expedition under the command of General Bourmont, the minister of war, was despatched to Algiers to obtain redress by force of arms. It landed before that city, carried its defences by assault, and compelled the dey to surrender. Algiers was at once occupied by the French troops, who were enriched with the spoils of the city.

As soon as he learned of the success of the liberals in the elections of 1830, Charles X. determined to compel the triumph of his

absolute power by employing a strained interpretation of an article of the constitution which authorized the sovereign "to make regulations and decrees necessary for the execution of the laws and the safety of the state." By virtue of this clause he assumed the right to alter and abrogate some of the most essential provisions of the charter. On the 25th of July he issued five ordinances, which appeared in the *Moniteur* of the 26th. The first of these suspended the liberty of the press; the second dissolved the newly elected chamber of deputies; the third radically changed the system of election; the fourth convoked the chambers for the 28th of September following; and the fifth appointed some ultra royalists to the council of state.

The appearance of these ordinances threw Paris into a tumult. The national guard took up arms, with the veteran Lafayette at their head; the streets were barricaded; the tricolor was displayed in the place of the flag of the Bourbons; and the royal troops were attacked by the citizens. The garrison of Paris was commanded by Marshal Marmont, but was insufficient to put down the populace, though it obtained some important successes. At length the troops began to fraternize with the people. The Louvre and Tuileries were carried by the populace, and the troops were compelled to retreat from Paris. Charles X. fled from St. Cloud to Rambouillet, where, hopeless of regaining his throne, he abdicated it in favor of his grandson, the Duke of Bordeaux. He then quitted the kingdom and took refuge in England.

In the meantime a number of leading citizens of Paris, anxious to keep the revolution within bounds, had prevailed on the Duke of Orleans, the cousin of Charles X., who was known to possess liberal opinions, to assume the control of the government as lieutenant-general of the kingdom. He convoked the two chambers for the 3d of August, and those bodies upon assembling declared the throne vacant by the abdication of the elder branch of the house of Bourbon, and elected Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, "King of the French." Louis Philippe accepted the crown, and declared his intention to reign as a constitutional sovereign. On the 9th of August he took an oath to maintain the charter as amended by the chambers in the interests of popular liberty, and ascended the throne in the presence of the great officers of the state.

Absolutism was dead in France; the will of the people was supreme.

The new king was the son of the notorious "Philippe Egalité," Duke of Orleans, who was beheaded during the French Revolution, and was in his forty-seventh year. He was sincere in his professions of liberality so long as his principles did not conflict with his interests; but he thoroughly understood the art of accommodating himself to

home and peace with foreign powers. In the internal administration of the kingdom the king sought honestly to adhere to the charter. Two legislative chambers secured the rights of the people, and the elections were comparatively free. The press was nominally unshackled, but the government continued to exercise a mild censorship over it. The friendship of foreign powers, especially of England, was cultivated, and



LOUIS PHILIPPE.

circumstances. He did not find his new position a pleasant one, for the legitimists, as the partisans of the elder branch of the Bourbon family, who supported the Duke of Bordeaux, were called, denounced him as a usurper and a traitor to his race; while the Bonapartists declared that he had been made king by a clique in opposition to the will of the people.

The leading principles of Louis Philippe's reign were constitutional government at

France scrupulously refrained from engaging in the affairs of any European country, except where her own interests were directly concerned. The internal order of the kingdom was seriously disturbed by several popular outbreaks during the first years of the new reign.

The revolution of 1830 affected the rest of Europe profoundly. In Italy, Germany, and Poland there were outbreaks of greater or less magnitude. Belgium had never

been satisfied with its compulsory union with Holland in 1815, and now rose in general insurrection against the Dutch government. The Dutch troops were driven out of Brussels on the 23d of September, after a stubborn fight, and took refuge in the fortress of Antwerp. The Belgian provinces organized a revolutionary congress, which now appealed to the five great powers of Europe to protect Belgium against Holland, and King William at the same time made an appeal to the same powers to compel the Belgians to submit to his authority. On the 20th of December, 1830, the five powers signed a protocol recognizing and guaranteeing the independence of Belgium as a separate kingdom, the crown of which was bestowed upon Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, the widowed husband of the Princess Charlotte of England. In June, 1831, Leopold was proclaimed king by the Belgian government, and in the course of the following year married the Princess Louisa, the eldest daughter of King Louis Philippe. The King of Holland refused to submit to the decision of the great powers, and declined to evacuate Antwerp, which was held by a garrison of 4,000 Dutch troops under General Chassé. He also retained the forts on the Scheldt. A treaty was signed between France and England for the assistance of the Belgians. A French army of 50,000 men entered Belgium in November and laid siege to Antwerp, which, after a memorable defence, was forced to surrender on the 23d of December. The Dutch king now withdrew his troops from Belgium, and the French army at once returned to its own country.

An attempt was made in the winter of 1831 to excite a legitimist uprising in La Vendée. It was headed by the Duchess of Berri, the mother of the Duke of Bordeaux, who was at length captured and imprisoned by the government. While in prison she gave birth to a daughter, and was obliged to confess a secret marriage to an Italian nobleman. She was at once allowed to withdraw to Sicily amid the general ridicule of the public, and thus, happily for France, ended the first attempt to restore Henry V. to the throne of his fathers.

The internal disturbances, to which we have referred, were the work of the extreme republicans, or socialists. They gave the government a great deal of trouble, and after a sanguinary outbreak at Lyons,

which was suppressed with difficulty, the government caused the prisoners taken in the insurrections to be transported or imprisoned for long terms. This was a severe blow to the secret societies of the socialist party, and was resented by them. On the 28th of July, 1835, one of their number, Fieschi, a native of Corsica, attempted to assassinate the king by means of an infernal machine. The king escaped unhurt. The Duke of Orleans was slightly wounded, but Marshal Mortier, General Lachasse, and twelve other persons were killed outright. Fieschi was captured on the spot, and was guillotined on the 19th of February, 1836.

The ministers of Louis Philippe were naturally chosen from the Orleanist party, which had made him king. Prominent among these were M. Thiers and M. Guizot, men of great abilities and widely different opinions. The former was regarded as the leader of the more liberal wing of the Orleans party; the latter was the avowed champion of the extreme monarchical wing. M. Thiers came into office in the ministry of Marshal Soult in the spring of 1832, as minister of the interior. He betrayed a singular inconsistency throughout his whole political career. When out of office he was the champion of the most liberal opinions; when in office he was as conservative as his great rival, M. Guizot, himself. On the 22d of February, 1836, he became prime minister. Spain was at this time torn by civil war, and M. Thiers was very anxious to intervene in her affairs. The king, however, refused to be guided by his advice, and the ministry resigned after an existence of six months.

On the 13th of November, 1836, Prince Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, the son of Louis and Hortense, and the nephew of the Emperor Napoleon, made an attempt to excite a revolt of the garrison of Strasburg, for the avowed purpose of overthrowing the Orleans monarchy and re-establishing the empire. The troops refused to join him, and he was arrested and sent by way of South America to New York.

In 1839 Mehemet Ali, the Viceroy of Egypt, threw off his allegiance to the sultan and conquered Syria. France, under the guidance of M. Thiers, who was once more prime minister, demanded that Mehemet Ali should be allowed to retain Syria and Egypt. England, on the other hand, insisted on the unconditional surrender of Syria to the sultan, and induced the other

powers to sustain her. The result was that the other four great powers, without communicating their intentions to France, signed a treaty with Turkey, in virtue of which an English, Austrian and Turkish fleet reduced the Syrian ports and compelled Mehemet Ali to withdraw his forces from Syria into Egypt. The matter was settled by assigning Egypt, in independent hereditary possession, to Mehemet Ali, and restoring Syria to the porte.

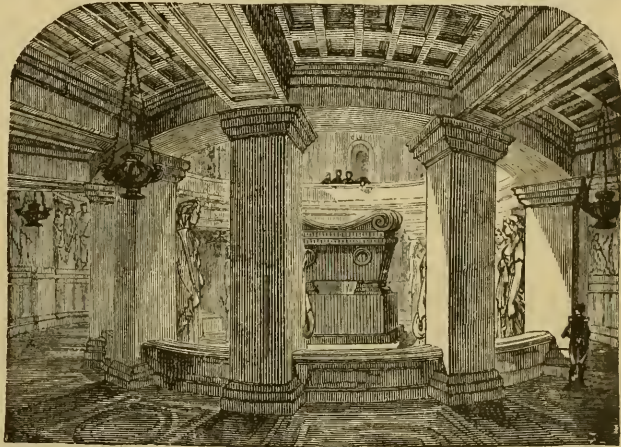
The "Quadruple Treaty" was regarded by the French as an act of treachery on the part of England, and a general desire was expressed for war with that country. The principal results of the excitement were the fortification of Paris with an enciente and a system of detached forts; and the fall of M. Thiers' ministry, which was regarded as responsible for the advantage that had been gained by England. A new ministry, under Marshal Soult, was installed in October, 1840. The guiding spirit of this ministry was M. Guizot. The quarrel with England was settled, and as a peace-offering Great Britain agreed that the remains of the Emperor Napoleon should be removed from St. Helena to France. They were disinterred and conveyed to France by a French squadron, commanded by Prince de Joinville, the son of the king. The squadron reached Cherbourg on the 8th of December, 1840, and the remains were transferred to a smaller vessel and conveyed up the Seine to Paris, where they were interred in the chapel of the Hotel des Invalides with the most imposing ceremonies.

In 1846 the hollow friendship between the French and English governments was broken by the question of the Spanish marriages. Queen Isabella of Spain wanted a husband. The British government wished her to marry Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg. Louis Philippe wished to strengthen his dynasty by a connection with that of Spain, and selected, as the husband of Queen Isabella, her cousin, the weak-minded Don Francisco d'Assis, Duke of Cadiz. This match was warmly opposed by England, but Louis Philippe's policy triumphed, and on the 10th of Octo-

ber, 1846, the Spanish queen married her cousin; and on the same day the Infanta Louise was married to the Duke of Montpensier, Louis Philippe's youngest son. These marriages gave deep offence to Great Britain, and coldness and suspicion marked the relations of France and England from this time until the downfall of Louis Philippe.

On the 13th of July, 1842, the Duke of Orleans, the eldest son of Louis Philippe and the heir to the throne, died from the effects of an accident. He left two sons—the Count de Paris and the Duke de Chartres. The former, who thus became the heir to the throne, was born in 1838.

The war in Algeria, begun in the last reign, was continued through that of Louis



TOMB OF NAPOLEON I.

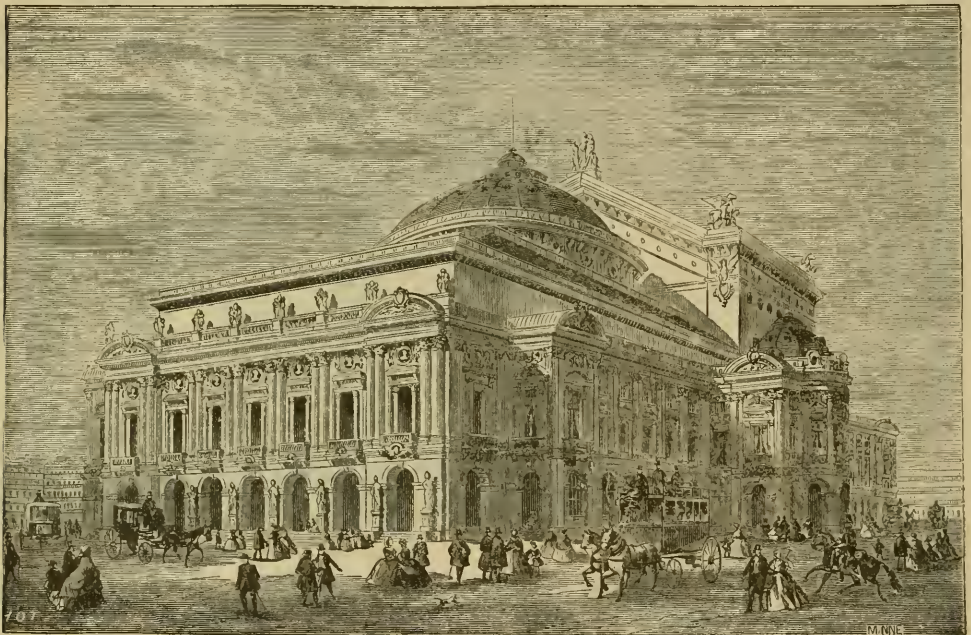
Philippe, and resulted in the conquest of that country by the French. In 1847 the Arab leader, Abd-el-Kader, was captured, and in violation of the pledge of the French commander, was brought to France and imprisoned in the Chateau of Amboise. This brought the resistance of the Arabs to an end.

The harvests of 1846 and 1847 were bad, and these failures were followed by an era of high prices and great distress throughout the kingdom. Wages declined and work was scarce. The king had never been entirely popular with the people, who wished to be rid of the whole Bourbon family. The general discontent at home was increased by the frequent failures in the foreign policy of France. The Spanish marriages, the quadruple treaty, the loss of the English alliance, and other matters,

greatly tended to increase the dislike which the masses felt for the Orleans monarchy. The republicans eagerly fomented this discontent, and the policy of the government, which was growing more conservative every year, greatly simplified their task. In the session of the chambers in 1847 the liberals demanded certain reforms which would enforce more literally the terms of the charter, but the government, under the guidance of M. Guizot, firmly refused to grant their demands.

The liberal members of the chamber now proposed to give a series of "reform banquets" in Paris and the provinces as a

streets of Paris, shouting, "Vive la Réforme!" An army of nearly 60,000 men had been collected by the government in the vicinity of Paris, under the veteran Marshal Bugeaud, but no troops were used that day. On the 23d the national guard was placed under arms, but showed unmistakable sympathy with the people, and prevented the regular troops from dispersing the crowds in the streets. The events of this day opened the king's eyes to the true state of affairs. M. Guizot at once resigned his office, and was succeeded by Count Molé, who proceeded to form a new ministry. It was too late, however, to put down



THE NEW OPERA-HOUSE—PARIS.

means of manifesting the strength of their party. A banquet was arranged to be given in Paris, but was prohibited by the government, and it was determined that it should take place in spite of this prohibition. The government again forbade the banquet. The king and his ministers fancied themselves secure, when in reality the popular discontent had reached such a pitch that it was ready to break out in revolution at any moment. The banquet was abandoned by its projectors, who had accomplished their plan of placing the government in an attitude of hostility to the liberties of the people; but on the 22d of February, 1848, dense crowds filled the

the outbreak by a change of ministry. That night a detachment of troops fired upon a body of rioters which had attacked them, killing a number of citizens. The bodies of the slain were paraded by torchlight through the streets of Paris, and the republicans and socialists at once rose in arms. Barricades were erected, and shouts of "Vive la République!" rose from the throng—cries that had not been heard in France for forty years. Count Molé now declined the task of forming a new ministry, and M. Thiers was intrusted with it. The first act of the new minister was to induce the king to order the troops to withdraw from Paris. Marshal Bugeaud, upon

receiving this order, resigned his command in disgust. This was on the 24th of February. On the same day the troops of the line and the national guard joined the people and marched upon the Tuileries. Louis Philippe, feeling that all was lost, signed his abdication in favor of his grandson, the Count de Paris, and withdrew to St. Cloud. The insurgents, however, paid no attention to this abdication. The Duchess of Orleans, with her little son, appeared in the chamber of deputies and besought them to sustain the claim of her child to his grandfather's throne. The mob broke into the hall at this juncture, and she was compelled to seek safety in flight. The royal family fled to England, where they obtained an asylum. There Louis Philippe died on the 26th of August, 1850, at the age of seventy-seven.

On the 24th of February the republic was proclaimed, and a provisional government, consisting of Lamartine, Dupont de l'Eure, Arago, Ledru-Rollin, Marie, Garnier-Pages, and Crémieux, was installed. There was great danger that the revolution of 1848 would degenerate into a socialist insurrection, which would have plunged France into deeper misery and have drawn upon her the enmity of all Europe. The eloquence of Lamartine secured the adhesion of the populace to the republic. The mob had already sacked the Tuileries, burned the throne, and raised the red flag. Moved by the appeals of Lamartine 100,000 national guards declared for the provisional government. The socialists were compelled to submit, and the better class of citizens, who dreaded a triumph of that party, gave their hearty support to the republic.

The provisional government at once entered upon its duties, and was immediately plunged into a series of the most trying embarrassments. The socialist party insisted that it was the duty of the government to provide work for every citizen willing to labor, and this demand was sustained by the members of the government belonging to that party. The conservative members were forced to yield, and on the 27th of February a decree was issued establishing a system of national workshops, in which all applicants were to be paid by the state fair wages for their work. The workshops were placed under the control of a commission, at the head of which was Louis Blanc. By the beginning of March 40,000 people were employed in the workshops.

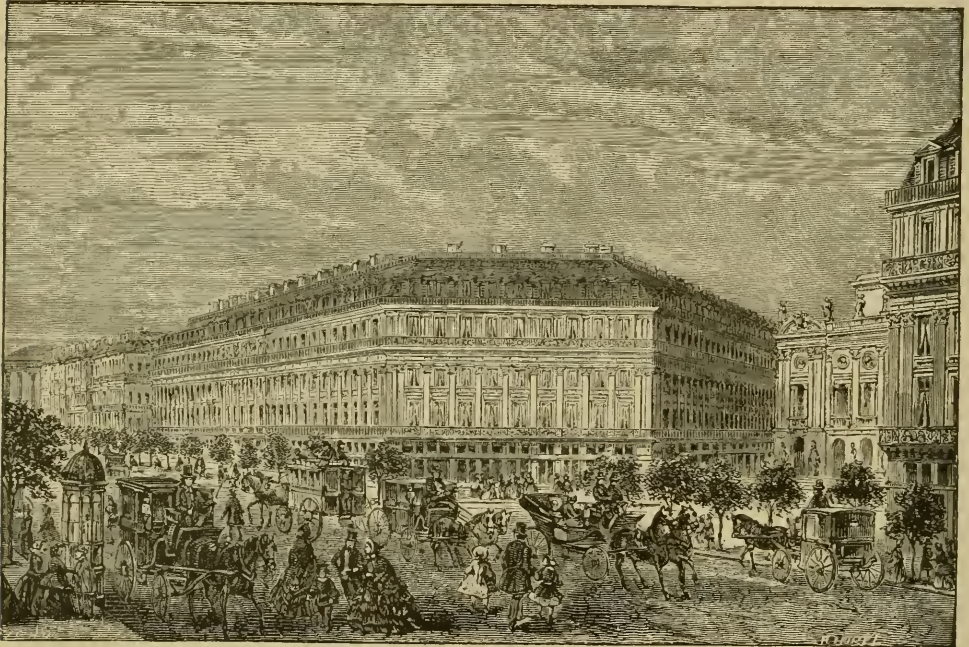
The elections to the new assembly were held on the 27th of April, and a majority of conservative candidates was returned. The assembly met on the 5th of May, and began its career by appointing a supreme executive commission, the members of which were evenly drawn from the conservative and socialist parties. In the early summer of 1848 the national workshops were found to be a costly and ruinous mistake, having cost in about three months the enormous sum of \$2,835,000. On the 22d of June, in the hope of lessening the evil, the government ordered a certain number of workmen to enroll themselves in the army on pain of being refused employment in the national workshops. This decree was bitterly resented by the workingmen, who were deeply imbued with the pernicious doctrines of the socialist party, and on the 22d they took up arms and attacked the troops, intending to overthrow the government. The assembly acted with firmness. General Cavaignac was appointed to the command of the regular troops and the national guard, and was invested with dictatorial powers. The fighting continued until the 28th, when the last barricade of the insurgents was carried. On the 27th the venerable Archbishop of Paris was shot by one of the insurgents as he was passing between the lines in the hope of effecting a restoration of peace. The loss of life was enormous in these conflicts, and the power of the socialists was broken for the time. The insurrection being crushed, Cavaignac surrendered his dictatorship, and was appointed president of the council, with the right of naming his ministers. On the 4th of July he issued a decree closing the national workshops.

On the 12th of November the constitution of the republic was formally proclaimed. The executive authority was intrusted to a chief magistrate bearing the title of president of the republic. He was to be chosen for four years, and was not eligible for re-election until a period of four years after his term of office had expired. The legislative power was vested in a single chamber of 750 members.

A new element now entered into the politics of the republic. Prince Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, whose attempt at revolution at Strasburg we have related, made a second attempt, at Boulogne, in 1840. He was captured, and sentenced by the court of peers to imprisonment for life in the Castle

of Ham. In May, 1846, he made his escape in the disguise of a workman, and sought refuge in England. He was now elected to the assembly from the department of the Seine. The government declared its intention to prevent his return to France, and he resigned his seat. A new election was ordered, and he was returned by five different departments. This decided manifestation of the popular will induced the government to withdraw its opposition. Louis Napoleon then crossed the channel, and on the 26th of September took his seat

The revolutionary movements in Italy, which we have related elsewhere, now occurred. The pope, driven from Rome, appealed to France for assistance. France had long been jealous of the supremacy of Austria in Italy, and President Bonaparte resolved to take advantage of this occasion to intervene in the affairs of that country. An expedition, under General Oudinot, was despatched to Rome in the spring of 1849, as has been related. The city of Rome was captured, the republic was overthrown, and the authority of the pope re-



THE GRAND HOTEL.—PARIS.

as a member for the department of the Seine. His name aroused the greatest enthusiasm among the French people, and without having done anything to deserve it, he found himself the most popular man in France. The cause of his popularity lay in the fact that he was the heir of the great emperor. Profiting by this popularity he announced himself a candidate for the presidency of the republic, and at the election on the 10th of December, 1848, was chosen president by a vote of 5,500,000 out of a total vote of 7,326,000, receiving a large majority over General Cavaignac and all his other competitors combined. On the 20th of December he entered upon the duties of his office, and took up his official residence at the palace of the Elysée.

stored. A French garrison was established in Rome and was maintained there for twenty years.

The national assembly was divided into a number of parties. One of these supported the president; another was devoted to the interests of the legitimists; a third to those of the Orleans family; and a fourth consisted of the socialist deputies. With the exception of the first all of these were hostile to the president. The legitimist and Orleanist parties were plotting for the overthrow of the republic and the restoration of the monarchy; the socialists were busy working for the downfall of the republic and the inauguration of the reign of communism. These parties hated each other intensely, and were united only in

their enmity to the president. They wished to overthrow him first, and then settle their quarrels among themselves. In this unhappy state of affairs the hopes of the nation rested upon the president. Seeing that the fall of the republic was inevitable, and knowing that neither of the contending parties possessed the confidence or represented the wishes of the French people, Louis Napoleon resolved to overthrow them all, seize the entire government, and appeal to the people to sustain him. His plans were laid with skill and carried out with boldness and decision.

On the night of December 1st, 1851, the leading members of the assembly were arrested, and the government printing-office was occupied by troops. Decrees and proclamations were struck off during the night for use on the morrow. The army was devoted to the president and readily aided him in carrying out this *Coup d'Etat*. On the morning of December the 2d the Parisians were astonished by proclamations from the president announcing that the national assembly was dissolved; that universal suffrage was restored; that a general election was ordered for the 14th of December; that Paris and the department of the Seine were placed under martial law. Another decree gave the names of the new ministry, stated that the president would submit to the suffrages of the people a new constitution containing the following provisions: a responsible chief magistrate was to be chosen for ten years; the ministers were to be responsible to the president *alone*; a council of state was to originate laws, which were to be discussed and voted by a legislative chamber; and a senate was to be created, whose duty it should be to watch over the constitution and prevent infraction of it. This constitution was submitted to the people on the 20th of December, and was ratified by the votes of 7,500,000 Frenchmen. With the inauguration of the new government personal rule was re-established, and the experiment of constitutional government in France came to an end. The majority of the French people were satisfied with the change.

In the meantime, however, the royalists and republicans of Paris, recovering from their surprise, took up arms against the president. An army of 48,000 men was directed against them on the 2d and 3d of December, and their resistance was soon put down. On the 4th the troops, in a

sudden and causeless panic, fired upon a crowd of unoffending citizens, killing large numbers of them. Many prisoners were taken by the troops from the insurgents. These were put to death in crowds in the prisons, and 26,500 persons were banished to Cayenne.

It had been foreseen from the first that the president would not rest satisfied with the extension of his term of office. He was following in the footsteps of his uncle, the great emperor, whose heir he was, and the restoration of the empire was the end of his schemes. At a grand banquet given to him at Bordeaux on the 9th of October, 1852, the president foreshadowed his intentions in his memorable utterance, "The Empire is Peace." On the 21st of November the electors were called upon to vote upon a *plebiscite* declaring Louis Napoleon Bonaparte hereditary Emperor of the French, with the right of regulating the order of succession to the throne in his family. It was accepted by 7,824,189 suffrages, to 253,145 against it. On the 2d of December, 1852, the newly elected sovereign, who took the title of "Napoleon III., Emperor of the French," made his solemn entry into Paris. On the 29th of January, 1853, he married Eugénie Marie de Guzman, Countess of Teba, a lady of great beauty, and descended from one of the most illustrious families of Spain. By her he had one son, Napoleon Eugène Louis, born March 16th, 1856.

The first effort of the new emperor was to gain the moral support which would result from an alliance with Great Britain. In order to effect this alliance he adopted the English policy concerning the Eastern question. Early in 1853 the Czar of Russia, believing that the Turkish empire in Europe was hastening to its fall, made secret overtures to the British government to join him in a division of the dominions of the sultan. The proposals were rejected, and England gladly availed herself of the proffered alliance of France. Matters were not long in coming to a crisis. The Emperor Nicholas collected a large fleet and army at Sevastopol, and sent Prince Menschikoff to Constantinople to demand of the sultan larger powers of control over the holy places of Syria and Palestine, and a protectorate over all the Greek Christians within the Turkish dominions. This would have made him the sovereign of the majority of the sultan's subjects. A few weeks later



BATTLE OF THE ALMA.

the Russian armies occupied the Turkish provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia. The Turkish government was panic-stricken, and but for the firmness of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, the British ambassador, who assured the sultan of the support of his government, would have yielded to the Russian demand. He encouraged the sultan to resist the unreasonable demands of the czar, and in the meantime a congress of the plenipotentiaries of Austria, Prussia, France, and England met at Vienna, and endeavored to settle the difficulty by negotiations. Their efforts failing, the sultan declared war against Russia in October, 1853. The Turkish army under Omar Pasha at once crossed the Danube, and defeated the Russians at Oltenitza. In January, 1854, the Russians were repulsed in a four days' assault upon the Turkish lines at Kalafat, and retreated. On the 30th of November, 1853, a Russian fleet from Sevastopol made a descent upon Sinope, destroyed a Turkish squadron in the harbor, and bombarded the town, killing 4,000 people.

The French and English governments now demanded that the czar should withdraw his troops from the Turkish territory. Nicholas refused to answer this note, which informed him that his failure to reply would be taken as a declaration of war. In March, 1854, France and England entered into a close alliance with each other and with Turkey, and declared war against Russia. The Russian army under Prince Paskiewitch laid siege to Silistria, in April, but the Turks defended the place with such vigor that the siege was raised in about a month. A little later the Russians were defeated by the Turks at Giurgevo, and abandoned the Danubian provinces and retreated into their own country.

By this retreat the cause of the intervention of France and England was removed. They resolved, however, to break the power of Russia in the Black Sea by destroying the fortifications of the great stronghold of Sevastopol, the chief town of the Crimea. A combined expedition was despatched to the Crimea, and the troops were landed near the mouth of the river Alma. The next day, September 20th, 1854, the Russian position on the heights above that stream was stormed and carried after a gallant resistance. The allies now advanced upon Sevastopol, the fleet following along the coast, and occupied the port of

Balaklava. Sevastopol was immediately invested. The town was defended by the Russian General Todleben, and its resistance of nearly a year is one of the most memorable events in history. The siege was in reality a blockade, as the Russians were able during the whole time to maintain communication with their country north of the city. They made several vigorous attempts to break up the investment. On the 25th of October, 1854, the battle of Balaklava was fought for this purpose. It was made memorable by a heroic but fruitless charge of the English "Light Brigade" of cavalry upon the Russian artillery. On the 5th of November the Russians hurled a heavy force upon the English lines at Inkerman, but were held in check until the arrival of a reinforcement of French troops made the victory sure for the allies. Still later, on the 16th of August, 1855, the Russians made their last attempt in the stubbornly fought battle of the Tchernaya, to raise the siege, but were repulsed. Sardinia had by this time joined the alliance of France and England, as has been related, and the Piedmontese troops won great credit in this last battle. On the 8th of September, 1855, the French stormed and carried the Malakoff Tower, the key to the Russian defences, and the English at the same time carried the important work of the Great Redan. These successes cost the allies heavily, but resulted in the evacuation of Sevastopol by the Russians. The city was occupied by the allies, the Russians retiring to the forts north of the harbor.

In the meantime the English and French fleets had entered the Baltic and Polar Seas, and had inflicted considerable loss upon the Russians in those quarters. Previous to the fall of Sevastopol a British fleet entered the Sea of Azov, and captured Kertch and Venikale.

These disasters of Russia were partly atoned for by the success of her forces in the Trans-Caucasian provinces. Kars was taken by the Russian army after a heroic resistance, and other conquests of importance were made.

Austria, having ends of her own to serve, offered her mediation in the winter of 1855, and through her exertions the preliminaries of a peace were signed at St. Petersburg near the close of 1855, and on the 30th of March, 1856, the treaty of Paris was signed by the plenipotentiaries of France, Great

Britain, Russia, Sardinia, and Turkey. Turkey was recognized as a member of the European system of states, and the integrity of her dominions was guaranteed. All conquests made during the war were restored to their rightful owners; the Black Sea and the Danube were made free to the commerce of the world, but the former was closed to ships of war. Servia, under the rule of a native prince, was erected into a separate principality, owning a sort of allegiance to

cretely encouraged by Napoleon III. to persist in her resistance to Austria, and emboldened by this powerful aid ventured to strike the blow for the unity of Italy.

In April, 1859, the war between Austria and Sardinia began. France at once declared war against Austria, and sent a powerful army to the aid of Italy. The Emperor Napoleon accompanied this army, leaving the regency during his absence to the empress. The events of the Italian war



BOMBARDMENT OF SVEABORG.

the sultan, and was placed under the protection of the great powers.

The successful close of the Crimean war greatly increased the importance of France in European affairs, and encouraged the Emperor Napoleon to attempt a still more daring enterprise.

We have already related the reasons which induced Sardinia to seek the alliance of France and England. The congress of Paris was officially informed of the oppression of Italy by Austria, and that body expressed its disapprobation of the existing state of affairs in Italy. Sardinia was se-

have been related, and need not be repeated here. Napoleon III. was severely censured for stopping short of his promise to free Venetia. His reasons have been given in the account of the treaty of Villafranca, and it is difficult to see how he could have acted otherwise than as he did without perilling all that had been won for Italy. He remained the firm friend of Italy during the troubled period which followed the war, and it was the conviction on the part of the powers unfriendly to Italy that France would resent any interference with her, that induced them to leave her in peace, and

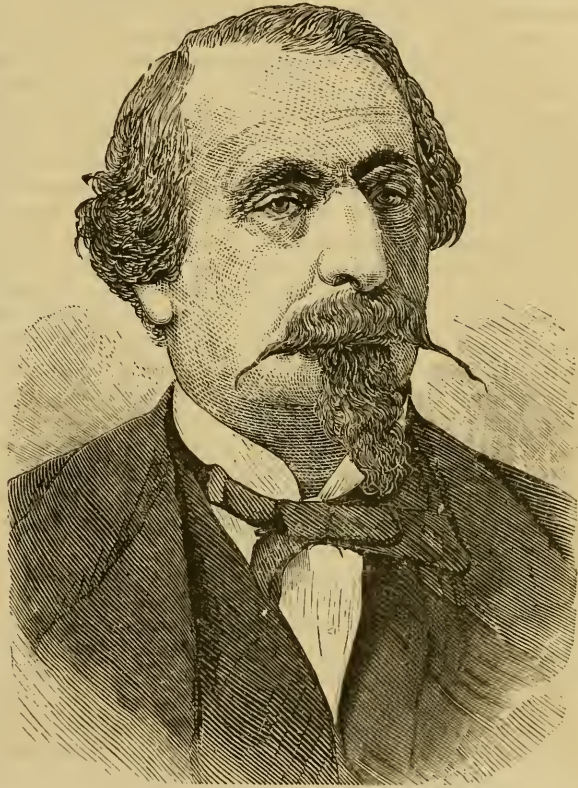
allow the kingdom of Italy to be formed. As the price of her assistance France demanded of Sardinia the cession of Savoy and Nice. The question was submitted to the people of those provinces, who decided it by large majorities in favor of annexation to France, and in April, 1860, Savoy and Nice became a part of the French empire.

The Mexican republic was debtor to certain citizens of France, England, and Spain, and resisted every effort of those powers to collect their claims. The debt to these three powers was about \$73,000,000, of which \$263,490 were due to France. Finding it impossible to collect their claims by negotiation, the three governments in 1861 arranged a joint expedition to Mexico, to compel her to make provision for payment. France from the first determined to make this expedition the means of acquiring a footing in Mexico, which should lead to the conquest of that country, and the establishment of a Latin empire in America. The scheme was in reality a revival in another form of the old French dream of a great American dominion. The expedition consisted of eighty-one vessels, carrying 1,611 guns and 27,911 sailors and troops. It reached Vera Cruz in December, 1861. The city and its defences were evacuated by the Mexicans, and were occupied by the Spanish troops. In the early part of the year 1862 England and Spain, having become convinced of the designs of France, arranged their difficulties with Mexico by the convention of Solidad, signed on the 15th of February, and in April withdrew their forces from the expedition.

Left alone, France reinforced her army, and placed it under command of General Forey. During the remainder of the year 1862 the French were put to great exertions to hold their own against the Mexicans. In March, 1863, having been reinforced from France, General Forey laid siege to Puebla, which was defended with great gallantry by the Mexicans, and captured it on the 18th of May, after a siege of two months. The Mexicans had based their hopes of

saving the capital upon the defence of Puebla, and made no effort to defend the city of Mexico, which was entered by the French army on the 10th of June, 1863.

The Emperor Napoleon now proceeded to carry his designs respecting Mexico into execution. A council of notables was summoned, and under a controlling French influence declared in favor of the abolition of the republic, and the establishment of a hereditary empire as the best form of government for the country. The notables



NAPOLÉON III.

subsequently chose the Archduke Maximilian, the brother of the Emperor of Austria, to be Emperor of Mexico. These acts were submitted to the vote of the Mexican people, who, under the intimidation of the French, ratified them. The Archduke Maximilian accepted the Mexican crown, and with the Archduchess Carlotta entered the city of Mexico in June, 1864. He endeavored to establish a good government in Mexico, but his efforts were thwarted by a large body of the Mexican people, who refused to sanction the destruction of the re-

public, which had been the work of the French and not of the nation. Under the leadership of President Juarez, Monterey became the capital of the republic, and the centre of a vigorous resistance to Maximilian and the French. War went on with scarcely any cessation between the imperialists and republicans.

In 1866, the civil war in the United States being ended, the American government, which had viewed the course of France in Mexico with avowed displeasure, demanded of the Emperor Napoleon the withdrawal of his troops from Mexico. After some hesitation Napoleon consented to comply with this demand, and the withdrawal of the French troops was begun towards the close of 1866. The last of the French embarked for Europe in March, 1867. Napoleon, well aware that the Mexican empire must fall when left to its own resources, advised Maximilian to seek his own safety by abdicating his crown. The high-souled emperor, however, refused to abandon the Mexican leaders who had risked their lives for his cause, and continued the war in the hope of obtaining a favorable settlement for them. He was overmatched, however, and was finally besieged in Queretaro by the republican forces. The town was betrayed to Juarez by General Lopez, the commandant appointed by Maximilian, and the unfortunate emperor was captured. On the 19th of June he was shot, together with two Mexican generals in his service, by order of President Juarez. So ended the ill-starred Mexican empire, and the dream of French dominion on the American continent. The Emperor Napoleon was severely censured by the world for not making an effort to save Maximilian.

The reverses of Austria in the "Seven Weeks' War" in 1866 compelled her to abandon Venetia, which province was ceded by her to the Emperor Napoleon, to be by him transferred to Italy. The transfer was accomplished in the summer of 1866.

Alarmed by the rapid increase of the power of Prussia, the Emperor Napoleon, through M. Benedetti, his minister at Berlin, demanded the transfer to France of the territory on the left bank of the Rhine as a compensation to France for the great growth of the Prussian power. Count Bismarck met the demand with firmness, and immediately pronounced it "inadmissible." It was at once withdrawn. France

then proposed to Prussia a scheme for the annexation of Belgium to France, and declared that if Prussia would support her in it, she in her turn would support Prussia in the subjection of south Germany to the rule of that power. Bismarck gave no definite answer to this proposition, but laid Count Benedetti's draft of the proposed treaty among the Prussian archives. The Emperor Napoleon then attempted to purchase the duchy of Luxembourg from Holland. The Dutch king, who was greatly in need of money, was anxious to sell, but the scheme was foiled by Bismarck, who claimed Luxembourg as a part of the old German Confederation, and garrisoned it with Prussian troops. The North German Confederation protested against the sale, and the transaction was discontinued. These diplomatic defeats seriously damaged the prestige of France, which had held the first place in Europe since the close of the Italian war of 1859. A considerable party in France was anxious to go to war with Prussia, but the emperor wisely refused to comply with their demand. The French army was inferior to that of Prussia, and had not yet adopted the breech-loading gun, without which it would have been folly to attack a power as well equipped as Prussia. As it was believed that a struggle with Prussia was inevitable, the work of reorganizing the French army was pushed forward with vigor.

Since the establishment of the empire, France had made a great gain in material prosperity. The eighteen years of Napoleon's rule were the most prosperous period the nation had ever experienced. The administrative talents of the emperor were second only to those of the great Napoleon, and under his liberal policy the French commerce was carefully built up, the railway system of the country was extended, and the manufacturing and mining interests were expanded. The principal cities of the empire were enlarged, improved, and beautified, and Paris was made the most splendid capital of Europe. All this was accomplished at an immense outlay, but the heavy taxes of the country were after all but a small price to pay for its wonderful prosperity. The emperor in other respects fell short of what he might have accomplished for his country. The mass of the nation was left in ignorance; education was kept under the baleful influence of the priests, and free thought was

discouraged, if not repressed, wherever it manifested itself. Towards the close of his reign the failing health of Napoleon rendered him incapable of giving to public affairs the attention of former years, and the direction of the state passed into weak and incompetent hands. As he grew feebler, the opposition to his system of personal government became stronger, and at length, in order to conciliate the anti-imperialist party, the senate was ordered to prepare a new constitution embodying many of the leading features of representative government. It was promulgated on the 15th of August, 1869—the one hundredth anniversary of the birth of Napoleon I. The new system was submitted to a *plebiscite*, and was approved by an overwhelming majority of the French people. A new parliamentary ministry was organized, with Emil Ollivier at its head.

In the spring of 1870 the Spaniards endeavored to secure a king, their throne having been left vacant by the revolution of 1868. France was anxious that the young Prince of Asturias, the son of Queen Isabella, should be chosen; but the choice of the Spaniards fell upon Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, a distant relative of the King of Prussia. This selection was opposed by France, and was made, as we have seen in our account of the German history of this century, the pretext for a war with Prussia. The Emperor Napoleon was by no means anxious for war, but was forced to yield by the popular clamor and the importunities of the empress and his counsellors. At this juncture Count Bismarck published the draft of the secret treaty which M. Benedetti had proposed to him for the acquisition of Belgium by France. This publication aroused a great deal of indignation towards France in Europe, especially in Great Britain, which had constituted herself the special guardian of Belgian independence. The British government demanded of Napoleon ample guarantees for the observance by France of the neutrality of Belgium in the struggle at hand. War was declared against Prussia on the 15th. The hope which the French government had entertained of separating south Germany from the northern confederation was destroyed by the prompt action of the south German states in support of Prussia. The military events of the war have been related in the German

history of this period, and need not be repeated here.

Soon after the declaration of war the emperor appointed the Empress Eugénie regent during his absence, and repaired with the prince imperial to Metz. There he found the French army but imperfectly prepared for the struggle before it, notwithstanding the assertion of his minister of war that every preparation was complete.

The news of the first French disasters plunged Paris into great despondency. The senate and corps législatif were convened by the empress on the 9th of August, and the Ollivier ministry was forced to resign. A new ministry, under Count Palikao, succeeded it. General Trochu, who was regarded as an able soldier, was appointed Governor of Paris, and measures were pushed forward for the defence of the city.

The news of the surrender of the emperor and MacMahon's army at Sedan aroused a storm of excitement at Paris. The streets were filled with a vast throng of citizens and national guards, who surrounded the palace of the corps législatif, and demanded the overthrow of the Bonapartes. Jules Favre, in the legislative chamber, declared that the empire had ceased to exist, and accompanied by a number of republican deputies repaired to the Hotel de Ville, and organized a provisional government, consisting of MM. Arago, Crémieux, Favre, Ferry, Gambetta, and others. The mob attacked the Tuileries, but met with no resistance. The empress, deserted by all her attendants but one, and by every domestic, was saved by the timely arrival of a devoted friend, who enabled her to escape to England, where she was joined by the prince imperial.

The provisional government was anxious to make peace with Germany, but the King of Prussia demanded the cession of Alsace and Lorraine, which had been partly overrun by his armies, as the price of peace. The demand was refused by the French government, which declared that it would not give up "an inch of its land or a stone of its fortresses." M. Thiers, though seventy-three years old, made a journey to the courts of England, Russia, Austria, and Italy, to ask the mediation and moral support of those powers in behalf of France—but without success. In the meantime the Germans advanced to Paris, and infested the city. Communica-

tion between the capital and the provinces was maintained by means of balloons.

M. Gambetta, a member of the provisional government, escaped from Paris in a balloon, and reached Orleans in safety. He at once began to prepare the provinces for resistance, and in order to accomplish his ends assumed dictatorial powers. His efforts were liberally responded to by the nation, and, as we have seen, several new armies were placed in the field. The steady advance of the German armies from victory to victory has been related.

January, 1871, the city and outlying forts were surrendered to the Germans. An armistice of three weeks was entered into in order to give the French people an opportunity to organize a government competent to conclude a general peace. Writs were issued for the election of a constituent assembly, which met at Bordeaux on the 12th of February. A provisional republic was proclaimed, and M. Thiers was chosen as its chief executive by a large majority of the assembly.

The new government at once addressed



THE ESCAPE OF THE EMPRESS EUGÉNIE FROM FRANCE.

The winter of 1870-71 was unusually severe, and great suffering was experienced in Paris, where wood and coal were scarcely to be had. On the 27th of December the Prussian batteries on the heights of Sèvres, Meudon, Clamart and Chatillon opened fire upon the city, which, in addition to the horrors of a bombardment, soon began to suffer those of famine. The death-rate in the city increased to 5,000 per week, and at length the provisions were exhausted. In this extremity further resistance would have been criminal, and on the 28th of

itself to the task of concluding a treaty of peace with the victors, and on the 26th of February the preliminaries of peace were signed at Versailles. The terms of this treaty have been stated in the German history of this century. With the exception of a garrison of 40,000 men in Paris, all the French troops retired south of the Loire. On the 1st of March a detachment of the German army entered Paris, but withdrew from the city on the 3d.

The government now transferred its seat from Bordeaux to Versailles. The assem-

bly had already become divided between a party favoring the interests of the large towns, and a stronger one which supported the interests of the country districts as opposed to those of the cities. Under the influence of the latter party the assembly undertook to limit the freedom of elections in the towns. The assembly was largely monarchical in its sympathies, and was influenced in its action by the fact that the cities universally favored the republic.

In the confusion which followed the surrender of Paris, the national guard were masters of the city. They seized a large number of cannon, and carried them to the heights of Montmartre, where they entrenched themselves. General Vinoy, commanding the garrison of the city, attempted to dislodge them, but without success. Vinoy then withdrew his troops to Versailles for the protection of the assembly, and the insurgents occupied the Hotel de Ville, and organized a government which took the name of the *Commune*. It declared itself the champion of municipal freedom, and might have accomplished much for that cause, but unhappily the *commune* now passed out of the hands of its moderate members into those of the revolutionary or socialist element which had given such trouble in 1848, and had been held down by the empire. The worst elements of the city came into power within the walls, robbed the banks, arrested, imprisoned, or put to death the good men who sought to control them, and declared that Paris should be destroyed if they could not hold it. A reign of terror ensued, and the forces of the government, under the command of Marshal MacMahon, which held possession of the majority of the outer forts, invested the city, and subjected it to a second siege. Several severe battles were fought between the troops of the government and those of the commune, and though the latter were routed with great loss, they held the city with such obstinacy that the government was forced to ask leave of Germany to increase its army north of the Loire. Paris suffered in this siege more than it had during the German bombardment. The government forces made steady progress, and at length the outer forts were entirely in their possession. As their final defeat became apparent the communists avenged themselves by overturning the Napoleon column in the Place Vendome.

On the 21st of May the government

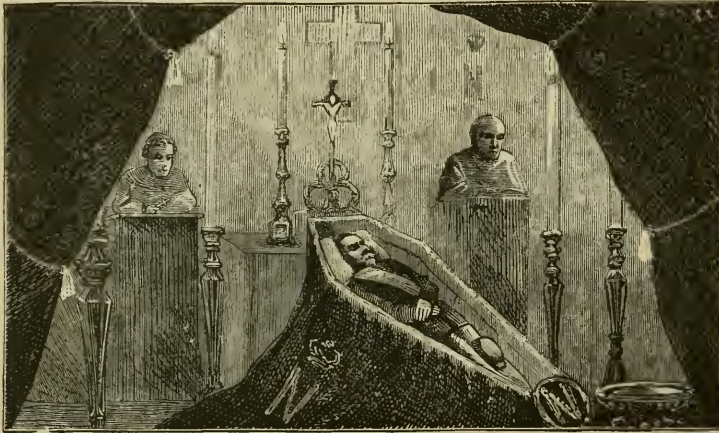
troops forced their way into the city, and during the night the communists prepared for their last resistance. For the next eight days a desperate struggle was waged for the possession of the city. The communists contested every foot of ground, and as they were beaten back murdered the venerable Archbishop of Paris and a number of other hostages, and set fire to the Louvre, the Tuileries, the Hotel de Ville, and a number of other public buildings. An effort was made to burn the city, but was defeated by the government troops. At length, on the 28th and 29th, the last positions of the communists were stormed and the insurrection was at an end. Immense numbers of the insurgents of both sexes were shot down by the troops during the fighting, and thousands of prisoners were taken. Multitudes of these were shot by order of the court-martial at Versailles for participation in the insurrection. These military executions continued until the world was sick of them.

On the 10th of May, 1871, the definite treaty of peace was signed at Frankfort between France and Germany. Its provisions were substantially the same as those of the preliminary treaty.

The revolt of the commune being over, the government devoted itself energetically to the task of restoring the prosperity of the country and putting an end to the occupation of the provinces by the Germans. By the terms of the treaty of Frankfort, the sum of 5,000,000,000 of francs, or \$1,000,000,000, was to be paid to Germany by France as an indemnity. This immense sum was to be paid by instalments ranging over three years. As security for the debt, the German army was to occupy, at the expense of France, the greater part of the territory which it had overrun; but the departments were to be successively evacuated, in a specified order, as the instalments were paid. The first effort of the government was to raise a loan of \$400,000,000, which enabled it to pay during the month of June three instalments of the German debt, and thus to secure the evacuation of the Paris forts and of a considerable portion of the territory held by the Germans. This gained for the government of President Thiers the hearty support of the nation, and the co-operation of the assembly. After the adjournment of the assembly in September, M. Thiers made satisfactory arrangements for the payment of the fourth

half milliard of the German debt in the ensuing spring, and so restricted the German occupation to six of the eastern departments. M. Thiers also succeeded in perfecting arrangements by which the whole of the German debt was discharged, and the country entirely evacuated by the foreign army, in the early part of September, 1873, a year and a half in advance of the time fixed by the treaty of Frankfort. The money for this purpose was raised by means of popular loans which were readily taken by the French people, who cordially sustained the president's efforts to rid the country of the presence of the conquerors.

During the latter part of the summer of 1871 the title of M. Thiers was changed from "Chief of the Executive Power" to that of "President of the French Republic."



THE BODY OF NAPOLEON III. LYING IN STATE.

Liberal measures were adopted by the assembly for the government of the cities and the conduct of elections. On the 8th of June the laws banishing the Bourbon and Orleans princes from France were repealed, and in December the Duc d'Aumale and the Prince de Joinville took their seats in the assembly, having been chosen members of that body at the general elections at the first of the year. The Count de Chambord, the Bourbon claimant of the French crown, returned to France, and, to the dismay of his followers, issued a proclamation declaring that he relinquished none of his claims, and would never renounce the white flag of his ancestors for the tri-color. This done, he returned to his residence at Frohsdorff, in Germany. There was a considerable legitimist party in the assembly, which had at first hoped

that in the end the Count de Chambord might regain the throne of his fathers. The count's declaration so disgusted the entire nation, however, that his followers were compelled to abandon their hopes. It was clear that no other form of government than the republic was possible for the present. The country generally accepted the republic, and discountenanced all the schemes for replacing it with a Bourbon or Orleanist kingdom or the empire.

Early in January, 1872, supplementary elections were held for members of the assembly. They resulted in the choice of thirteen republicans and four conservatives or monarchists. About the same time the discussions as to a permanent form of government were renewed in the assembly. The majority in that body was composed of

conservatives, and for a while it seemed that they would be able to secure the re-establishment of the monarchy. The assembly cared very little for the wish of the nation, which was most pronounced in favor of the maintenance of the republic, but the impossibility of reconciling the conflicting claims of the various pretenders to the throne prevented the ue-

cess of any monarchical scheme, and compelled all parties to give their immediate support to the republic.

The assembly now turned its attention to the task of providing for the immediate wants of the country. In January, 1872, the government presented a new tariff bill to the assembly, in which new duties and taxes were levied upon raw materials. This was a favorite measure of President Thiers, but was warmly opposed in the assembly and throughout the country. On the 19th of January the bill was rejected by the assembly. President Thiers thereupon sent in his resignation the next day, but the assembly by an almost unanimous vote begged him to withdraw it, and he consented to do so. During the year numerous evidences were given by the country of the growth of republican sentiment, and espec-

ially at the supplementary elections, held on October 21st, in which the republicans made large gains.

Shortly before these elections M. Gambetta had made a speech to the electors of Grenoble, in which he declared that the political power of the country must be transferred to a new social stratum, a declaration which was generally supposed to mean that "the

exclusive supremacy of artisans and laborers, which had been the chief object of the insurrection of the commune, was to be established by a democratic assembly after the necessary preliminaries of a dissolution." M. Gambetta's words seriously alarmed the conservative parties in the assembly, and united them in a solid body against the republicans. On the 18th of November an exciting debate took place in the assembly as to whether the government had sufficiently endeavored to suppress the radical movements in the provinces, and especially the demonstrations excited by Gambetta. President Thiers engaged warmly in this

debate; defended his administration, and demanded of the assembly a vote of confidence. The vote was taken, but in a manner so unsatisfactory to the president that a new quarrel arose between M. Thiers and the assembly. On the 26th of November the committee appointed to draft an address in reply to the president's message made a report, in which that

document was sharply criticised. M. Thiers, indignant at this treatment, threatened to resign, but the matter was compromised by the appointment of a committee of thirty charged with drafting a bill defining the relations of the executive and the assembly to one another, and regulating the responsibility of the various branches of the government. The committee was



PRESIDENT MACMAHON.

appointed on the 5th of December. On the 10th of December a manifesto was published by Gambetta, Crémieux, and other leaders of the Left, demanding the dissolution of the assembly and the election of a new assembly as the proper means of ascertaining the will of the country with respect to the questions at issue. Several petitions to the same effect were presented to the

assembly from the departments, but were rejected by that body.

On the 9th of January, 1873, the ex-Emperor Napoleon III. died at Chiselhurst, in England, where he had resided since his release from captivity. His death was sincerely regretted by the French people, to whom, in spite of his many faults, he had been a wise and generous friend. By the death of the ex-emperor the plans of the imperialist party in France were for the time entirely overthrown.

Early in January the committee of thirty reported a bill defining the powers of the president and those of the assembly. The report was made the subject of a long and excited debate, during which M. Thiers several times threatened to resign. The result was that the report of the committee was adopted in a greatly modified form on the 13th of March. On the 29th of that month a bill was passed exiling the Bonaparte family from France. On the 27th of April supplementary elections for members of the assembly were again held, and resulted in the choice of several radical leaders.

In May, 1873, President Thiers made several changes in his ministry. The new ministers were not regarded by the majority of the assembly as sufficiently conservative, and the action of the president was sharply criticised. None of the parties composing the majority in the assembly accepted the republic in good faith; each hoped that the uncertain state of affairs in which the country was placed would offer to it the opportunity of overturning the republic and restoring the monarchy to which it was devoted, and each hoped to obtain the support of the president in such a course. On the 24th of May, however, M. Thiers definitely announced the policy of his administration in an address to the assembly, in which he appealed to that body to lay aside all party feeling and establish the republic as the permanent government of France. This patriotic appeal fell dead upon the assembly, and the majority adopted, by a vote of 360 to 344, a resolution refusing to take any steps towards the establishment of a permanent government, and regretting that the new ministry did not afford sufficient guarantees of a conservative policy.

President Thiers and the ministers at once tendered their resignations, which were promptly accepted by the assembly. At the same sitting Marshal MacMahon was chosen president of the republic. He ac-

cepted the office, and appointed the Duke de Broglie, the leader of the reactionary party in the assembly, president of the council, and M. Magne, the ablest financier of the empire, minister of finance.

For some time after the election of President MacMahon the conservative party in the assembly increased by the desertion of members from the liberal ranks. Many monarchists were appointed to office throughout the country, and the government party was strong enough to forbid the celebration by the people of the 4th of September, the anniversary of the establishment of the republic. It soon became evident that the conservative party was bent upon the restoration of the monarchy. The Orleans princes and their principal supporters paid a visit to Frohsdorff, and formally acknowledged the hereditary right of the Count de Chambord to the French throne, and the Count de Paris relinquished, on behalf of himself and his family, all rival pretensions to the crown. The breach between the two branches of the Bourbons being thus healed, the conservatives prepared to carry out the rest of their plan by proclaiming the restoration of the monarchy under the Count de Chambord, as Henry V. At this juncture the Count de Chambord addressed a letter to M. de Chesnelong, in which, with true Bourbon stubbornness, he declared that he would never consent to surrender the white flag of his ancestors for the tri-color. This declaration entirely broke up the coalition in his favor, and on the night of the 19th of November the assembly adopted a bill conferring the executive power on President MacMahon for a term of seven years.

The government now felt itself strong enough to proceed with the trial of Marshal Bazaine for the loss of Metz during the war with Germany. He was charged with treason in surrendering his army and the fortress of Metz without sufficient cause; and on the 10th of December was found guilty by the court-martial, and was sentenced to death. His sentence was commuted by President MacMahon to degradation from his rank and twenty years' imprisonment. He was confined in the fortress of the island of St. Marguerite, but succeeded in escaping from it during the summer of 1874.

The year 1874 was uneventful. It was passed by the parties of the assembly in quarrels. These dissensions forced all parties

to support the septennate, as the government of Marshal MacMahon was called. On his part, Marshal MacMahon declared his determination to maintain, against all opposition, the power he had received from the assembly to the end of the term of seven years.

In 1875 a step was taken in the direction of giving greater stability to the republic. During the spring months a new constitution was debated and adopted by the assembly. By the terms of this constitution the assembly was to consist of two chambers—the deputies and the senate. The deputies

were to be chosen by universal suffrage. The number of senators was fixed at 300. Of these seventy-five were to hold office for life, and were to be chosen in the first instance by the present assembly, and afterwards by the senate itself. The remainder were to be chosen for shorter periods by the councils general of the departments, with the addition of certain local representatives of the smaller districts. Finally the assembly voluntarily placed a limit on its own tenure of power by fixing the 7th of March, 1876, as the day for the meeting of the new legislature.

BOOK XX.

THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE REIGN OF ALFRED THE GREAT.

Geographical Situation of Great Britain—Britain Known to the Phœnicians—Landing of Julius Cæsar—His Account of the Britons—Claudius Begins the Conquest of Britain—Caractacus—Southern Britain Organized as a Roman Province—Rise and Growth of London—Capture of Anglesey and Destruction of the Druids—Revolt of Boadicea—London Destroyed—Agricola's Conquests—Begins the Civilization of Britain—The Roman Walls—Conquests of Severus—Carausius—Withdrawal of the Roman Troops—Inroads of the Picts and Scots—The Introduction of Christianity—The German Invasion—The Angles and the Saxons—Foundation of the Teutonic Kingdoms in England—The Heptarchy—King Arthur—St. Augustine Lands in Kent—Conversion of the Saxons to Christianity—Reign of King Offa—Growth of Wessex—Egbert Becomes King of all England—Wars with the Danes—Alfred Becomes King.

THE Island of Great Britain lies in the north Atlantic Ocean. It is bounded on the north by the Atlantic, on the east by the North Sea, on the south by the English Channel, and on the west by the Atlantic and the Irish Sea. It includes the countries now known as England, Scotland, and Wales. The northern part of the island is called Scotland; the southern England. Wales comprises a small district in the western part of the island. England and Wales constitute the larger and more important division of Great Britain. The greatest length of England, from north to

south, is 365 miles, and its greatest breadth, from east to west, is 280 miles. The area of England is 50,922 square miles, that of Wales 7,398 square miles.

The island of Great Britain was at an early period inhabited by the Britons, a Celtic race, which still exists as a distinct people under the name of the Welsh. They are supposed to have conquered and expelled from the island the primitive inhabitants, who were a savage race, inferior to the Britons in civilization and strength. About the same time another Celtic race, the Scots, settled the neighboring island of Ierne, or Ireland, from which, at a later period, they passed over to Great Britain and conquered and settled the northern part of that island, which was called from them Scotia or Scotland.

Britain was known to the Phœnicians, the Carthaginians, and the inhabitants of Marseilles, all of whom traded with the tribes on the coast. The Phœnicians especially carried on a thriving trade with the people of Cornwall, exchanging their manufactures for the tin of that region. We know nothing with certainty of Britain, however, until the year B. C. 55, when Julius Cæsar, in the month of August, crossed the Straits of Dover from Gaul, and landed at Deal, in England. He came to England again the next year, but he made no permanent conquests on either occasion, and established no garrisons in the island. He saw only the people of Kent,

whom he describes as the most civilized of the Britons. He states that the population of Britain was large, that the inhabitants possessed numerous buildings, and that they were very rich in cattle. A large part of their military strength consisted of chariots, in driving which they exhibited great skill. Their religion was the Druidical faith, an account of which we have given in the history of France.

Augustus seriously contemplated the conquest of Britain, but never attempted it, and Caligula threatened to invade the island. It was not until the reign of Claudius, however, that Rome undertook to add Britain to her dominions. In A. D. 43 Aulus Plautius crossed the channel with an army of four legions, and landed, it is believed, on the coast of Kent. He moved at once towards the lower fords of the Thames, and forced a passage of that river. He was soon joined by the Emperor Claudius in person. The Trinobantes, the people of Essex and Hertfordshire, were soon subdued, and their capital, Camulodunum, now Colchester, was made the seat of the Roman government. This was accomplished in sixteen days. Claudius then returned to Rome, and left Vespasian in command of his army in Britain. This able commander reduced the southwestern parts of the island, as far as the Exe and the Severn. Ostorius Scapula extended the Roman conquests to the Wye and the foot of the Welsh mountains; but here he encountered a desperate resistance from a native chief, named Caradoc, or Caractacus, who ruled over a tribe dwelling by the Severn. His army was routed by the Romans, but he escaped from the field. He was soon after taken prisoner and sent to Rome. When he saw the splendid city of the Cæsars, the British chieftain could not repress his astonishment that the master of such a city should covet his poor cottage in Britain. Claudius was greatly impressed by the bold bearing of Caractacus, and instead of putting him to death—the usual fate of captives—gave him his freedom.

After the defeat of Caractacus, the southern part of the island of Britain, from the Stour to the Exe and Severn or Wye, was organized into a compact province. The only portion of this region over which the Roman dominion did not extend was the independent kingdom of the Regni, in Sussex. Beyond the Stour was the native kingdom of the Icenii. Camulodunum (Col-

chester), in which a military colony had been settled, was the seat of the Roman government, and from this port direct communication with the continent was maintained. Londinium, or London, had been from the first one of the principal towns of the Britons. It was not fortified by the Romans, and remained in the hands of the natives. It soon became a place of considerable commercial importance, and the centre of the trade which was growing up between Britain and the continent. Londinium imported and distributed throughout the island the manufactures of Belgium and the cities of the Rhine, and exported corn, cattle, and slaves. "Roads earlier than of Roman construction penetrated the country from Richborough and Dover to Seaton and Brancaster, to the Severn, the Dee, and the northern Ouse, and it was through Londinium that they all took their course. The centre of the island was gradually yielding to the encroachments of the Roman arms and civilization. Four legions were now planted in Britain; the second, which, under the command of Vespasian, had recently subdued the southwest, was quartered at Caerlon, on the Usk; the ninth kept guard over the Icenii at Brancaster; the twentieth, at Chester, watched the Brigantes, who maintained their independence in the north; the fourteenth was occupied in carrying on the conquest of the Ordovices in north Wales."

In A. D. 61 Suetonius Paulinus, the Roman commander in Britain, resolved to reduce the island of Mona or Anglesey, the chief seat of the Druids, which afforded a refuge to the disaffected Britons. The strait which separates the island from the mainland was crossed by the infantry in shallow vessels, while the cavalry swam their horses over. The Britons endeavored to prevent the Romans from landing on the sacred island. The warriors stoutly defended the shore, while the priests and women rushed about among their troops with flaming torches and dishevelled hair, uttering the most fearful cries and imprecations. These strange sounds for a moment struck terror to the superstitious Romans, but Suetonius rallied them, and led them to the attack. The Britons were overwhelmingly defeated, the Druids were burned in the fires they had kindled for their expected captives, and the sacred groves and altars were destroyed. Suetonius had believed that this bold blow at the religion of the Britons would

induce them to submit to the rule of Rome. He was mistaken. During his absence in Anglesey the Britons rose in revolt on the mainland. They were led by Boadicea, Queen of the Iceni, whose daughter had been outraged and herself scourged with rods by the Romans. The Romans were taken by surprise, and the Britons quickly made themselves masters of a number of settlements. London was next threatened, and Suetonius hastened to its assistance. He found, however, that it was necessary for the general safety to abandon it to the enemy. Being an unfortified town, London at once fell into the hands of the Britons, who laid it in ashes, and massacred such of the inhabitants as were unable to escape. The Britons showed no mercy in this war, and 70,000 Romans and strangers fell during the contest. In A. D. 62 Suetonius utterly destroyed the army of the Britons in a great battle, in which 80,000 of them are said to have been slain. Seeing that capture was inevitable, Boadicea committed suicide by taking poison.

Suetonius was removed from the command in Britain, as he was regarded by the Emperor Nero as too harsh a ruler to restore order in the island. In A. D. 71 Cerealis was placed in command by Vespasian, and advanced the Roman dominions by his conquests. In A. D. 78 Julius Agricola was sent to Britain, and ruled the country for seven years. During this period he reduced the whole of what is now England to submission to Rome, and as early as the third year of his government (A. D. 81) pushed his conquests to the Tay, where he established garrisons. In A. D. 82 he built a line of forts between the Friths of Clyde and Forth, and from this point subsequently made two incursions into Caledonia, or Scotland, and defeated a large force of Scots at the foot of the Grampian Hills. Agricola was not content with compelling the submission of the Britons; he attempted to civilize them also. He introduced the Roman laws and customs among them, instructed them in letters and science, and induced them to adopt and practise the mode of life of their conquerors. Towns were founded, and roads were built throughout the country. "The inhabitants, having experienced how unequal their own force was to resist that of the Romans, acquiesced in the dominion of their masters, and were gradually incorporated as part of that mighty empire."

Britain remained tranquil, and no further effort was made to shake off the Roman dominion. The Scots, tempted by the prosperity of the Roman province, occasionally made forays into it, doing considerable damage. To put a stop to these raids, the Emperor Hadrian, who visited Britain, caused an earthen rampart to be built across the island between the river Tyne and the Solway Frith. Remains of this wall are still to be seen. It is known as the Picts' Wall. In A. D. 140, during the reign of Antoninus Pius, Lollius Urbicus built another wall between the Friths of Forth and Clyde, along the line formerly occupied by the forts of Agricola. It was known as the Wall of Antoninus, but is now called Graham's Dike. These walls, however, did not put a stop to the incursions of the Scottish tribes. These barbarians at length became so formidable that the Roman commander was obliged to purchase an exemption from their attacks, and at the same time appealed to the Emperor Severus to come in person to Britain. Severus, though old and infirm, hastened to Britain, invaded Scotland, and advanced to the northern extremity of the island. He lost 50,000 men in this expedition, but compelled the Scots to enter into a treaty by which they agreed to cease their incursions into Britain, and ceded to the emperor a considerable part of their territory. Severus then caused the wall of Hadrian to be repaired and strengthened. In consequence of this the wall commonly bore the name of the later emperor. Severus died at Eboracum, now called York, in A. D. 211.

In the third century Britain was assailed by a new enemy, the Saxon pirates, whose descents upon the eastern shore of the island became so troublesome that the Emperors Diocletian and Maximian appointed an officer specially charged with its defence, who bore the title of "Count of the Saxon Shore." Carausius was the first of these counts. He succeeded in making himself master of Britain, and compelling Maximian to acknowledge him as his associate in the empire. He was murdered in A. D. 293 by Allectus, who took the imperial title, and held it until 296, when he was defeated by the army which Constantius had sent against him. From this time until the fall of the Roman empire Britain remained tranquil. The country improved rapidly in civilization; many Romans set-

letian in the province, and the Latin language was largely employed by the natives.

The necessities of the falling empire compelled the emperors to recall their troops from Britain. The Picts and Scots quickly took advantage of this to renew their forays. In 368 they penetrated as far as London, but were driven back by Theodosius, the father of the emperor of that name. In 396 they again swarmed into Britain, but were forced back by Stilicho. Soon after this the Roman troops were withdrawn from Britain for the defence of Gaul, and the island was left at the mercy of the Picts and Scots. In A. D. 418 the emperor responded to the appeals of the Britons for aid, by sending the Roman legions once more into Britain. The Picts and Scots were driven back, and the Romans repaired the fortresses of Britain, and instructed the natives how to make and use the arms necessary for their defence. This done they withdrew from Britain, never again to return. The northern barbarians at once renewed their ravages, and the Britons were plunged into fresh misery. Their sufferings were so great that in A. D. 446 they again appealed to Rome for aid. Aëtius was the patrician at this time, and to him the British ambassadors carried the letter of their countrymen, which was inscribed "The Groans of the Britons." "The barbarians," said the writers, "on the one hand chase us into the sea; the sea on the other throws us back upon the barbarians; and we have only the hard choice left us of perishing by the sword or by the waves." Aëtius, however, was prevented by the necessities of his struggle with Attila from sending assistance to the Britons.

At some time during the Roman dominion Christianity was introduced into Britain. The exact date of this event is unknown, but it is certain that Christianity was planted in Britain within three centuries after the death of Christ. By whom it was introduced is uncertain. It is believed that many Christians, fleeing from persecution on the continent, took refuge in Britain, that many prisoners of war taken by the Roman armies were converted during their captivity, and that there were Christian soldiers in the Roman armies stationed in the island. By the end of the second century there were many Christian churches in Great Britain. They were mainly in the northern and western portions of England and Scotland. Under the Emperor Dio-

letian they endured a severe persecution, which drove them almost entirely from the south of England into the north and into Scotland.

While the Britons were still suffering from the attacks of the Picts and Scots on the north, a new enemy appeared on the coast. The Teutonic tribes of the lower Elbe and Weser, on the continent, the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea in the latter part of the fifth century, and conquered southern Britain. These emigrations continued to the close of the sixth century. The Jutes have left behind them scarcely a memorial of their conquests, but the Angles gave to the country its name of England, or "land of the Angles," and the English people are still spoken of as a part of the Saxon race. The intermixture of the various German dialects gave to the island a new language, the Anglo-Saxon.

The Saxons, as all the Teutonic conquerors were called by the Britons, were a fierce, uncivilized race, caring nothing for the civilization or arts of Rome. They did not adopt the Christian religion as the Goths had done, but retained their pagan belief. They killed and enslaved the Celtic Britons who resisted them, or drove them into the mountains of Wales. Every vestige of civilization which the Romans had implanted in the island was swept away. "The proceedings of civil and criminal jurisdiction, the titles of honor, the forms of office, the ranks of society, and even the domestic rights of marriage, testament, and inheritance, were finally suppressed; and the indiscriminate crowd of noble and plebeian slaves was governed by the traditionary customs which had been coarsely framed for the shepherds and pirates of Germany. The language of science, of business, and of conversation, which had been introduced by the Romans, was lost in the general desolation; and the Germans preserved and established the use of their natural dialect."

According to the tradition, the first Teutonic kingdom in England was that of Kent, which retained its British name. Vortigern, the native prince, being hard pressed by the Picts and Scots, invited the brothers Hengest and Horsa, two Jutish chiefs, to come to his assistance. They came over with a numerous following, defeated the Picts and Scots, and then turned their arms against the Britons. They were

joined by fresh bands from their own country, and after a long struggle made themselves masters of Kent. In A. D. 449 they founded the kingdoms of East and West Kent. About A. D. 477 Æelle and Cissa, two Saxou leaders, founded the kingdom of Sussex; and about 495 the kingdom of Wessex, or the West Saxons, was set up by Cerdic and his son Cynric. In A. D. 547 Ida, the Angle, founded the kingdom of Northumbria, which extended from the Humber to the Frith of Forth. At times this kingdom was ruled by two sovereigns. The kingdom of Mercia was almost entirely an Anglian state, and embraced the midland counties of England. Immediately north of Kent was another Saxon state, Essex, or the kingdom of the East Saxons, founded about A. D. 527. Towards the end of the sixth century, the region north of Essex was settled by the Angles, and was known as the kingdom of the East Angles.

These seven kingdoms are usually spoken of as *The Heptarchy*, or "the Rule of Seven." "The name is misleading, as there were at no time seven regular and orderly states. They were forever fighting, not only with the Welsh, but among each other, and their number was sometimes more and sometimes fewer. At times some one king gained a certain authority over his fellows, in which case he was termed a *Bretwalda*, or 'Wielder of Britain.'"

To this period belong the exploits of the famous British prince or king, Arthur, whose deeds have been sung in such extravagant strains by poets that he has become more a character of romance than of history. He was Prince of the Silures. In A. D. 520 he defeated the Saxons at Badbury, in Dorsetshire, and thus checked their western conquests for a whole generation. Later on they were more successful, and extended their kingdom in every direction except the Welsh border.

The principal event of English history during the sixth century is the conversion of the Saxons of Kent to Christianity. The Saxons, as we have stated, were pagans, worshipping Odin and Thor, and maintaining the customs of their German forefathers. Gregory the Great, having seen some beautiful long-haired boys from Deira (Yorkshire) in the slave-market at Rome, conceived an ardent desire to convert the Saxons to Christianity. Becoming pope he sent into England a band of missionaries

under Augustine, afterwards called saint, a Roman monk, to preach the gospel to the Saxons. Augustine landed in Kent in A. D. 597. Ethelbert, the Kentish king, was the most powerful prince of southern England. He had married Bertha, the daughter of Charibert, one of the Frankish kings in Gaul, who was a Catholic, and readily consented to listen to Augustine and his companions. Fearing that the monks might seek to influence him by means of spells or charms, he met them in the open air on the isle of Thanet, as he supposed such arts would be less powerful in the free sunlight. Having heard them, he assigned them a dwelling in the royal city of Canterbury, and ere long yielded to the arguments of Augustine, embraced the Christian religion, and was baptized. His example was freely followed by many of his subjects. Augustine was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and his cathedral, which has been often rebuilt, is still the mother church or metropolitan of all England. Augustine introduced the Roman liturgy in Latin, which, though understood in other parts of Europe, was an unknown tongue in England.

During the seventh century the Christian religion made great progress in England. Kent for a while relapsed into paganism in consequence of the defection of Eadbald, who married his mother-in-law—a union forbidden by the church. Through the efforts of Laurentius, the successor of Augustine, he was brought back into the church, and all his people with him, having first put away his mother-in-law.

In A. D. 617 Edwin of Deira ascended the Northumbrian throne, and became the greatest king in Britain. He married Ethelburgh, daughter of Ethelbert of Kent. She was a Christian, and brought with her to her husband's court Bishop Paulinus, a learned ecclesiastic, through whom her husband was converted to Christianity. Edwin founded York-Minster, a plain wooden edifice at first, and was baptized in it. After his death many of his people relapsed into heathenism, and the work of Christianizing the kingdom was begun again under Oswald, who mounted the throne in A. D. 634. In A. D. 685 Cuthbert, a Northumbrian monk of Melrose, was made Bishop of Lindisfarne, and devoted himself to preaching and teaching in the villages and among the common people, especially among those who were so remote and difficult to reach

that they were avoided by the other missionaries. From Kent and Northumbria Christianity gradually spread to other parts of England.

The history of England during the eighth century is unimportant. At first Northumbria was the most powerful kingdom of the heptarchy, and for a long time maintained its ascendancy. Mercia then became the most important state under Offa, who reigned from A. D. 757 to 796. He built a dike, called by his name, from the Wye to the Dee, to guard the land he had conquered from the Welsh. He was the friend and ally of Charlemagne, and at the request of that king sent to him Alcuin, a clergyman celebrated for his learning, who became the most trusted friend and counsellor of Charlemagne for many years, and was his instructor in the sciences. Offa was, however, a man of cruel and treacherous character. "Desirous," says Hume, "of re-establishing his character in the world, and perhaps of appeasing the remorse of his own conscience, he paid great court to the clergy, and practised all the monkish devotion, so much esteemed in that ignorant and superstitious age. He gave the tenth of his goods to the church; bestowed rich donations on the Cathedral of Hereford, and even made a pilgrimage to Rome, where his great power and riches could not fail of procuring him the papal absolution. The better to ingratiate himself with the sovereign pontiff, he engaged to pay him a yearly donation for the support of an English college at Rome; and, in order to raise the sum, he imposed the tax of a penny on each house possessed of thirty pence a year. This imposition being afterwards levied on all England was commonly denominated 'Peter's pence,' and, though conferred at first as a gift, was afterwards claimed as a tribute by the Roman pontiff."

Wessex, which had been rapidly growing in power and importance during the eighth century, became the leading state of England in the first part of the ninth century. In A. D. 802 Egbert succeeded to the throne of Wessex, and extended his authority over all the other kingdoms. He was the first Saxon king of all England, and was a great and powerful sovereign. The Welsh of Cornwall also submitted to him. During his latter years the Danes, or Northmen, a Teutonic people who gradually formed the kingdoms of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, and whose attacks upon Ger-

many and France have already been noticed, began to harass England. The struggle thus begun went on with but little interruption for two centuries. Egbert was once defeated by the Danes, but at length routed them with great slaughter. He died in A. D. 838, and was succeeded by his son Ethelwolf, who had neither the abilities nor the vigor of his father. The Danes continued their ravages throughout this reign, returning every year, and causing great suffering to the kingdom. At length they seized the isle of Thanet, and establishing their winter quarters there, renewed the war in the following spring, and burnt the cities of London and Canterbury. They were defeated soon after by Ethelwolf, but they continued their aggressions in spite of this disaster. Ethelwolf died in A. D. 858, and his sons Ethelbald and Ethelbert came to the throne as joint rulers of England. Ethelbald was a profligate prince, and disgusted his people by marrying his stepmother. He died in 860, and his brother Ethelbert became sole king. He reigned five years with credit. The kingdom was still infested with the Danes, who committed great ravages throughout the country. Ethelbert died in 866, and was succeeded by his brother Ethelred I. During Ethelred's reign began the great war with the Danes which caused such suffering to England, and as to the cause of which there are many stories. In A. D. 866 a powerful Danish army, under Ingvar and Ubba, landed in East Anglia, and in the two following years overran Northumberland and Mercia. In 870 they invaded East Anglia and put its young king, Edmund, to death. The remainder of Ethelred's reign was passed in contending with the Danes, whose avowed object was the conquest of all England; and in this struggle he was bravely assisted by his younger brother, Alfred. He died in A. D. 871, and Alfred was left King of England.

CHAPTER II.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF ALFRED THE GREAT TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

England Overrun by the Danes—Guthrum—Alfred Becomes a Fugitive—His Adventures—Alfred Resumes the War—Defeats the Danes at Edington—They Embrace Christianity—Settlement with the Danes—Alfred Rebuilds London—Establishes a Militia Force—Character of Alfred—His Code—Origin of the Common Law—His Wise Measures—Founds the University of Oxford—His

Foreign Relations—Death of Alfred—Reigns of his Descendants—Introduction of the Monastic System into England—St. Dunstan—Edwy and Elgiva—Edgar King—"Edward the Martyr"—"Ethelred the Unready"—The Danes Conquer England—Reigns of Sweyn and Canute—Hardicanute—Reign of Edward the Confessor—Harold King—Defeats the Danes—William of Normandy Invades England—Battle of Hastings—Death of Harold.

ALFRED was twenty-two years old at the time of his accession to the throne. He found his kingdom half conquered by the Danes, and for the first seven years of his reign maintained a gallant but unequal struggle against them. Early in A. D. 878, however, a Danish army under Guthrum, one of their most powerful chiefs, burst out of East Anglia, which he had conquered, and overran Wessex so rapidly that it was useless to offer any resistance to him. Many of the English fled beyond the sea, and the remainder submitted. Alfred, thus deprived of his kingdom, took refuge with a few followers in the woods and swamps of Somersetshire. Many interesting stories are told of his adventures at this period of his life. At one time he is said to have taken refuge with a herdsman, who kept the true character of his guest a secret even from his wife. One day, while mending his bow and arrows by the cottage fire, the king was set by the woman to watch some cakes which she was baking. Absorbed in his meditations he suffered the cakes to burn, and was soundly berated by the woman, who was ignorant of his quality.

Matters began to improve during that winter. Ubba was defeated and slain by the West Saxons, who also captured the magic raven banner, which the Danes believed brought them victory, and which was said to have been woven by the three daughters of Ragnar, the famous sea king, in a single noontide. Alfred and his little band now took heart, and fortifying themselves in Athelney, made frequent sallies. The king is said to have entered the camp of the Danes in the disguise of a minstrel, in order to learn their strength. He remained among them seven days, entertaining King Guthrum with his songs, and learning all he wished to know. Profiting by this knowledge, he rallied the West Saxon forces, and inflicted a decisive defeat upon the Danes at Edington, near Westbury. They were reduced to such straits by this defeat that they were obliged to submit. They embraced Christianity and

Guthrum was baptized, Alfred himself acting as his godfather, A. D. 880. The Danes were then received as vassals of the West Saxon king, and were given East Anglia and part of Essex and Mercia. "So after all Alfred's labor, the greater part of England was left in Danish hands, and consequently the English race became largely infused with Scandinavian blood. In this way it comes to pass that so many places have Danish names, marked by the ending *by*, which answers to the English *ton* or *town*." Alfred rebuilt London and the cities destroyed by the Danes, and established a regular militia for the defence of the kingdom; and though he was several times obliged to take arms against the Danes from over the sea, he was enabled to hold his own against them, and finally to drive them out of the kingdom.

Alfred was one of the most remarkable men of his own or any age. He had been educated at Rome, and had been taught to value the reign of law and order as the greatest happiness of a nation. Having conquered the Danes, he proceeded to give to his kingdom a definite code of laws and a settled administration. His system was formed from the Mosaic law and from the older English codes. He added few laws of his own, because he said he did not know how those who came after him might like them. His system is generally deemed the origin of what is termed the common law. He established a fleet of war galleys, and exerted himself to revive the old maritime spirit of the English, which seemed to be almost extinguished. He also caused his seamen to undertake exploring voyages to the north. He gave liberally to the churches and monasteries, and endeavored to promote the cause of education among his people by establishing schools everywhere and by founding the University of Oxford. He introduced and encouraged manufactures of all kinds, and liberally rewarded inventors and improvers for their labors. Commerce and industry found in him a munificent patron, and he neglected no means which could possibly contribute to the moral, intellectual, or material improvement of his kingdom. He gave largely to the poor, and set apart a seventh of his own income for maintaining a force of workmen, which he employed in rebuilding the ruined cities, castles, palaces, and monasteries. He sent embassies to the pope, to the Patriarch of Jerusalem, and to

India, with alms for the Christian churches there, which are said to have been founded by St. Thomas and St. Bartholomew, the apostles. This was the first intercourse between England and India. In all things

and as one of the wisest and best that ever adorned the annals of any nation."

Alfred the Great died in A. D. 901, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Edward, called the Elder, who was his equal as a



DUNSTAN SEPARATES EDWY AND ELGIVA.

Alfred set a noble example to his people, and he was "regarded by foreigners, no less than by his own subjects, as the greatest prince after Charlemagne that had appeared in Europe during several ages,

soldier, but inferior to him as a scholar. He extended his dominions as far north as the Humber, and was called the "Lord of all Britain;" for the Northumbrians, whether English, Danes, or Norwegians,

the Scots, and the Welsh of Cumberland, all did him homage. Edward died in 925, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Athelstan, who extended his power over all England, so that he and his successors sometimes styled themselves Emperors of Britain, to show that they were masters of the whole island and independent of the German emperors. He died in 940, and was succeeded by his brother Edmund, called the Magnificent from his gallant deeds, who six years later was stabbed by a ruffian whom he endeavored to expel from the royal table. Edmund granted Strathclyde or Cumberland to Malcolm, King of Scots, as a fief. The sons of Edmund were too young to reign at the time of their father's death, and his brother Edred was chosen king. His reign of nine years was uneventful. Being a very superstitious man himself, he introduced into England the order of Benedictine monks, whose efforts to obtain power and to compel the English clergy to adopt a celibate life caused much trouble to the kingdom in after years. The king chose as his chief adviser a monk named Dunstan, who had been made Abbot of Glastenbury by King Edmund.

Edwy, the eldest son of Edmund, succeeded to the throne upon the death of his uncle Edred, in A. D. 955. He reigned four years, and this entire period was marked by a sharp struggle between the native clergy and the Romanizing party in the church, led by the monk Dunstan. Many abuses and much corruption had grown up in the English Church, and Dunstan and his party aimed at the reformation of these. They were not content with this, but endeavored to force upon the secular clergy—that is, those who were not monks, but rectors of parishes, canons of cathedrals and collegiate churches—the rule of celibacy, and to compel the married clergy to put away their wives. Edwy, though by no means an enemy of the church, took the side of the native clergy, and so drew upon himself the enmity of the party of Dunstan. His marriage with Elgiva, who was related to him within one of the degrees then prohibited by the church, laid him open to the attacks of his enemies. Dunstan and his followers refused to acknowledge the marriage, and Edwy resented their course with so much violence that he at length drove Dunstan out of the kingdom. The monks took up the cause of their leader, and fanned the flame of dis-

content which the king's course had excited throughout the land, and even went to the extreme of torturing and finally murdering the beautiful queen. The English, blinded with superstition, listened to them, and in A. D. 957 all England north of the Thames rose in rebellion against Edwy, and set up his brother Edgar as king. The remainder of Edwy's reign was troubled and unhappy. He died in A. D. 959.

By the death of Edwy, Edgar became undisputed King of England. His reign of sixteen years was on the whole peaceful and prosperous. Dunstan, who was advanced to the See of Canterbury, was his chief adviser. Edgar's private character was bad, but as he was a friend and submissive follower of the monks, he has been handed down by the historians of the times as a model of excellence. During this reign Dunstan and his party were able to put in force their reforms, and the church was placed in possession of the celibate clergy by the expulsion of the married priests from their charges. As a ruler Edgar showed himself endowed with vigor and capacity. He maintained peace and order throughout his dominions, and by creating a powerful and efficient navy, saved the kingdom from invasion. Hence, being at peace with the monks, his reign is one of the most fortunate we meet with in the English history of this period. He died in 975, leaving two sons, Edward and Ethelred.

Edward, the elder son of Edgar, succeeded to the throne. The struggle between the monks and the secular clergy broke out again. Being hard pressed by their adversaries, the monks resorted to the working of miracles, at which they were very expert, and so triumphed over their adversaries. After an uneventful reign of four years, Edward was murdered by the agents of his stepmother, who desired to place her son, Ethelred, the younger son of Edgar, on the throne. Edward's tragic end won him from the sympathizing people the surname of "the Martyr," by which he is known in history.

Ethelred became king by the death of his brother, A. D. 979. He was only ten years old at the time, and for the first nine years of his reign Dunstan kept him within the limits of propriety and so influenced the councils of the monarch that affairs went on well. After the death of that prelate,

in A. D. 988, Ethelred abandoned himself to unworthy and incompetent favorites, who led him into many blunders. He was naturally weak, cowardly, and cruel, and in the hands of his new advisers he soon gained the name of "the Unready," or the Incompetent, a title which he fully merited. In the second year of Ethelred's reign, A. D. 980, the Danes began their invasions once more. Ethelred and his advisers weakly bought an exemption from their depredations, and this foolish step only encouraged the Danes to return again. The English now attempted to defeat them, but their plans were betrayed by the infamous Alfric, Duke of Mercia. In A. D. 994 a powerful fleet, under Sweyn, King of Denmark, and Olaf, King of Norway, ravaged England so terribly that Ethelred purchased peace by consenting to pay tribute to Denmark. The taxes levied for this purpose were called *Danegeld*. The invaders were not satisfied, and returning soon, ravaged southern England with fire and sword, and compelled Ethelred to pay an increased tribute as the price of their departure. The respite thus obtained was only temporary. Peace was not to be obtained so easily.

Ethelred's weak policy merely encouraged the Danes, and their invasions were continued during the remainder of his reign until at length, in A. D. 1013, Sweyn, King of Denmark, conquered the whole of England, and was acknowledged king. Ethelred took refuge in Normandy, with Duke Richard the Good, whose sister he had married. London stoutly resisted Sweyn until the whole country had been conquered, and only yielded to him when further resistance was hopeless. In 1014 Sweyn died, and Ethelred was recalled. He also died soon afterwards, and his son Edmund, surnamed Ironside, succeeded to his crown, A. D. 1016. Sweyn's son Canute was also king over a part of England, and after several battles, he and Edmund agreed to share the kingdom between them—Edmund receiving Wessex, East Anglia, Essex and London, and Canute the remainder of England, with his capital at Southampton. Edmund died in November, the same year, having reigned seven months, and Canute became King of all England. He was a great sovereign, and had, some time before receiving the English crown, embraced the Christian religion. He was King of Denmark also, and conquered Norway and a part of Sweden, which he annexed to his kingdom.

He preferred England to his other possessions, and made it his home, and ruled the English with wisdom and vigor. He divided the kingdom into four earldoms—Wessex, Mercia, East Anglia and Northumberland. Though he kept about him a body of from 3,000 to 6,000 paid mercenaries, he never allowed them to oppress or injure his subjects, and never employed them for that purpose himself. He died in A. D. 1035, and England was divided between his sons Harold and Hardicanute. Harold was made sole King of England in 1037, his brother remaining in Denmark. On his death, in 1040, Hardicanute was called to the throne, and proved himself such an execrable tyrant, that his death in 1042 was hailed with joy by the whole nation. His death separated the crowns of England and Denmark, which were never reunited.

Edward, the son of Ethelred and Emma, the last representative of the old royal line, was now chosen king. He had been brought up in Normandy from his childhood, and was an Englishman merely in blood and name, in all things else a Frenchman. His chief wish was to fill the offices of the kingdom with his Norman friends, and he even went so far as to make a Norman Archbishop of Canterbury. This tendency gave rise to a strong party opposed to the foreigners, at the head of which was Godwin, the great Earl of the West Saxons, an eloquent and popular noble, but who had incurred the enmity of the king by the suspicion which attached to him of having been concerned in the death of Alfred, King Edward's brother, who had lost his life in attempting to overthrow Harold I. In A. D. 1051 Count Eustace of Boulogne, a Norman noble, provoked a difficulty with the men of Dover, in which he was roughly handled; the Dover men belonged to Godwin's earldom, and he refused to punish them until they had had a fair trial by law. This gave mortal offence to King Edward and his party, and Earl Godwin was banished the kingdom. The next year he returned at the head of an armed force, and the Norman knights and priests crossed the channel in hot haste. Edward was obliged to sanction the return of Godwin, but the earl died soon after his success. He was succeeded in his rank and power by his son Harold, who became the real ruler of the kingdom, and won himself a considerable name by his victories over

the Welsh. Edward died in 1066, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, which he had completed just before his death. He was a poor king, and neglected his duties as a ruler to an extent which brought much suffering upon his people. He was a pious man according to the fashion of the times, and a liberal patron of the church, for which reason the monks soon canonized him, and gave him the title of "the Confessor," by which he is known in history. Yet bad as his reign was, the misery which the English endured under their Norman masters caused them ere long to look back to it with regret.

Upon the death of Edward, Harold was chosen king by the Witan, and was crowned the day after Edward's burial. His right to the crown was disputed by William, Duke of Normandy, the illegitimate son of Robert the Devil, and the cousin of Edward the Confessor. The duke claimed that King Edward had promised that he should be his successor, and that Harold, being once in Normandy, had sworn a solemn oath to recognize and support William as King of England. Upon receiving the news of Harold's accession the duke prepared to maintain his claim by force of arms. To gain for his cause the moral support of Christendom, William sent an embassy to the pope, asking his blessing upon his expedition. Hildebrand, then Archdeacon of Rome, warmly supported his request, as he knew that a Norman conquest of England would be the means of bringing the English Church into more complete subjection to Rome. Pope Alexander II., under Hildebrand's influence, declared William the lawful King of England, and sent him a consecrated banner to lead his attack upon that country. William collected an army of 60,000 men and a fleet of 3,000 vessels. The prestige acquired by the Normans in their conquest of southern Italy made all the adventurous spirits of the time eager to follow the banners of the chieftains of this race, and when William announced

his intention of invading England, volunteers flocked to him from all parts of Europe. With this force he set sail from St. Valery in September, 1066.

In the meantime Harold had been obliged to defend his throne against an invasion of the Norwegians led by their king, Harold Hardrada, that is, "Stern in Council," a man of gigantic stature and one of the



BATTLE OF HASTINGS—DEATH OF HAROLD.

bravest warriors of his day. He was joined by Tostig, the brother of the English king, who had been banished by King Edward for his tyrannical government of Northumberland. After a gallant resistance of some months the English Harold attacked the invaders at Stamford Bridge on the 25th of September, and defeated them with heavy loss, the Norwegian king and Tostig being among the slain. Harold celebrated his victory by a great feast at York, in the midst of which he was informed that

William of Normandy and his army had landed without resistance at Pevensey on the coast of Sussex. He at once marched to meet this new danger, and on the 14th of October the two armies met in a decisive battle at Hastings. Harold was slain, and his army was utterly routed, with the loss of its best and bravest troops. The Thanes and household troops, disdainful to fly, were slaughtered almost to a man around their fallen standard. The next day the mother of Harold begged the body of her son from the conqueror, but was refused. The monks of Waltham, however, aided by "Edith of the swan's neck," a former favorite of Harold, found it amongst the heaps of slain and gave it Christian burial. The people of London attempted to make Edgar Atheling, the grandson of Edmund Ironside, king, but being unsupported by the rest of the country, they acknowledged William as their sovereign, and he was crowned king at Westminster on Christmas day, A. D. 1066. At a later period the king built Battle Abbey, near Hastings, in memory of his victory over Harold.

CHAPTER III.

FROM WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR TO EDWARD I.

William the Conqueror King of England—Introduction of the Feudal System into England—Revolt of the English—It is Put Down by William—Northern England Conquered—Subjection of the English Church—Domesday Book—Character of William the Conqueror—His Death—William Rufus King—His Tyrannical Reign—His Death—Henry I. Seizes the Kingdom—The Charter of Liberties—His Able Reign—Settles a Colony of Flemings in Wales—Death of Henry—The Empress Matilda—Stephen of Blois Seizes the English Crown—War with Scotland—Settlement of the Quarrel between Stephen and Matilda—Henry II, King—His Power—Restores Order to the Kingdom—His Domestic Troubles—The Constitutions of Clarendon—Murder of Thomas à Becket—The English Conquer Ireland—Rebellions of Henry's Sons—Henry Does Penance at the Shrine of Thomas à Becket—Conquers Scotland—Death of Henry—Richard Cœur de Lion King—Joins the Crusade—Is Made Prisoner by Austria on his Return Home—Prince John—Richard Regains his Freedom—His Death—John Becomes King—His Quarrel with France—Murder of Prince Arthur—England Loses Normandy—John Quarrels with the Pope—Stephen Langton—John Excommunicated—Submits to the Pope—Makes England a Fief of the Holy See—Wars with the Barons—Magna Charta—The French Invasion—Death of John—Henry III, King—His Reign—The Provisions of Oxford—Settlement of the Quarrel between the King and the Barons—The Earl of Leicester Summons a Parliament—Rise of the House of Commons—Prince Edward Defeats Leicester at Eversham—Death of Henry III.

THE Duke of Normandy was now King of England as William I., surnamed "the Conqueror," but he was not yet master of the kingdom. Southern England alone had been overcome, but the west and north still held out against him. Upon taking possession of the southern counties he claimed all the land as feudal lord of the country, and at once proceeded to parcel it out among his followers as military fiefs. The result was that few of the native English were allowed to retain their lands, and many of the great landowners were either reduced to the grade of small holders, or were beggared. Every man held his land direct from the king, and the feudal system was thus instantaneously put in full force in England. Six months after the battle of Hastings William returned to Normandy to look after his affairs there, leaving England under Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, and William Fitz-Osbern, his lieutenants. Their tyrannical course drove the English to despair, and William upon his return found the better part of the country in arms against him. The English were not disheartened, but they were divided, without a common leader or a general plan of operations. Their desultory efforts could accomplish nothing definite against such an able commander as William. They were aided by forces from Denmark, but beyond a few trifling successes their operations availed them nothing. Yet it cost William four years of hard and almost constant fighting to get possession of the whole land. In order to crush out the resistance of the north country, the king deliberately laid waste the whole region between York and Durham. For nine years it was a desert, no man having the heart to cultivate the blasted fields or rebuild the ruined towns. This savage cruelty was so successful that William treated the region between the Tyne and the Tees and Cheshire in the same way. Chester was the last city which yielded to him. When the winter came on the sufferings of the people were frightful, and as many as 100,000 persons are said to have died before the end of the season. Only one band of patriots now remained in arms against the Norman—the "outlaws" of the isle of Ely, led by Hereward, "the last of the English," but these too at length became disheartened, and submitted.

William at first seems to have endeavored

to rule England with justice. He was a stern and determined ruler as well, and in the end he became avaricious and grasping, careless of the oppression inflicted upon his people, so it brought him money. He made Lanfranc, a Lombard monk, who was esteemed the most learned man in Europe, Archbishop of Canterbury. Lanfranc gradually displaced the native prelates and higher clergy, and supplied their places with foreigners, and thus brought the English Church into complete submission to the pope. In 1085 William ordered the making of *Domesday Book*, "a general survey of all the lands in the kingdom, their extent in each district, their proprietors, tenures, value; the quantity of meadow, pasture, wood and arable land which they contained; and, in some counties, the number of tenants, cottagers, and slaves of all denominations, who lived upon them." This was a really useful work, but it was regarded with great dislike by the people as a step towards an increase of their taxes.

In person William was noble and commanding until his last years, when he became very corpulent. His mental vigor was equalled by his bodily strength. He was as brave as a lion, and as quick in action. He could be generous and courteous when he chose, and equally cruel and brutal at will. He could never learn English, though he made an earnest effort to do so. He was married to Matilda, the daughter of Baldwin, Count of Flanders, to whom he bore a devoted affection to the end of his life. His last years were spent in Normandy. We have already related his quarrel with the King of France in the history of that country, and the cause of his death. When dying he is said to have

expressed great contrition for his cruel treatment of the north of England. He left Normandy and Maine to Robert, his elder son, who had several times rebelled against him; and England to his second son, William, A. D. 1087.

William II., surnamed Rufus, or the Red, from his ruddy complexion, was



WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

crowned King of England on the 26th of September, seventeen days after the death of his father. An attempt was made by a party, headed by Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, to secure England for Robert of Normandy, the conqueror's elder son, but William made such fine promises to the English that they embraced his cause heartily, and enabled him to end the rebellion. They soon had cause to repent their choice.

William Rufus was his father's equal in courage, but his inferior in everything else. He broke every promise he had made to the English, and, in place of the light taxes they had been told to expect, they were required to bear the heaviest burdens to supply the extravagant wants of the king. "Wherever the king and the court went they did as much damage as an invading army, for the royal followers lived at free quarters on the country people, and often repaid their hosts by plundering and selling their property, and, in wanton insolence, washing their own horses' legs with the liquor they did not drink."

In A. D. 1090 William attempted to wrest Normandy from his brother Robert, but without success. Becoming reconciled, the two brothers turned their arms against their younger brother, Henry, whom they worsted. An invasion of the Scots, under their King Malcolm, recalled William to England. Malcolm was induced to make peace and to do homage to William for his crown. In 1093 the Scottish king invaded England a second time, but was defeated and slain. To guard against such incursions, William rebuilt Carlisle, which had long been in ruins, erected a strong castle there, and settled the place with colonists from the south of England. A few years later Normandy, which he had again undertaken to conquer, became his possession in an unexpected manner. Duke Robert, wishing to join the crusade, mortgaged his duchy to his brother William for five years for the sum of 10,000 marks. With this money he joined the army of the cross, and William entered into possession of Normandy. In A. D. 1100, while hunting in the New Forest, in England, William was shot by an arrow from some unknown hand and slain. Walter Tyrell, one of the hunting party, was suspected of the murder, but he always denied it, though he fled the kingdom. The king's body was conveyed by a poor charcoal-burner in his cart to Westminster, where it was buried without religious rites.

Henry, the youngest son of the Conqueror, seized the throne immediately upon the death of William Rufus, and was crowned King of England three days after his brother's death, thus forestalling his elder brother Robert, who was loitering on his way home from the Holy Land. He conciliated all parties by an act which he termed the *Charter of Liberties*, in which

he bound himself not to sell the vacant benefices of the church, nor to lease them; to exempt his vassals from certain exactions and restrictions, on condition that the barons granted a similar relief to their own vassals, and to confirm and put in force the laws of Edward the Confessor. He removed the evil companions of his brother Rufus from the positions to which that king had appointed them, and recalled Anselm to the See of Canterbury. He won the support of the Scots by marrying Edith, the daughter of Malcolm, King of Scotland, who, upon her marriage, took the Norman name of Matilda.

Robert of Normandy, relying upon the support of the nobles, the majority of whom were hostile to Henry, invaded England, and attempted to get possession of the throne. The English people stood by King Henry, and Robert was compelled to yield without a battle. Henry then set to work to reduce the barons to a more perfect submission to the crown, an object which he effectually accomplished during the remainder of his reign. In 1106 he invaded Normandy; defeated and made his brother Robert a prisoner, and gained possession of the duchy. He kept Robert a captive at Cardiff Castle until his death in 1135. A quarrel ensued about this time between the king and Archbishop Anselm, upon the claim of the king that the bishops and abbots should be nominated by the sovereign and be the vassals of the crown. Anselm defended the right of the pope to make such nominations without interference, and in the end Henry was obliged to yield somewhat of his pretensions, and the power of the pope was thus strengthened in England. Henry planted a colony of Flemings in Wales, in the district of Ross in Pembrokeshire. The Flemish settlers devoted themselves to the culture of the soil and the manufacture of cloth. They increased rapidly in numbers and prosperity, and though the Welsh princes endeavored to expel them they succeeded in holding their own against them. William the Conqueror and Rufus had endeavored to restrain the Welsh within their borders by erecting strong castles for the defence of the country, but Henry's wise policy of raising up a brave and industrious border population furnished England with a more effectual barrier in this quarter.

In 1118 Queen Matilda, "the Good," died, and two years later the young Prince William, the only son of Henry and Ma-

tilda, was drowned at sea. The only daughter by this marriage was Matilda, or Maude, who was married to the Emperor Henry V. of Germany. The death of that monarch left her a widow in 1125. Henry I. of England married Adelais of Louvain, after the death of Queen Matilda, but the marriage proved childless. In the absence of male heirs Henry settled the English and Norman crowns upon his daughter, the Empress Matilda, and compelled the barons to swear fidelity to her. To secure her power, and to increase the influence of England on the continent, Henry married Matilda, much against her will, to Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, a youth of sixteen. On the 1st of December, 1135, Henry died, while on a visit to Normandy. He was the only one of the Conqueror's sons that was born in England, and was one of the firmest and most vigorous sovereigns that ever governed that country. Though he was in many respects harsh and tyrannical, he was, according to the times, a good king. He improved the administration of justice, and granted charters to the towns. He punished robbery, by whomsoever committed, with a stern hand, and made life and property safe in England. He thus won the hearty support of the English, who gratefully treasured his memory in spite of the heavy burdens he laid upon them and of his distrust of them, which prevented him from ever appointing an Englishman to office.

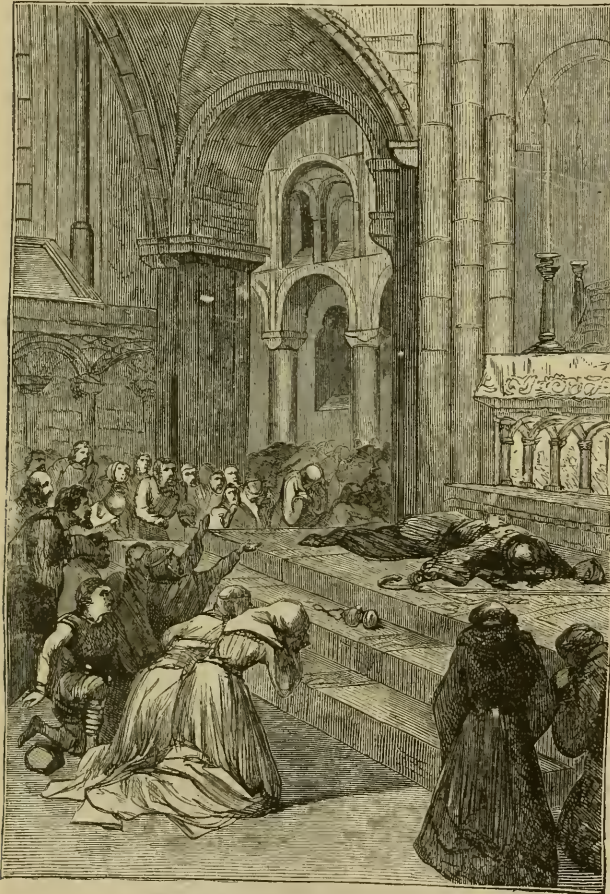
Upon the death of Henry I., Stephen of Blois, Count of Boulogne, claimed the crown, and was elected king and crowned at Westminster. The barons, who disliked both Matilda and her husband, gave Stephen their support, and the king, once master of the treasures left by Henry I., was able to purchase the assistance of a large force of mercenaries. War soon broke out between the king and the partisans of Matilda. Her uncle, King David of Scotland, invaded England several times in her behalf, but was utterly routed at the "Battle of the Standard," in August, 1138. Stephen did not derive much advantage from this success, however. As soon as his money gave out the barons began to throw off his authority. The kingdom fell into a state of anarchy, and the barons, secure in their strong castles, plundered the country and levied contributions upon the towns with impunity. In 1139 the Empress Matilda landed in England, and immediately a

fierce civil war burst upon the kingdom, and continued until 1153, when, by the intervention of the bishops, a treaty was arranged by which Stephen, who had recently lost his son and heir, Eustace, was allowed to retain the crown until his death, when it was to pass to Henry, the eldest son of Matilda and Geoffrey. Stephen died on the 25th of October, 1154, and England passed to the house of Anjou by the accession of Henry II. to the throne.

The reign of Henry II. is one of the most important in English history. He was a great prince before his accession to the throne of England, and was twenty-one years old at the time. He was Count of Anjou by birth; from his mother he inherited Normandy and Maine; and having married Eleanor of Aquitaine a few weeks after her divorce from Louis VII. of France, he added the duchy of Aquitaine and the county of Poitou, which she brought him, to his other possessions. Thus, though he was a vassal of the French king, he was more powerful than his sovereign, or than the French king and all the crown vassals combined. His accession to the English throne made him a dangerous rival to France. He was a man of hard, practical sense; of great energy and firmness of will, and had been carefully educated. He was fond of the company of learned men, and in many respects was a man of broad, liberal views. He devoted himself to the task of restoring order to the sadly distracted kingdom of England, and not only compelled the barons to yield obedience to the civil law, but succeeded in obliterating to a great extent the distinction which had previously existed between Norman and Englishman. He was the founder of good government in England, and provided for the impartial administration of justice by dividing the kingdom into circuits, and appointing faithful judges over them. He established a competent militia force by requiring every freeman to provide himself with arms according to his position. In his reign the payment of *scutage*, or money paid by military tenants for exemption from service, was first introduced. Yet though so admirable a king, Henry's private life was unhappy. His fierce and ungovernable temper often brought him into trouble, and his marriage, which was entirely one of policy on his part, was an unfortunate one, and the jealousy of his wife embittered his life and was productive of the most serious results.

In 1162 Henry caused his friend Thomas á Becket, the chancellor, to be elected Archbishop of Canterbury. Becket immediately abandoned his former pomp, and embracing habits of great austerity, made himself the uncompromising champion of the pope's supremacy in England. Henry resented this. The conqueror had granted to the clergy the right to be tried for their offences by ecclesiastical courts. Henry now sought

he was protected by Louis VII. For six years Becket remained in exile. In 1170 Henry, wishing to secure the succession of his eldest son Henry, had him crowned. Becket and Pope Alexander III. declared that the Archbishop of Canterbury alone possessed the right to crown the English sovereign, and the quarrel between Henry II. and the archbishop was thus intensified. Nevertheless, shortly after, influenced either



MURDER OF THOMAS Á BECKET.

to bring them under the rule of the civil law, and in spite of the opposition of the archbishop, secured the passage of a series of measures for this purpose, known as the Constitutions of Clarendon (because of their adoption at that place by an assembly of nobles and prelates), in January, 1164. The pope refused to give his consent to the constitutions, and Henry turned upon Becket with such fury that the archbishop was obliged to take refuge in France, where

by his fear of the consequences of the pope's hostility, or by the mediation of Louis VII. of France, Henry consented to allow Becket to return to England. The archbishop came back as haughty and determined as ever, and immediately caused it to be known that he brought with him the sentence of excommunication pronounced by the pope against the Archbishop of York and two other bishops, who had taken part in the coronation of Henry "the Younger King." When this was made known to Henry II., he burst into one of his fearful fits of rage, and exclaimed furiously, "what cowards have I brought up in my court! not one will deliver me from this low-born priest." Four gentlemen of his household, Reginald Fitz-Urse, William de Tracy, Hugh de Moreville, and Richard Brito, took him at his word, and proceeding to England, repaired to Canterbury, where they slew the archbishop before the altar of his own cathedral, and retired without meeting any opposition, December 11th, 1170. Thus died one of the most remarkable men England has ever produced, "a prelate of the most lofty, intrepid, and inflexible spirit, who was able to cover to the world, and probably to himself, the enterprises of pride and ambition under the disguise of sanctity, and of zeal for the interests of religion."

Henry had intended to arrest Becket, but the news of his murder filled him with consternation. He protested his innocence of complicity in the deed, and his oath was accepted by the pope. In this dilemma he

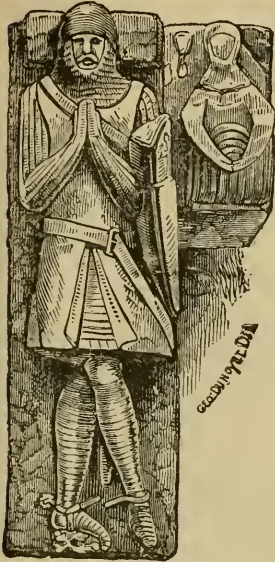
was obliged to yield to the church some of the privileges for which Becket had contended. Becket was canonized by the pope under the title of St. Thomas of Canterbury.

One of the principal events of Henry's reign was the conquest of Ireland by the English. Immediately upon coming to the throne Pope Adrian IV., the only Englishman that ever sat on the papal throne, granted Henry authority to invade and conquer Ireland, thus exercising his claim to bestow of right the kingdoms of this world upon whom he pleased. Nothing came of this until

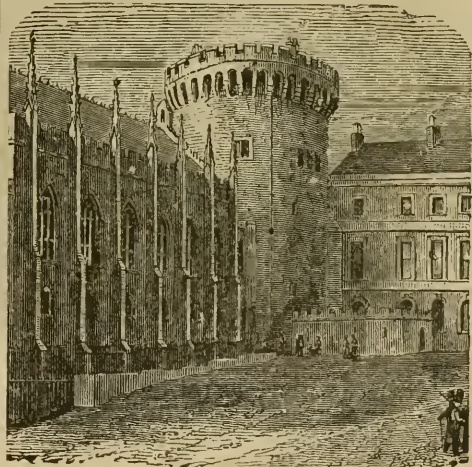
1169, when Richard of Clare, Earl of Pembroke, better known as "Strongbow," aided by a number of English, conquered the island for Dermot of Leinster, a fugitive Irish king, who had sought Henry's assistance. Strongbow married Dermot's daughter Eva, and upon the death of that king assumed the royal title. This action was resented by Henry, and Strongbow prudently relinquished his conquests to the English king, who visited Ireland in 1171. The sovereignty of Henry was generally acknowledged, and in 1175 Roderick of Connaught, the head King of Ireland, did him homage for his crown. From this time Ireland was regarded as a possession of the English crown. The English authority was merely nominal, however, and for centuries Ireland remained in a state of utter anarchy, torn by the contentions of the English lords and the Irish chiefs.

The last years of Henry II. were embittered by the quarrels of his sons with himself and with each other. Eleanor of Aquitaine, who had disgusted her first husband with her infidelities, produced a similar effect upon Henry by her jealousy. Thoroughly discontented herself, she in-

duced her sons to rebel against their father, whom they endeavored to deprive of his crown and his dominions. In 1173 a league was formed against him by his sons, the Kings of France and Scotland, and many of the nobles of England and Normandy. Henry, who was an indulgent father, was deeply wounded by the conduct of his sons, and was induced by the clergy to believe that his misfortunes were caused by the Divine wrath for the murder of St. Thomas, as Becket was now called. He therefore permitted himself to be induced to make a pilgrimage to the shrine of the martyr at Canterbury, and there submitted to be scourged by the monks, as penance for Becket's death. Returning to London, he learned that on the day after his penance William the Lion of Scotland had been beaten and captured at Aluwick. The king now took heart, supposing that Heaven and Thomas & Becket had granted him forgiveness. The rebellion was soon crushed. The King of Scots was compelled to surrender the ancient independence of his crown as the price of his liberty. Scotland was made a great fief of the English crown, and the Scottish lords, spiritual and temporal, were obliged to swear to support the English king even against their own sovereign. In the next reign these galling



STRONGBOW'S MONUMENT.



THE TOWER—DUBLIN CASTLE.

conditions were remitted for a consideration, and England retained only a nominal sovereignty over Scotland.

Henry had now extricated himself from his difficulties, with honor, but he did not long enjoy peace. In 1183 his sons made

war upon him again and quarrelled with each other as well. Henry "the Younger King," who had been led into the struggle against his inclination, died in June of that year, imploring his father's forgiveness. Henry now endeavored to effect a settlement with his remaining sons, but Richard refused to submit. Geoffrey was pardoned, and Richard soon made his submission. In 1185 Geoffrey, the most violent and vicious of all Henry's sons, rebelled again, but was killed in a tournament at Paris,

and which have been stated in the French history of this century. He demanded to see a list of the barons who had supported Richard against him, and whom he was bound by the treaty to pardon. At the head of the list he saw with horror the name of his youngest and favorite son John, upon whom he had showered kindness and affection. Already broken down with sorrow and mortification, this fresh blow was more than he could bear, and uttering a bitter curse upon his children, which he could never be persuaded to retract, he retired to the Castle of Chinon, near Saumur, where he died on the 6th of July, 1189.

Henry was succeeded by his second son, Richard I., surnamed *Cœur de Lion*, or "the Lion-hearted," whose rebellion had brought King Henry to his grave. Richard's penitence for the death of his father was lasting, and was productive of good for England, for, discarding the men who had aided his rebellion, he continued in office the faithful ministers of Henry II., and made them his counsellors and friends. Soon after he began his reign, Richard, having raised the necessary means by the sale of titles, offices of state, and crown lands, set out with Philip Augustus of France, in the summer of 1190, for Pales-



RICHARD CŒUR DE LION.

the next year. Soon after his death his widow was delivered of a son, named Arthur, whom Henry invested with the duchy of Brittany, of which he was, as Duke of Normandy, the feudal lord. In 1188 Richard, encouraged by Philip of France, again rebelled and made himself master of his father's foreign dominions. Henry, greatly disheartened by the constant rebellions of his children, made but a feeble resistance, and submitted to the shameful terms of peace which his enemies imposed upon him,

to take part in the Third Crusade. He so greatly distinguished himself by his feats of valor and daring, that he became the hero of the crusade and won the jealous enmity of Philip, who soon went home and began his schemes for getting possession of the continental dominions of Richard. Richard, indignant at the lack of zeal on the part of the crusading princes, disgusted them with his arrogance. Unable to accomplish anything, and having fallen ill of a fever, which nearly ended his life, he

made a truce with Saladin, the sultan. Receiving news that his brother John and the French King Philip were plotting to deprive him of his crown and his dominions, he abandoned the crusade and set out for England.

Upon leaving England Richard had placed his kingdom under the rule of the chancellor, William Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, who, becoming unpopular with the

tive to the Emperor Henry VI., who loaded him with irons and imprisoned him in a castle in the Tyrol. In the end he was brought before the diet and accused of having procured the assassination of Conrad, Marquis of Montferrat, a fellow-crusader. Richard easily refuted this charge, but the emperor refused to release him, until the pope's threat of excommunication and the growing indignation of the German princes



RICHARD BEFORE THE GERMAN DIET.

English, was deposed by the barons, who placed the king's younger brother, John, at the head of the government. John, by nature treacherous and base, was soon induced by Philip Augustus of France to attempt to seize the throne. The news of this determined Richard, as has been stated, to leave Palestine. In passing through Austria, on his way home, he was seized by Duke Leopold, with whom he had quarrelled in Palestine. Leopold sold his cap-

compelled him to do so. He then gave Richard his liberty on payment of a ransom so heavy that the vassals of the king were obliged to raise it by the payment of one-fourth of their incomes. The captivity of the king lasted over a year, and he was set free in February, 1194. John, who had endeavored to induce the emperor to retain Richard in captivity, was startled by the announcement from Philip—"Take care of yourself, for the devil is let loose." Rich-

ard, however, inflicted no punishment on John beyond depriving him of his lands and castles. In 1199, while besieging the castle of the Viscount of Limoges, at Chaluz, Richard was mortally wounded, and the hero of the Third Crusade perished in a private quarrel.

Richard I. was in no sense an Englishman. A Frenchman by birth, education, and character, he made England his place of abode but twice during his reign, and then for a few months only. He was of heroic stature, of noble and commanding appearance, and was possessed of unusual strength and the most indomitable courage, and of great endurance. He inherited the fierce and ungovernable temper of his father, and was haughty, cruel, domineering, revengeful, and ambitious; but he was also open, frank, generous, sincere, and brave. He was passionately fond of military enterprises, and dearly loved the glory to be won in them. He cared little for the English, and his treatment of them was oppressive and arbitrary, but he is the hero of English romance and his fame is cherished by the English people even to this day. He married Berengaria of Navarre soon after his accession to the throne, but she bore him no children.

John, the youngest son of Henry II., became King of England at the death of his brother Richard. He was a weak, cowardly, cruel and incompetent ruler, and his reign was one of continued misfortune for England. His title was disputed in Normandy by his nephew Arthur, Duke of Brittany, the son of his elder brother Geoffrey, whose cause was espoused by Philip of France.

Philip Augustus was unable at first to render any active assistance to Arthur of Brittany against King John, but the abduction by John of Isabella of Angoulême, the affianced bride of the Count de la Marche, gave Philip an opportunity of making good his promise to Arthur. In the war which ensued, and which has been related in the French history of this period, John captured Arthur and a number of his adherents. Some of the latter were starved to death, and Arthur, it was believed at the time, was stabbed by John himself in the Castle of Rouen, A. D. 1203. Philip summoned John before his court to answer for his crime, and upon his refusal to appear declared all his fiefs forfeit to the crown of France. He followed up this sentence by

the conquest of Normandy and all John's other possessions in France, save the duchy of Aquitaine and the Channel islands. In the end this loss proved a great gain for England. Her sovereigns being deprived of their continental territories were compelled to confine their attention to England, and thus became Englishmen, and no longer French princes ruling England.

This war had scarcely come to a close when John became involved in a quarrel with Pope Innocent III. The cause of the dispute was the mode of electing the Archbishop of Canterbury. The king claimed that the right of election lay with the bishops of the province; the pope asserted that this right belonged exclusively to the monks of Christ's Church, Canterbury, and these at his command elected to that dignity an Englishman named Stephen Langton, then in Rome. John refused to recognize the election, and Innocent resorted to his usual weapon. He laid the kingdom under an interdict, A. D. 1207. The pope was fully aware of the king's unpopularity with the nobles, and resolved to proceed against him with great vigor. The power of the king was so great that he forced the clergy to disregard the interdict, and in 1212 Innocent took the extreme step of excommunicating him. He offered the English crown to Philip of France, who prepared to attempt the conquest of England. In this dilemma, hated by the people and unsupported by the barons, the courage of John failed him. His terror was greatly increased by the prediction of a hermit of Pomfret, named Peter, that the king should lose his crown within the year. John made an humble submission to the pope, accepted Stephen Langton as Archbishop of Canterbury, and resigning his crown into the hands of the papal legate, received it from him again as a vassal of the Holy See, May 15th, 1213. The legate received this humiliating surrender in a manner which made it all the more galling to the English, and then went over to France and put a stop to Philip's plans of invasion, as England was now a fief of the Holy See. John vented his mortification upon poor Peter of Pomfret, whom he hanged for a false prophet, notwithstanding the man averred that his prophecy had been fulfilled by John's voluntary loss of the royal and independent crown and his acceptance of the position of a vassal.

John now attempted to compel his barons

to aid him in his projects against France for the recovery of the provinces won from him by Philip, but they refused to accompany him by Philip, but they refused to accom- severity to abandon his purpose. He then completed his reconciliation with the church, and the interdict was removed by the pope



KING JOHN SURRENDERS HIS CROWN TO THE PAPAL LEGATE.

pany him. The king then threatened to make war upon them for their refusal, but the Archbishop of Canterbury compelled him by the menace of more ecclesiastical on payment of 40,000 marks. John then went to France and engaged in a feeble and fruitless attempt against Philip, in which he had not the courage to risk a battle.

He was compelled to purchase a five years' peace by the payment of 60,000 marks.

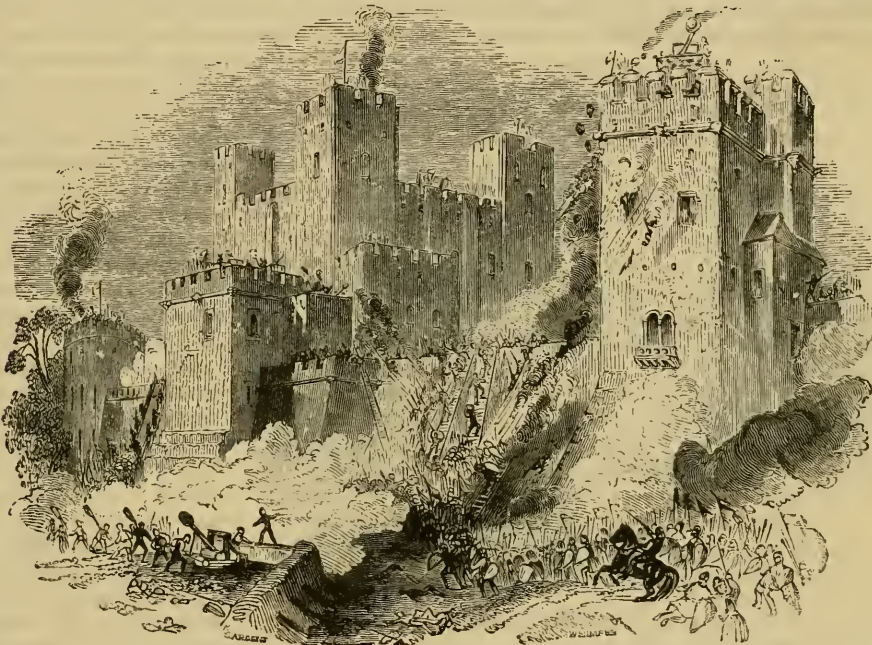
John returned to England to find the kingdom almost in a state of rebellion. His tyranny had arrayed the barons and people against him, and had caused even Archbishop Langton and the English Church to make common cause with the barons. Langton, indeed, was the soul of the movement, and had formed the design of reforming the government and rectifying the abuses which the church in common with the whole people suffered. Under the pretext of devotion he summoned a meeting of the nobles at St. Edmundsbury on the 20th of November, 1214, and all present swore to withdraw their allegiance from John if he refused their demands. On the day appointed, the barons appeared in London, and demanded of the king his acceptance of the measures proposed by them. John asked for a delay, and promised them an answer to their petition at the next Easter. During the interval John appealed to the pope, who encouraged him to refuse the demand of the barons, and, thus inspired, the king swore a furious oath that he would not grant them liberties which would reduce him to slavery. The barons at once proceeded to levy war upon the king, and having gained possession of London, compelled him to submit. A conference between them was held at Runnymede, a meadow between Windsor and Stains, on the 15th of June, 1215, and John was compelled to sign the charter embodying their demands. Thus was won *Magna Charta*, or "The Great Charter," which is still regarded as the foundation of the liberties of England. This famous deed granted or secured important liberties and privileges to the three orders of the English people—to the clergy, to the nobles, and to the commons. The liberties of the church were secured by the first clause, which granted the clergy freedom of election; removed the restrictions upon appeals to Rome; and regulated the extent of the fines which should be imposed upon the clergy. The grievances of the barons as tenants of the crown were remedied by other clauses, and among these provisions it was specified that "no scutage or aid (assistance in money from a vassal to his lord) except in the three general feudal cases, the king's captivity, the knighting of his eldest son, and the marrying of his eldest daughter, shall be imposed, but by the great council of the kingdom." Meas-

ures were also inserted to prevent the arbitrary seizures of the lands of the nobles by the crown. Having thus secured their own rights, the barons, to their honor, went a step farther, and placed the liberties of the commons on as sound a basis. "It was ordained that all the privileges and immunities above mentioned," says Hume, "granted to the barons against the king, should be extended by the barons to their inferior vassals. The king bound himself not to grant any writ, empowering a baron to levy aid from his vassals, except in the three feudal cases. One weight and one measure shall be established throughout the kingdom. Merchants shall be allowed to transact all business, without being exposed to any arbitrary tolls and impositions; they, and all freemen, shall be allowed to go out of the kingdom and return to it at pleasure; London, and all cities and burghs, shall preserve their ancient liberties, immunities and free customs; aids shall not be required of them but by the consent of the great council; no towns or individuals shall be obliged to make or support bridges, but by ancient custom; the goods of every freeman shall be disposed of according to his will; if he die intestate, his heirs shall succeed to them. No officer of the crown shall take any horses, carts, or wood, without the consent of the owner. The king's courts of justice shall be stationary, shall no longer follow his person; they shall be open to every one; and justice shall no longer be sold, refused, or delayed by them. Circuits shall be regularly held every year: the inferior tribunals of justice, the county court, sheriff's turn, and courtleet, shall meet at their appointed time and place: the sheriff shall be incapacitated to hold pleas of the crown; and shall not put any person upon his trial from rumor or suspicion alone, but upon the evidence of lawful witnesses. No freeman shall be taken, imprisoned, or dispossessed of his free tenement and liberties, or outlawed, or banished, or anywise hurt or injured, unless by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land; and all who suffered otherwise in this or the two former reigns shall be restored to their rights and possessions. Every freeman shall be fined in proportion to his fault; and no fine shall be levied on him to his utter ruin: even a villain, or rustic, shall not, by any fine, be bereaved of his carts, ploughs, and implements of husbandry."

John signed the charter with seeming

cheerfulness, but as soon as he was rid of the presence of the barons he burst into a rage against them, and appealed to the pope, who annulled the charter, and threatened the king with excommunication if he observed his part of the agreement, and the barons with the same penalty if they demanded such observance. Undismayed by this threat the barons prepared to enforce the terms of the charter, and the sentence of excommunication was fulminated against them. Archbishop Langton courageously refused to pronounce it, and was suspended from his office by the pope. The king imported a force of mercenary soldiers from

1216. He was joyfully received in London, and seemed on the point of carrying everything before him when John suddenly died at Newark, on the 18th of October, 1216, leaving behind him the reputation of the worst of English kings. John's eldest son by his second wife, Isabella of Angoulême, was a child of ten years. He was crowned at Gloucester ten days later by the royalists, and began his reign as Henry III. Louis had alarmed his supporters by granting English lands to his French followers, and they abandoned him, and joined the party of Henry. The young king was intrusted to the guardianship of William, Earl



SIEGE OF ROCHESTER CASTLE BY KING JOHN.

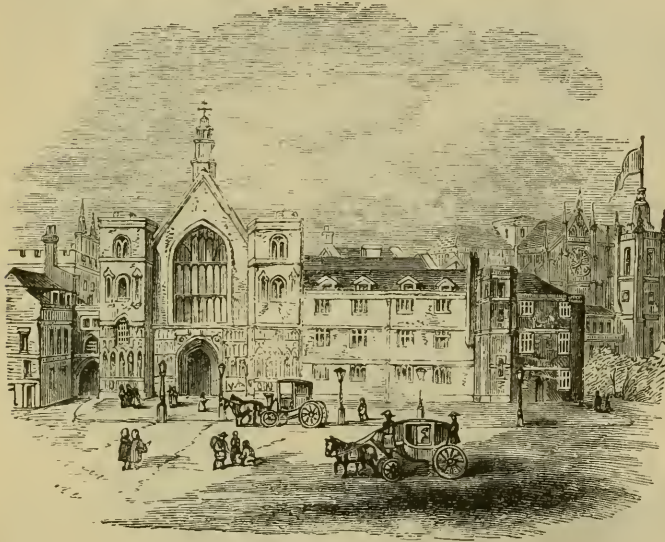
the continent, and made war upon the barons. He conducted his operations with ferocious cruelty. The advantage lay with the king, for the barons having no capable leader were not able to act with harmony or to oppose any regular opposition to the royal arms. They sought the alliance of Alexander II., King of Scots, but John compelled that monarch to confine himself to his own kingdom. In this emergency the barons invited Prince Louis, the son of Philip Augustus of France, who had married John's niece, Blanche of Castile, the granddaughter of Henry II., to come over and claim the crown. Louis accepted the invitation, and arrived in England in May,

of Pembroke, an able statesman and a good soldier, and under his vigorous direction Louis was defeated in two battles—one fought in the streets of Lincoln, in which the English were commanded by Pembroke in person, and one off Dover between an English squadron and a superior French fleet. Abandoned by his English followers, and reduced to despair, Louis was obliged to make peace. He surrendered his claims to the English crown and promised never to repass the channel, and was allowed to withdraw into France. The Scotch King Alexander II. and the Welsh Prince Llewelyn were obliged to acknowledge Henry as their feudal lord.

At the age of twenty-nine Henry married Eleanor, daughter of the Count of Provence, a beautiful and accomplished princess. She failed to win her people's friendship, however, in consequence of her partiality for foreigners. Henry also came in for a share of this unpopularity, as he manifested the greatest affection for the strangers who came to England with his wife, and lavished gifts upon them with the most imprudent generosity. The Provençals, on their part, behaved with such haughtiness and disregard of the law as to make the English detest them still more heartily. The gifts lavished upon them by Henry, and the large sums demanded by the king upon the birth of his eldest son

money from England, and the barons, alarmed at the steady drain upon the resources of the kingdom, compelled Henry to agree to the appointment of a commission of twenty-four persons, half to be chosen by themselves and half by the crown, for the purpose of devising some measures of relief. The commission thus appointed drew up a series of measures known as "the Provisions of Oxford," by which the royal authority was greatly curtailed by being placed in the hands of a council appointed by themselves. Henry was obliged to submit at first, but he availed himself of the first opportunity to recover his power. The result was a war between the king and the barons. The barons had gone too far, and

had sought to make the king merely their slave. The spirit of the English people was roused against the new oligarchy which thus came into power, and they rallied to the support of the crown with such vigor that Henry was enabled to take the field with a fair force. The barons made an alliance with the Welsh, and won such advantages over the king that the parties were at length about evenly balanced. At this juncture both parties agreed to submit their differences to the arbitration of the good Louis IX. of France. The decision



OLD WESTMINSTER HALL.

Edward, gave such offence to the people of the city of London that they frequently indulged in open manifestations of their dislike for the court. Another source of trouble was the greediness with which Rome exacted heavy sums of money from the English. The pope claimed the right to tax the clergy, and a year rarely passed without some heavy demand from him. The pope also induced Henry to accept for his second son, Edmund, the crown of the Sicilian kingdom, and as this crown could be obtained only by the conquest of that kingdom, Henry bound himself to pay the cost of the war for it. It at length became apparent to the king as well as to the barons that the Holy See was simply using the Sicilian war as a pretext to extort

of Louis was that the king should be restored the rights and possessions of which he had been unlawfully and violently dispossessed by the barons. At the same time he provided for the rights of the people by ordering a general amnesty for all past offences, and declaring that "his award was not anywise meant to derogate from the privileges and liberties which the nation enjoyed by any former concessions or charters of the crown." This equitable sentence was accepted by the king, but was rejected by the barons, and the civil war began again.

The leader of the barons was Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, the son of that Simon who had conquered Languedoc and persecuted the Albigenes. He had become

Earl of Leicester in right of his mother, had married the Princess Eleanor, the sister of Henry III., and had become as good an Englishman as any of his confederates. He was ambitious and unscrupulous, and threw himself with great heartiness into the effort to humble the royal authority. He was also an able commander, and defeated the king in the battle of Lewes, on the 14th of May, 1264, and captured his eldest son Edward, and his brother Richard, King of the Romans. This defeat compelled the king to surrender, and closed the war for a while. The government continued to be administered in the king's name, and he was treated with great outward respect, but he was in reality a prisoner in Earl Simon's hands. The papal legate endeavored, but without success, to induce the earl to release him, and the pope issued a bull of excommunication against the barons. When that instrument arrived at Dover, it was seized by the men of that place and thrown into the sea.

The Earl of Leicester acted as the sole master of the kingdom, and violated nearly every provision of the great charter. The nobles regarded his course with suppressed ill will, and Leicester felt that he could not long maintain affairs in this strange situation. It was clear to him and to all that he must either descend, with some peril, into the rank of a subject, or seize the crown, and there was good reason to suspect him of the latter intention. The queen was in France collecting an army of mercenaries for her husband's assistance, and the pope was increasing his efforts to procure the release of the king. The chief element of the strength of Earl Simon was his popularity with the people, which was in a great measure the result of his courageous defiance of Rome. He now resolved to increase this popularity by assembling the great council of the realm, which was already called by the French name of parliament. He gave to it the form which it has since retained. The greater barons, both spiritual and secular, were summoned then as now to attend in person. The freeholders, or smaller tenants of the crown, were ordered to choose two knights to represent each shire or county; and that the people might be fully represented, each city and borough was ordered to elect two of its citizens or burgesses. This was the first time the boroughs and cities had ever been represented in the national council, and is

regarded as the origin of the house of commons. Having secured a parliament to his liking, Leicester inaugurated a series of measures for the increase of his own power which alarmed all classes, destroyed his popularity, and arrayed a strong party against him. The haughty and violent conduct of his sons contributed greatly to this result. Prince Edward about this time managed to escape from Leicester's power, and raising the royal standard, was joined by the royalist party. He soon found himself in a condition to commence hostilities. He surprised and captured Kenilworth Castle, which was held by Simon, the son of Leicester, and then advancing upon the earl himself, defeated him at Evesham on the 4th of August, 1265. Leicester compelled the king to appear in the baronial ranks, and he was nearly slain by his own friends. Leicester himself was killed, and his body was brutally mangled. The defeat of Leicester returned the king to power, and peace being restored, his sons Edward and Edmund went to the Holy Land and engaged in the last crusade. During their absence Henry III. died, on the 16th of November, 1272, and the absent Edward was proclaimed king.

CHAPTER IV.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF EDWARD I. TO THE DEATH OF HENRY VII.

Edward I. King—His Character—Suppresses the Welsh Rebellion—Birth of the First Prince of Wales—Edward Makes John Balliol King of Scotland—Puts Down the Revolt of the Scots and Carries Away their Crown—Sir William Wallace Heads an Uprising of the Scots—His Capture and Execution—Robert Bruce—Becomes King—Death of Edward I.—Edward II.—The Confirmation of the Charters—Sir Piers Gaveston—Marriage of Edward—The Barons Administer the Government—Battle of Bannockburn—Edward Bruce in Ireland—Sir Hugh le Despenser—Rebellion of the Barons—Intrigues of Queen Isabella Against her Husband—Murder of the King—Edward III.—Roger Mortimer and Queen Isabella Obtain the Regency—Edward Seizes the Government—Execution of Mortimer—Edward Claims the French Crown—War with Scotland—The Hundred Years' War Begun—Naval Victory of Sluys—Battle of Crecy—Surrender of Calais—The Black Death—Battle of Poitiers—The Black Prince—Capture of King John of France—Death of the Black Prince and King Edward—Richard II.—Wat Tyler's Rebellion—Weak Reign of Richard—Death of Queen Anne—The King Marries a French Princess—Rebellion of Henry of Bolingbroke—He Becomes King as Henry IV.—The Statute of *Præmunire*—John Wycliffe—The First English Bible—Dawn of the Reformation—Death of Richard II.—Resistance of the Nobles

to the King—Troubles with the Welsh—Defeat of the Scots—Hotspur's Rebellion—Death of Henry—Persecution of the Lollards—The First English Martyr—Henry V. King—Martyrdom of Lord Cobham—Henry Renews the War with France—Capture of Harfleur—Battle of Agincourt—Henry Becomes Regent of France—His Death—Expulsion of the English from France—Henry VI.—The Regency—Marriage of the King—Murder of the Duke of Suffolk—Jack Cade's Rebellion—The Wars of the Roses—Capture of the King—The Duke of York Ascends the Throne as Edward IV.—Battle of Towton—Marriage of the King—The Woodvilles—Rebellion of the Earl of Warwick—Murder of Prince Edward—Death of Henry VI.—Failure of the Invasion of France—Death of Edward IV.—The Duke of Gloucester Murders the Sons of Edward IV., and Makes Himself King as Richard III.—The Earl of Richmond Claims the Crown—Defeats Richard at Bosworth—Henry VII. King—His Marriage—His Extortions—The French Expedition—Perkin Warbeck—Death of the Prince of Wales—Empson and Dudley—Death of the King.

EDWARD I. was a true Englishman, and was the first of a succession of able and powerful sovereigns. He was tall, splendidly formed, and was noted for his skill in knightly exercises. He was also an able statesman and a vigorous ruler. The power of the crown was firmly established in his hands, but he was wise enough to know how far to carry his authority, and when to yield. Soon after his reign began, Edward was called upon to suppress a rebellion of the Welsh. They were forced to submit, but in 1282 rebelled again under their Prince Llewelyn and his brother David, the latter of whom Edward had loaded with favors. The insurrection was crushed, Llewelyn was slain, and David was captured and executed. Edward now united Wales with England, and upon the birth of his eldest son Edward, April 25th, 1284, created him Prince of Wales, a title which has since been conferred on the sovereign's eldest son.

Trouble now broke out between England and Scotland. The latter country was without a king, the old royal line having ceased. The crown was claimed by a number of nobles, the principal of whom were John Balliol and Robert Bruce, both of whom were of Normau descent. Edward was appealed to, to decide between them. He met the Scottish estates at Norham on the 10th of May, 1291. After claiming the allegiance of the Scots as their feudal lord, he decided the controversy in favor of John Balliol, who did him homage for his crown. It was not long, however, before Balliol threw off his allegiance, and

allying himself with France, went to war with England. He so occupied Edward's attention at home that the English king was unable to do anything for the assistance of the Count of Flanders, with whom he had formed an alliance against France. The Scots were defeated by Edward, who deprived Balliol of his crown, and took possession of Scotland as a forfeited fief. He was acknowledged by the Scotch estates, and filled the offices of the kingdom with Englishmen to secure his power. Edward carried away the Scotch crown and regalia, and among other things a fragment of rock which had been kept at Scone, and on which the Scottish kings had always stood to be crowned. It was popularly believed to be the pillow of stone used by the patriarch Jacob at Bethel, and it was believed by the people that where that stone was, there the Scots should reign. Edward conveyed it to Westminster Abbey, and enclosed it in a throne. Both stone and throne are preserved there, and upon them the new sovereign sits to receive the crown of Great Britain and Ireland.

Though Edward was not a harsh sovereign, English rule in any form was so hateful to the Scots that they soon began to organize for its overthrow. Sir William Wallace acquired the principal command of the rebels, and having defeated the English Earl of Surrey, who governed Scotland for Edward, and having ravaged Northumberland and Cumberland, he either made himself, or was chosen, ruler of Scotland, with the modest title of Guardian of the Kingdom. He did not long enjoy his honor. Edward entered Scotland, defeated the rebels at Falkirk, July 22d, 1298, and Wallace and his followers were driven to the open country, where for a few years they maintained an unequal struggle. The Scottish nobles at length made their peace with the king, but Wallace disdained to accept the mercy of the conqueror of his country. He was captured, carried to London, and hanged at Tyburn, August 24th, 1305. His countrymen regarded him as a martyr, and he has been honored since his death as the national hero of Scotland.

The capture and execution of Sir William Wallace did not end the troubles in Scotland. The Scots very keenly felt their subjection to the English, and were only held down by the superior strength of the latter. A leader was soon found in a

young noble named Robert Bruce, Earl of Carrick, the grandson of the Robert Bruce who had claimed the throne in the last century. He conceived the design of freeing his country, and communicated his plans to John Comyn of Badenoch, the representative of the rival house of Balliol. Comyn at first agreed to Bruce's plan, but finally betrayed him to Edward. A friend of Bruce at the English court, hearing of his danger, and not daring to communicate with him in person, sent him a purse of gold and a pair of spurs, and the sagacious Scot, rightly interpreting the friendly warning, succeeded in making his escape. He hastened to Dumfries, in Annandale, the chief seat of his family interest, and fortunately found a number of the Scottish nobility assembled there, the traitor Comyn being among them. Bruce appealed to them to join him in an effort to free the country of the English, and being opposed by Comyn, attacked that noble as he was leaving the place of conference, and slew him in the cloisters of the Grey Friars. Then summoning the Scots to his standard, he was solemnly crowned king by the Bishop of St. Andrews at Scone. Edward was greatly enraged by the murder of Comyn, and prepared to put down the revolt of the Scots. Being too old and feeble to take the field in person, he placed his army under his son Edward, Prince of Wales, who opened the campaign with such a cruel devastation of the country that his father was compelled to stop him. Bruce and his followers were driven about from place to place by Edward's lieutenant, Sir Aymer de Valence, and were defeated in a battle at Methven, in Perthshire. In spite of this defeat, Bruce won some successes, which so irritated Edward that he took the field in person, and advanced from Carlisle about the 1st of July, 1307. He was so feeble, however, that this exertion was fatal to him, and he died at Burgh-on-the-Sands, within sight of Scotland, on the 7th of July, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, "hated by his neighbors; but extremely respected and revered by his own subjects." With his dying breath he charged his son and successor to continue the war until Scotland was finally subdued.

In the reign of Edward I. the practice of summoning parliaments of lords and commons, which had been originated by Simon de Montfort, Edward's bitter enemy, was regularly continued and became a

definite part of the English system of government. From this time the parliament became the great law-making body of the realm, and from the first began the task which it successfully performed at length of checking the arbitrary power of the crown, and establishing a system of constitutional liberty for the nation. In 1297 the great measure of the reign was adopted, and the king was compelled by a show of force on the part of the barons, and greatly against his will, to give his consent to a law known as the *Confirmation of the Charters*, by which he surrendered his power of levying arbitrary taxes upon the people. Henceforth the sovereign could impose taxes only with "the common assent of the realm."

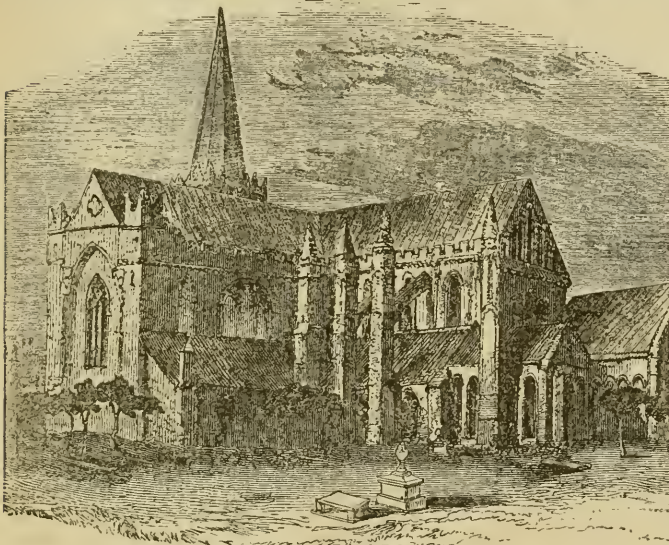
Edward II. was twenty-two years old when he began to reign, in 1307. His first act was to disregard the solemn injunction of his father to continue the Scottish war. He gave up the enterprise and disbanded his army, greatly to the disgust of his nobles. These, seeing that he was too weak to hold the reins of government as firmly as his father had done, began to entertain but little respect for the royal authority, and to practise every insolence with impunity. The young king also violated another promise. In his early youth Edward had been assigned as a companion, by his father, a Gascon knight of good family named Piers or Peter of Gaveston. Gaveston was a man of elegant manners and many accomplishments, and excelled in all the knightly and courtly graces of the time. He soon gained an entire ascendant over the younger Edward, and led him into such wild and lawless courses that Edward I., after vainly seeking to check his son's frivolous career, banished Gaveston from the kingdom, and on his death-bed made his son swear never to recall him. Edward II. had no sooner become king, however, than he summoned Gaveston back to England and installed him in the chief place in his favor. This act gave great offence to the English nobles, who resented the inferior birth and the haughty and insolent bearing of the favorite.

Early in 1308 Edward went to France and married the Princess Isabella, the daughter of Philip the Fair, to whom he had been affianced since 1299. He left the kingdom in charge of Gaveston, and this act fanned the discontent of the barons to a flame. Upon the return of the king,

the new queen, wishing to rule her husband herself, became jealous of Gaveston's influence and joined the party against him, and soon after the coronation the barons demanded of the king the banishment of the favorite. Edward reluctantly consented, but instead of sending him out of the country altogether, made Gaveston his lieutenant in Ireland, and went with him on his journey as far as Bristol, and bestowed upon him new estates in England and Gascony. Gaveston was a brave and energetic man, and not without talents, and his administration in Ireland was, on the whole, creditable. Edward, anxious to recall his favorite, softened the hostility of

Gaveston went to Flanders, and in less than a year the king removed the court to York and recalled the favorite. The barons now resolved to make short work of the favorite. They took arms under Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, the king's cousin, and captured Scarborough Castle, into which Gaveston had thrown himself. Gaveston was conducted to Warwick Castle, and there beheaded without trial, by order of his enemies, on the 19th of June, 1312. Edward, furious at the death of his favorite, swore vengeance upon those concerned in the murder; but as he had not energy enough to hold to a purpose requiring such efforts, he soon consented to a reconciliation with the barons, and tranquillity was restored to the kingdom.

During these quarrels between Edward II. and his barons, King Robert Bruce was energetically following up his advantages, and was rapidly becoming master of all Scotland. Only one fortress in Scotland held out for the English king. This was Stirling Castle, which was vigorously besieged by Edward Bruce, the brother of Robert. The governor of the castle, reduced to great straits, agreed to surrender the post if not relieved by the Feast of St. John the Baptist, now close at



ST. PATRICK'S CATHEDRAL—DUBLIN.

the barons by concessions to them, and obtained from the pope a dispensation absolving Gaveston from the oath he had taken never to return to England, and the favorite was recalled. Unfortunately for him he continued the same course which had excited the hostility of the barons before, and a fresh outbreak was the result. In 1310 the barons compelled the king to relinquish the government for one year into the hands of a committee of twelve peers, who were styled the "Ordainers." These instituted a series of measures, some of which were useful and praiseworthy, as they lessened the arbitrary powers of the crown. Gaveston was banished the kingdom, though Edward begged piteously that he might be permitted to remain.

Edward, for very shame, was compelled to raise a powerful army and attempt the relief of Stirling. He entered Scotland with a force estimated by Scotch writers at 100,000 men. Robert Bruce took post at Bannockburn, about two miles from Stirling, to cover that place. Here he was attacked by Edward on the 24th of June. The English army was utterly routed and driven from the field. King Edward himself fled in hot haste to Dunbar, closely pursued by some Scottish knights, and from that town returned to England by sea. The English camp, with all its treasures and supplies, fell into the hands of the victorious Scots. The defeat at Bannockburn was the greatest reverse the English had

sustained since the battle of Hastings. It fixed Bruce on the throne of Scotland and established the independence of that country. Bruce now retaliated upon his enemies by invading England and ravaging the border counties.

Encouraged by his success in Scotland, Bruce attempted to wrest Ireland from the English, and sent his brother Edward to that island with an army to accept the Irish crown, which had been offered to Edward by the O'Neill and other chiefs of Ulster. Edward landed in Ulster in 1315, and, after winning some successes, was crowned King of Ireland at Carrickfergus. The English and their adherents rallied for a supreme effort, and inflicted upon Edward a crushing defeat at Athenree on the 10th of August, 1316. In 1318 Edward Bruce was slain in a battle near Dundalk, and thus closed the effort to free Ireland from English rule.

In the meantime Edward II. had found a new favorite, Sir Hugh le Despenser, or Spenser, a young English gentleman of noble birth. He was very much such a man as Gaveston; but his father, whom Edward also took into his favor, was a man of wisdom and integrity, of advanced age and pure life, and well fitted to be counsellor to such a prince as Edward. The favor with which the king regarded the Spensers provoked another outbreak of the barons, who took arms under the lead of the Earls of Hereford and Lancaster. They were defeated at Boroughbridge. Hereford was slain and Lancaster was captured and beheaded. Roger Mortimer, one of the same party, and the lover of the queen, was captured and condemned to

death, but his sentence was subsequently changed to imprisonment in the Tower.

Charles IV. of France took advantage of the troubles in England to attempt to gain possession of the English territories in France, and at length Edward sent his wife, who was the sister of Charles, to France to arrange matters with her brother. Queen Isabella was soon joined by her young son,



EDWARD III.

the Prince of Wales, and also by her paramour, Roger Mortimer, who had escaped from the tower, A. D. 1325. Instead of trying to bring about a peace, Isabella began to plot her husband's overthrow, and was aided by the French king with men and money. In 1326 she landed in Suffolk at the head of an army composed mainly of foreigners. She was joined by the discontented barons, and King Edward's friends deserted him so rapidly that he was obliged

to fly from London and take refuge in the Welsh marshes. Bristol was taken by the queen's troops, and the elder Spenser, who commanded there, an old man of ninety, was barbarously put to death. King Edward and Sir Hugh le Despenser were captured in Glamorganshire. The latter was crowned with nettles and hanged; and the king was imprisoned in Kenilworth Castle. Parliament declared Edward II. unworthy of his crown, and ordered that the Prince of Wales should reign in his stead. The queen, the real author of the misery of her husband, burst into a flood of hypocritical tears at this announcement, and the Prince of Wales, touched by her seeming sorrow, swore that he would never consent to deprive his father of his crown. Thereupon an abdication was extorted from King Edward, whose reign was formally declared at an end. The queen and her partisans then endeavored, by cruel usage, to shorten the life of Edward II., but this process being too slow to suit Roger Mortimer, he caused King Edward to be murdered with the most horrible cruelty at Berkeley Castle in 1327. The only crime of Edward II. was his incapacity for his august position; but while the nobles upon whom he devolved the duties of government were the real authors of the grievances of which the people complained, the king was held responsible for them. He was in his forty-third year at the time of his death. In his reign the order of the Knights Templars was suppressed in England, and its property confiscated.

Edward III. came to the throne in 1327. He was but fourteen years old, and a council of regency was formed to administer the government. A renewal of the war with Scotland marked the opening of the reign, but it was without any decisive results. Isabella and Roger Mortimer now renewed their intrigues, and soon had the supreme power in their own hands. In March, 1328, they concluded a treaty with Scotland, acknowledging the independence of that country. Mortimer, feeling sure of his power, conducted himself so insolently and with such reckless disregard of the rights of others, that he soon raised a determined opposition to him. His infamous course in procuring the execution of the king's uncle, the Duke of Kent, and the imprisonment of the Earl of Lancaster, deepened the hostility with which he was regarded, and at length the eyes of Edward

himself were opened. The king was now eighteen years of age, and was resolved to be his own master. Mortimer's power was so great, however, that the king was obliged to proceed against him with as much caution as if he had been a subject plotting against his sovereign. He was admitted, at the head of an armed band, by the governor of Nottingham Castle, where Mortimer was staying, and entered that fortress by a secret passage. Bursting into the chamber of the minister, he seized him in the presence of the queen and sent him to prison. Edward at once summoned a parliament, which condemned Mortimer to death, and he was hanged at Tyburn in November, 1330. Queen Isabella was detained in honorable captivity at Castle Rising for the remainder of her life. By a series of wise and vigorous measures Edward restored the power of the crown and the supremacy of the law in the kingdom.

Upon the death of Charles IV. of France in 1328, Edward III., whose mother was the sister of Charles and the daughter of Philip the Fair, claimed the regency of that kingdom. His claim was disallowed, and the regency was conferred upon Philip, Count of Valois, who, two months later, became king as Philip VI. Edward's claim to the French crown was not advanced, as, though he was the nearest relative of Charles IV., he was excluded by the Salic law, which forbade the succession of the female branch to the throne. Edward suffered his claim to remain in abeyance, and even consented to do homage to Philip VI. in 1329 for his duchy of Guienne. For six years events at home demanded his attention. The death of Robert Bruce was followed in Scotland by a period of great disorder. The English party failing to receive the share of power and importance to which they believed themselves entitled, conceived the design of making Edward Balliol, the son of that John who had been crowned King of Scotland, king in the place of David, the young son and successor of Robert Bruce. They sought the assistance of Edward III. That king, though unwilling to assist them openly, nevertheless secretly encouraged them, and they collected an army and marched into Scotland. Balliol by a series of successes overthrew the national party, compelled the young King David to take refuge in France, and seated himself upon the Scottish throne, 1332. He was everywhere regarded as a

usurper, and a sudden revolution burst out in 1333, and drove him into England. Balliol now asked Edward's aid in regaining the Scottish throne, and promised to become his vassal in case of success. Edward, who had always longed to recover Scotland, accepted his offer, and entering that country at the head of a strong army, defeated the Scots in a pitched battle at Halidown Hill, and replaced Balliol on

ship of their regent, Sir Andrew Murray, they gave such trouble to Balliol that the English king was obliged to return and crush them. Unable to meet Edward in the low country, they retreated into the highlands, and there kept alive their hatred to the usurper and his English master.

The assistance which Philip VI. of France had rendered the Scots in their resistance of him had deeply offended Edward, and



THE BLACK PRINCE.

the throne. Balliol did the English king homage for his crown, many of the Scottish nobility swore fealty to Edward, and the whole of southeastern Scotland, from Edinburgh to the border, was ceded by Balliol to Edward, and declared forever annexed to the kingdom of England. The hatred of the Scots for Balliol now revived the party of David Bruce, who were encouraged and aided by France. Under the leader-

he gave a cordial reception to Count Robert of Artois, the bitter enemy of Philip, who fled to England in 1333. Philip endeavored to compel Edward to send him away, and at the same time himself committed many aggressions upon Edward's duchy of Guienne. In 1336 the French king brought matters to a crisis by an insolent demand that Edward should surrender the Count of Artois on pain of confiscation of his

duchy of Guienne. Edward at once began to prepare for war, and acting on the advice of the Flemings, revived his claim to the French crown, and assumed the title of King of France. In 1339 he sailed to Flanders, and began what is known as the "Hundred Years' War," so called because, though there was no actual fighting during the whole of this period, there was no permanent peace between England and France for a century. The events of this campaign have been related in the French history of this century. The war was at first indecisive, but when Edward, abandoning the Flemish alliance, renewed his efforts alone, he won signal successes. His fleet defeated and destroyed the French navy in the great battle of Sluys (or Helvoetsluys), June 24th, 1440; and at Crecy he won a decisive victory over a superior force of Frenchmen, August 26th, 1346. The victory of Crecy was followed by the surrender of Calais, after a siege of over eleven months, 1347. Edward wisely settled the town with a colony of English, and for more than two centuries it remained in possession of England. A truce of ten months followed the surrender of Calais. Hostilities were not renewed, as before the expiration of the truce both England and France were scourged by the terrible plague known as the black death. It is said that more than one-half of the inhabitants of England died from this plague.

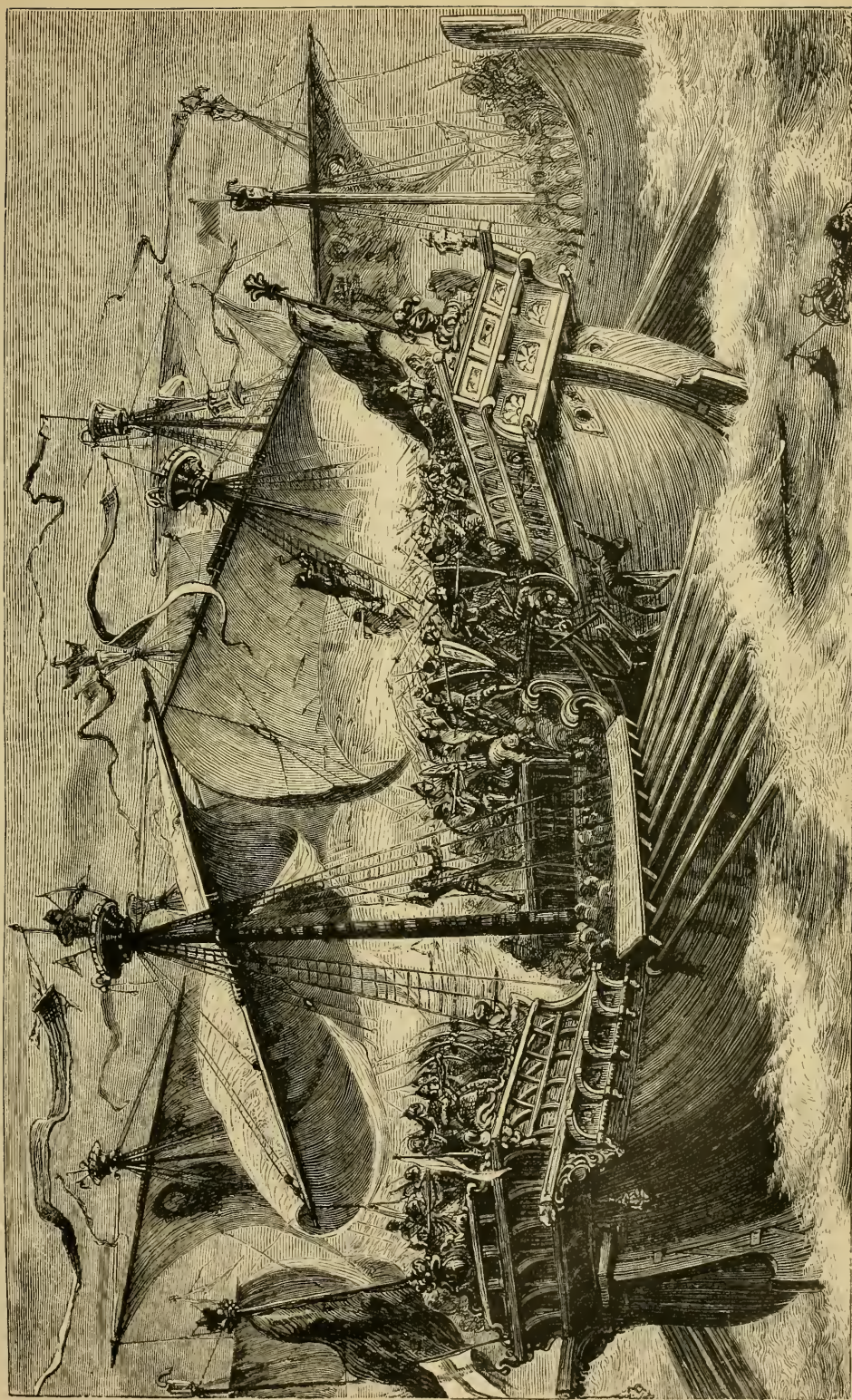
The Scots took advantage of the war between England and France to recall their king, David Bruce, and form an alliance with France. David being urged by the French king to attempt the invasion of England, crossed the border with an army of 50,000 men, and ravaged the country as far as Durham. Queen Philippa, with great energy, collected an army of 12,000 men, and placed it under the orders of Lord Percy, who inflicted a decisive defeat upon the Scottish army at Neville's Cross, and took King David prisoner. The Scottish king was confined in the Tower of London.

The war with France was renewed in 1355. The events of this struggle will be found related in the French history of this century. The decisive battle was fought at Poitiers, in the county of Poitou. There the Prince of Wales, known as the Black Prince, either from the color of his armor or the dread with which he had inspired the French, with a handful of English and

Gascon troops, defeated the French army, 60,000 strong, and took King John of France prisoner. In May, 1360, a treaty was concluded at Bretigny, by which King John was allowed to ransom himself. Edward resigned his pretensions to the French crown, but kept his duchy of Guienne, besides Calais and some other possessions, not as a vassal, but as an independent prince. We have already related the expedition of the Black Prince to Spain in aid of Pedro the Cruel, and its consequences. The struggle which deprived England of all Aquitaine save Bordeaux and Bayonne is related in the same place—the history of France during this century. Edward, worn out with the struggle, obtained a truce in 1375 for two years.

Edward III. was now an old man, scarcely able to administer the government, and the Black Prince, the heir to the throne, was slowly dying. The government fell into the hands of John, Duke of Lancaster, called from his birth-place John of Ghent, or Gaunt. Queen Philippa was dead, and the king's favorite, Alice Ferrers, made use of the royal favor for unworthy purposes. Altogether affairs were in a most deplorable state. The public funds were squandered, and the men who were appointed to office by the Duke of Lancaster proved unworthy of trust. The best men in the kingdom now resolved to make an effort to better matters. The occasion was in some respects favorable. There was peace with France in consequence of the truce; and the Scottish difficulty had been greatly improved by the release of King David Bruce for a large ransom. In 1376 Parliament met, and, supported by the Black Prince, set to work to reform the state. The commons impeached, or accused before the house of lords, several of the corrupt officials appointed by the Duke of Lancaster, and Alice Ferrers had her opportunities for interfering with the administration of justice stopped by a threat of banishment. This parliament is known as "the Good," and furnishes the first instance of the use by the commons of their power of impeaching the ministers of the crown.

On the 8th of June, 1376, the Black Prince died amid the grief of all England. He was buried in Canterbury Cathedral. His death left John of Gaunt in full possession of the government, and the work of the "Good Parliament" was swept away by its successor which the duke summoned to



DEFEAT OF THE FRENCH FLEET OFF HELVOETSLSUN.

confirm his power. On the 21st of June, 1377, Edward III. died at Shene, literally alone, deserted by all his attendants, and ministered to only by a faithful priest.

Edward was one of the greatest of the English kings. He was a tried and proved soldier, and excelled in all the military virtues. He made the English name glorious by his victories over the French and the Scotch, and his fame was worthily upheld by his gallant son, the Black Prince. In spite of this, it must be confessed that his foreign wars were neither founded in justice, nor devoted to any useful purpose, and were cruel in a marked degree. As King of England, however, he proved himself worthy to rule a great people. By the vigor and prudence of his administration, he compelled all classes to acknowledge the supremacy of the law, and during his reign there was peace and tranquillity at home. By his affability and generosity, and his earnest desire for the good of all his subjects, he attached both nobles and commons to his rule, and gained their hearty support in all his enterprises. He enlarged and improved Windsor Castle, and founded the order of the Garter. In 1352 parliament passed the statute of treasons, which clearly defined the crime of high treason. In this reign the independence of England was firmly maintained against the aggressions of the pope, and in 1366, when Pope Urban V. demanded the tribute promised by King John, which had been in arrears for thirty-three years, the demand was absolutely refused, and the pope found himself unable to enforce it. In 1331 Edward laid the foundation of one of England's greatest industries by settling colonies of Flemish weavers in Norfolk, Sussex, and Essex. They introduced the manufacture of the finest woollen cloths. The wool of England was at that time the finest in Europe and the chief article of export from the kingdom. The people, fearing that the establishment of home manufactures would destroy their trade, treated the Flemings with such hostility that Edward was put to considerable trouble to protect them.

Edward III. was succeeded by his grandson Richard, the son of the Black Prince, a child of eleven years. Richard II. reigned twenty-two years—a period full of trouble and misfortune. He began his reign with great promise. The yoke of slavery pressed harder upon the English than upon any people in Europe, and men

were now beginning to think and to long for freedom. Four years after Richard became king, the peasants of Essex, Kent, and the neighboring counties took arms to resist the imposition of a tax of three groats upon every person above fifteen years old. They marched to London 100,000 strong, committing many outrages on the way. They were led by men of their own rank, known as Jack Straw, Wat Tyler, Hob Carter, and Tom Miller. Entering London, they demolished Newgate prison and released the prisoners, burnt the palace of the Savoy, the residence of the Duke of Lancaster, and the Temple. The majority of the insurgents withdrew from the city the next day, but the Kentish men, under their leader, Wat Tyler, remained in arms. They seized the Tower of London and put to death six persons whom they found there, among whom was the Archbishop of Canterbury. The next day the king and Tyler accidentally encountered each other in Smithfield. A parley ensued, during which Tyler behaved with such insolence that Walworth, the Mayor of London, stabbed him. Tyler's followers raised their bows to avenge their leader, but Richard, riding fearlessly up to them, exclaimed good-humoredly: "What is the meaning of this disorder, my good people? Are you angry that you have lost your leader? I am your king; I will be your leader." The insurgents were conquered by the brave words of the young king, who led them to the fields at Islington, whither a large body of troops hastened for the protection of the king. The rebels at once fell upon their knees and asked pardon, and Richard peaceably dismissed them to their homes with the same charters he had granted to their fellows. A formidable force quickly rallied to the king's support in all parts of the kingdom, and the insurrection was put down. A fortnight later the king revoked the charters he had granted, which were indeed illegal, as they lacked the consent of parliament, and many of the leaders of the insurrection were tried and executed.

The hopes which the decisive conduct of Richard during the insurrection had raised were soon dispelled. He was fond of shows and pageants, and was wasteful and dissipated. He gave himself over to the influence of favorites, who were hated as bitterly as Gaveston and the Spencers had been in the time of his great-grandfather.

He attempted to conquer Scotland, but his invasion of that country, though conducted with great cruelty, accomplished nothing. The subjection in which the king was held by his uncles, particularly by the youngest and ablest, the Duke of Gloucester, was very distasteful to him, and he endeavored to throw it off. In 1387 the Duke of Gloucester and his party took up arms and compelled the king to submit to them and banish his friends or send them to the block. The king, however, soon got the upper

was unpopular with the English, who were bitterly opposed to peace with France. The opposition of the Duke of Gloucester to the truce with France induced the king to free himself from the danger with which the ambition of that noble threatened him. Gloucester was seized, hurried to Calais, and confined in the castle of that place. The Governor of Calais soon after reported that the duke had died suddenly of apoplexy, but it was generally believed that he had been put to death by the king's



JOHN WYCLIFFE.

hand and Gloucester was compelled to yield. For nine years Richard conducted the government himself, and it must be confessed that he ruled well. He married the Princess Anne of Bohemia, who greatly endeared herself to her husband and to the English people. She died in 1394, and in 1396 Richard contracted a marriage with the Princess Isabella, the daughter of Charles VI. of France, then only eight years old. Richard desired to secure a long truce from the vexatious and exhausting war with France; but the marriage

order. Gloucester's adherents were terrified into submission by this bold stroke, and no one dared to oppose the will of Richard.

Among the nobles who had offended the king by supporting Gloucester in 1387 were the Duke of Norfolk and Henry of Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford, son of John of Gaunt. In 1398, these nobles being about to decide a quarrel by a combat, Richard forbade the encounter, and banished Hereford for ten years and Norfolk for life. John of Gaunt died soon after his

son's exile, and his estates, which should have passed to Hereford, now Duke of Lancaster, were seized by the king. Hereford, deeply incensed by the king's tyrannical act, vowed vengeance against him. Taking advantage of Richard's absence on an expedition to Ireland, he landed in England in July, 1399, at the head of the exiles of Gloucester's party and a few men-at-arms, and raised the standard of revolt. Being joined by the Percies of Northumberland, he soon found himself at the head of 60,000 men, and the Duke of York, who had been left as regent by Richard, came over to him. When Richard received information of Lancaster's presence in England, the duke was master of the entire kingdom. After lingering irresolute in Ireland, he crossed over to Wales, but was rapidly deserted by his troops. Earl Percy induced him to leave Conway Castle, where he had taken refuge, and then betrayed him to Henry of Lancaster, who conducted him to London, and compelled him to make a formal abdication of his crown. The next day he was deposed on the ground of misgovernment, and the Duke of Lancaster was formally acknowledged King of England as Henry IV., September 30th, 1399.

In the reign of Richard II. the effort to maintain the independence of England against the aggressions of the papacy was continued with firmness. A powerful blow was struck in defence of the liberties of the kingdom in 1393, by the passage of the *Statute of Præmunire*, "which enacted that whoever should procure from Rome or elsewhere, excommunications, bulls, or other things against the king and his realm, should be put out of the king's protection, and all his lands and goods forfeited."

During the latter part of this century a powerful effect was produced in England by the teachings of John Wycliffe, a learned priest and a professor in the University of Oxford. He was deeply versed in the Scriptures, and in all the ecclesiastical knowledge of the day, and in the reign of Edward III. he began to preach that the Scriptures did not teach the supremacy of the pope and many of the doctrines of the Roman Church, and won the favor of the court by his eloquent defence of the independence of England against the claims of the pope. He translated the Bible into the English language, and completed the task in 1380. His translation was eagerly received by the English people, and Queen

Anne, the first wife of Richard II., became a diligent reader of the Bible and a convert to many of Wycliffe's views. Wycliffe supported his doctrines by his writings, and these found their way into Bohemia, where they induced John Huss to attempt to reform the church in Germany. The work of Huss was cut short, but it was taken up by Martin Luther in the sixteenth century and carried to a successful close. In England the principles taught by Wycliffe never died out. His followers were called Lollards. They and their converts kept alive his teachings until finally they produced the English Reformation, so that Wycliffe has been not inaptly called "the Morning Star of the Reformation." He had a hard fight with the partisans of the pope in England, who endeavored to silence him and suppress his translation of the Bible; but he held his own to the last, and died peacefully at his rectory of Lutterworth in 1384.

Henry IV., though elected King of England by parliament, was not content to rest his claim upon the choice of the people, but sought to strengthen it by asserting that he held the throne by right of his birth, being the son of John of Gaunt, and the grandson of Edward III. According to the rule of hereditary succession, there was one much nearer to the throne than Henry himself. This was the young Earl of March, Edmund Mortimer, who was lineally descended from the Duke of Clarence, John of Gaunt's elder brother, and who had been declared in parliament heir to the crown. The earl was a child of seven years, and Henry sought to avoid a conflict with his claims by keeping him an honorable prisoner at Windsor Castle. Richard II. was detained by the advice of the lords in captivity for the rest of his life, and the place of his confinement was kept secret. About six months after his overthrow, his dead body was brought from Pontefract Castle to London, and after being publicly shown at St. Paul's, was buried at Langley. It was generally believed that he had been put to death. One story current at the time was that he was slain by Sir Piers Exton and seven other murderers; another, that he had been starved to death. Some of Henry's enemies asserted that Richard was not dead, but was in Scotland, and that the body displayed at St. Paul's was that of another person.

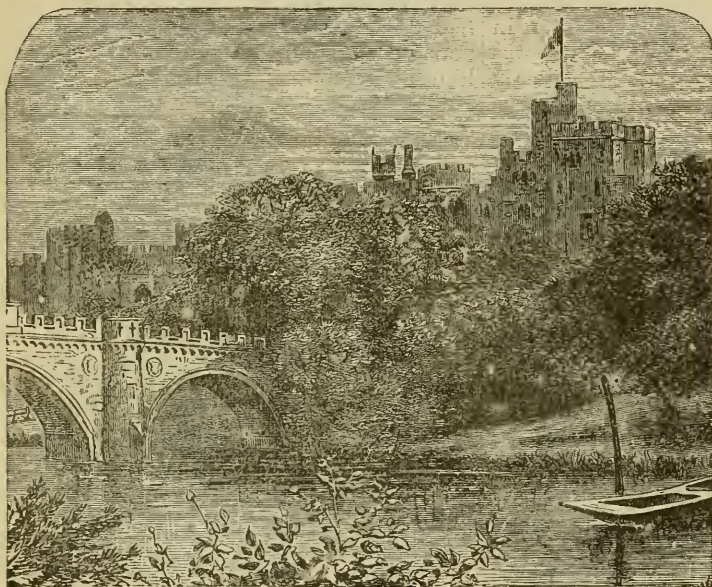
The very first parliament that assembled

under Henry gave evidence of the unsettled condition of the kingdom. The house of lords broke up in a furious quarrel, and the discontented nobles attempted to seize the king's person at Windsor. Henry withdrew to London, where he raised a force of citizens, and put down the outbreak. The Earls of Kent and Salisbury, and some of the other leaders of the movement, lost their heads for their share in it. In Gascony there was an effort to throw off the authority of Henry, but it was suppressed.

The most serious of all these uprisings was that of the Welsh, led by Owen Glendower, who was descended from the ancient princes of Wales. The Welsh had been

men, under the Earl of Douglas, invaded England. The Earl of Northumberland and his son, Sir Henry Percy, better known as "Hotspur," from his daring deeds, took the field against the Scots and defeated them at Homildon Hill, on the 14th of September, 1402, taking Earl Douglas and many of the principal nobles of Scotland prisoners. The Percies demanded that the king should reimburse them for the expenses of this war, but Henry was not able to do so, and thus gave a fresh offence to this powerful family. The Percies had helped him to gain his crown, but he had fully repaid them by the favors he had bestowed upon them since his accession to the

throne. This refusal added to the irritation caused by the prohibition to ransom Sir Edward Mortimer, who was Hotspur's brother-in-law, and roused the discontent of the Percies into open rebellion. Earl Percy released his Scottish prisoners, made an alliance with the Earl of Douglas, and joined his forces to those of Owen Glendower. Being detained by sickness, the Earl of Northumberland intrusted the command of his troops to his son, Sir Henry Percy. The rebellion was joined by the Earl of Worcester, North-



ALNWICK CASTLE, THE HOME OF THE PERCIES.

much attached to Richard II., and resented his deposition. In one of his first forays into England, Glendower captured Sir Edward Mortimer, the uncle of the young Earl of March, and carried him a prisoner into Wales. As Henry both dreaded and hated the whole house of March, he allowed Sir Edward Mortimer to remain in captivity, and refused to permit Mortimer's kinsman, the Earl of Northumberland, to treat with Glendower for his ransom. He thus gave great offence to the family of the Percies, who were his most powerful friends. Meanwhile the Welsh harried the English border at will, defeating the royal forces sent against them.

The next year a Scottish army of 12,000

umberland's brother-in-law, and the rebels openly avowed their purpose to restore Richard II. to the throne, if alive; or if that monarch was indeed dead, they intended to make the Earl of March king. Henry had collected a small army with which he intended invading Scotland, when he was startled by the news of the rebellion of the Percies. He had not expected such a step on their part, but he was not disconcerted by it. Appreciating the importance of swift and decisive movements in civil wars, he marched at once against the rebels, and defeated them in the bloody battle of Hateley Field, near Shrewsbury, July 23d, 1403. Hotspur was among the slain. The Earl of Worcester was cap-

tured and was beheaded for his treason. Northumberland's sickness had prevented his presence, and he escaped punishment by solemnly declaring that his son had disobeyed his orders in taking up arms against the king. Two years later he was again in rebellion against Henry, in league with the Earl of Nottingham, the Duke of Norfolk, and some other northern nobles. They were obliged to submit, however, and Northumberland escaped to Scotland; only to lose his life, a year or two later, in a third unsuccessful attempt against Henry. Henry succeeded in putting down the rebellion of the Welsh, and also reduced Scotland to a position of dependence upon England by seizing the heir to the Scottish crown on his voyage to France. Though still in the prime of life, Henry's health now began to fail him, and he died at Westminster on the 20th of March, 1413, in the forty-sixth year of his age and the thirteenth of his reign.

During this reign severe measures were put in force to root out the doctrines of the Lollards, which had taken a deep hold upon the English people. The Archbishop of Canterbury had given Henry valuable assistance in his efforts to secure the crown, and the king in his turn aided the Romish party with all his power to destroy the followers of Wycliffe. In 1401 a law was enacted by parliament ordering that all persons convicted by their bishop of holding heretical opinions, and who should refuse to abjure the same, should be burned to death. Under this wicked law, William Sawtree, the first Protestant martyr of England, was burnt on the 12th of February, 1401. Other martyrs followed. The commons, however, were not as subservient to the priests as the lords; for when it was found that the clergy were determined to resist the payment of their share of the taxes of the kingdom, notwithstanding their vast wealth, the commons took the side of the Lollards for the purpose of checking the power of the priests, and demanded of the king a mitigation of the law of burning, and advised him to seize the wealth of the church and employ it as a perpetual fund to serve the exigencies of the state. They even went to the extent of framing a bill for this purpose. Henry not only refused to mitigate the law against the Lollards, but to show the commons that he was in earnest, burnt a poor tailor named John Badbee for holding Wycliffe's doctrines. These barbarous measures, so far from de-

stroying the principles of the reformers, merely served to spread them.

Henry V., who became king at the death of his father, is said to have been a wild and lawless youth; but upon mounting the throne he abandoned his old habits, and soon became noted for his correct life. He began his reign by releasing the Earl of March from captivity, and restoring the lands of the Percies to the son of Hotspur. He also had the body of Richard II. removed from Langley, and buried in Westminster Abbey.

The Lollards had increased so rapidly in numbers and strength, that they now constituted quite a formidable party. The principal man among them was Sir John Oldcastle, called Lord Cobham. Soon after the opening of this reign, Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury, determined to strike a blow at the Lollards. The high character of Lord Cobham, and his zeal for the new sect, pointed him out to the archbishop as the proper victim of ecclesiastical tyranny, whose death would strike terror to the whole party and teach them that they must expect no mercy from the present administration. Lord Cobham had greatly distinguished himself as a soldier, and was honored with the personal friendship of the king, and before proceeding against him Arundel applied to Henry for permission to indict him. Henry at first shrank from the plot against his old friend, but upon questioning Lord Cobham found him so firm in his belief of the doctrines he held, that he became angry with him and abandoned him to the vengeance of the church. Cobham was tried for heresy and sent to the Tower, from which he escaped. The government entertained, or professed to entertain fears of a Lollard rising, and dreaded to see Lord Cobham, who was a tried soldier, at the head of the movement. A price was set on his head. He concealed himself for several years, but was captured at last, and hanged at London as a traitor, after which his body was burned as a heretic. The priesthood, in order to justify their severe treatment of him, diligently propagated the belief that he had intended to overthrow the government. This charge of treason brought the reformers into discredit, and did much to retard their increase.

Henry IV. on his death-bed had charged his son not to let the English remain long at peace, as foreign wars alone could prevent internal discontents. The natural dis-

position of Henry V. inclined him to follow this advice, and he soon had an opportunity of doing so. Taking advantage of the confusion prevailing in France in consequence of the insanity of Charles VI., and the quarrels between the factions of the Dukes of Orleans and Burgundy, Henry, in 1415, renewed the claim of the English sovereigns to the crown of France, and demanded the acknowledgment of it by the French. He also demanded the hand of Charles' daughter, the Princess Catharine, in marriage. His demand being refused, war ensued as we have seen. For the details of this struggle the reader is referred to the French history of this period. Henry captured Harfleur in September, and defeated a superior French army at Agincourt on the 25th of October, 1415. In July, 1417, he invaded France a second time, and overran a large part of Normandy while the French were divided with their quarrels. In January, 1419, he captured Rouen, and established his court there. In May, 1420, the infamous Isabella of Bavaria, Queen of France, and the Duke of Burgundy, who had the idiot king in their power, made a treaty with Henry at Troyes, by which they betrayed the French kingdom, as has been related. Henry V. was acknowledged as regent, and after the death of Charles VI. was to succeed to the French crown, which was to remain forever united with that of England. He also married the Princess Catharine on the 2d of June of the same year. The Dauphin Charles, the eldest son of Charles VI., refused to consent to this arrangement, and headed the French party against the English. Henry was master of nearly all of France north of the Loire, while the dauphin's strength lay south of that stream. Henry did not long survive his success. He died at Vincennes on the 31st of August, 1422. His body was conveyed to England with great pomp, and buried in Westminster Abbey. Queen Catharine afterwards made a second marriage with a Welsh gentleman, named Owen Tudor, and from them were descended the sovereigns of the house of Tudor, who ruled England later on in the century.

In the reign of Henry V. the foundation of the royal navy was laid. Until now the English sovereigns had formed their fleets by contributions of ships furnished by the Cinque Ports and the other maritime towns, and by impressing vessels from their sub-

jects. Henry built ships of his own, a practice which was continued by his successors until England possessed a fleet owned and controlled by the crown exclusively.

Henry VI. was left, by the death of his father, King of England, and at the death of Charles VI., two months later, he was proclaimed King of France. He was an infant in the arms at the time, and the French kingdom was ruled for him by his uncle John, Duke of Bedford. We have already related in its proper place the history of the expulsion of the English from France and the recovery of that kingdom by Charles VII. By the close of 1453 the English retained nothing in France but Calais. Thus closed the hundred years' war, which had cost so much blood and treasure.

During the minority of the king there was a continuous quarrel in England for the regency, between Henry's uncle Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, and Cardinal Beaufort. In 1445 the king married Margaret of Anjou, the daughter of René of Anjou, titular King of Sicily. Anjou and Maine were relinquished to him in consequence of this marriage to the great dissatisfaction of the English. Henry was a man of weak intellect and of gentle and amiable disposition, and his wife and her favorite counsellor, William de la Pole, Duke of Suffolk, became the real rulers of the kingdom. Suffolk, who was hated by the nation, had advised the king's marriage and the cession of Anjou and Maine to René, and was popularly believed to have caused the death of the Duke of Gloucester, who was murdered in 1447. The losses of the English in France drew upon him a storm of popular fury, to satisfy which the king, in 1450, banished him from the kingdom for five years. He was overtaken in the English Channel by an English ship employed by his enemies, and his head was struck off and his body thrown into the sea. No investigation of the murder was ever made.

The death of Suffolk was followed by several insurrections in various parts of England, which were suppressed. One of these was formidable enough to deserve special mention. Twenty thousand of the men of Kent, led by an Irishman named John or Jack Cade, who took the more dignified name of John Mortimer, intending, as is supposed, to pass himself off as a

son of that Sir John Mortimer who had been sentenced to death by parliament and executed in the beginning of this reign without any trial or evidence, merely upon an indictment of high treason given in against him. Sir John had been very popular in Kent, and his name gave Cade his principal strength. The insurgents marched to London and encamped on Blackheath, having defeated on the way a force under Sir Humphrey Stafford which attempted to disperse them. From Blackheath the insurgents sent a statement of their grievances to the king. The principal of these were the improper administration of the government, the favor shown by the king to his evil counsellors, the hardships imposed upon the people by the statute of laborers, the extortions of the collectors of taxes, and the interference of the nobles in the county elections. These were reasonable demands, and the council, appreciating this, removed the king to Kenilworth Castle, after which Cade entered London. Getting Lord Say, and Seal, the treasurer, and Say's son-in-law, Cromer, the sheriff of Kent, into his power, Cade had them beheaded at Cheapside for their extortions. Cade's followers now plundered some houses in disobedience of his orders, and the citizens rose against them, and with the aid of some soldiers from the Tower defended London bridge against them. After a six hours' fight, the council consented to grant the demands of the insurgents, the greater number of whom dispersed on a promise of pardon for their rebellion. Cade fled, and was pursued and killed by a gentleman of Kent named Iden. Many of his followers were executed.

The loss of the French possessions of the English compelled the English nobles to confine their ambitious schemes to their own country, and they were soon involved in a contest among themselves for the supremacy. The rival factions were divided between the adherents of the house of York and those of the house of Lancaster. The chief of the latter house was Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, the representative of the illegitimate branch of the house of Lancaster. In spite of the belief that he aspired to the throne, Somerset's influence was all powerful at court, but he was disliked by the people, as he was regarded as responsible for the loss of Normandy. The head of the other faction was Richard Plan-

tagenet, Duke of York, who had commanded with credit both in France and Ireland, and was well liked by the people. He inherited the claims of the house of Clarence to the crown. In 1454, the king having become unfit for governing, Richard was appointed Protector of the kingdom by the parliament. Within a year, however, Henry resumed the government and the influence of Somerset was once more paramount. The Duke of York then took up arms against his rival, and defeated and slew him in the battle of St. Albans, May 23d, 1455. A nominal peace was arranged, but in 1459 the war began again. The Yorkist party won a great victory over their rivals at Northampton on the 10th of July, 1460. King Henry was captured, and Queen Margaret and her son fled to Scotland. In the autumn, at the meeting of parliament, the Duke of York claimed the crown. A compromise was arranged in this way: Henry was to reign until his death, and Richard was to succeed him, to the exclusion of Henry's only son, Edward. The wars between the rival houses of York and Lancaster are known as the "Wars of the Roses" for the reason that the badge of the house of York was a white rose, and that of the house of Lancaster a red one.

The Lancastrian party did not accept the compromise agreed upon in parliament. Many of the great nobles rallied to the support of the young Prince Edward, and the Duke of York was defeated at Wakefield a little later. The duke was killed in the action, and his head, ornamented with a paper crown, was placed over the gate of the city of York. His son, the Earl of Rutland, was captured and murdered in cold blood by Lord Clifford. Edward, the eldest son of Richard, was now Duke of York. He at once took up the cause of his house, defeated the royal forces at Mortimer's Cross, and followed up his victory by a renewal of the bloody executions begun by the rival party. Queen Margaret won a victory over the Yorkist force in the second battle of St. Albans, and rescued the king from them. She failed to improve her advantage, however, and the Duke of York marched boldly into London, where he was declared king by the people and a large assemblage of nobles, prelates and magistrates, March 3d, 1461.

Edward IV. was twenty years old, and was considered the most accomplished and the handsomest man of his day. He could

be amiable and cordial when he desired to gain popularity; but his true character was licentious and cruel. He marched at once against the army of Henry and Margaret, and defeated it at Towtown. Henry fled with his family to Scotland. For three years a sort of desultory warfare went on between the rival factions, Edward winning two more victories over his enemies in the battles of Hedgley Moor and Hexham. King Henry lay concealed in England for more than a year after the battle of Hexham, but was finally betrayed and imprisoned in the Tower.

Towards the close of the year 1464 Edward made public his marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Sir Richard Wydeville, or Woodeville, and the widow of Sir John Gray. Edward, who was deeply in love with his wife, showered honors and riches upon her kindred with a profusion that aroused the anger of the old nobility. The powerful Earl of Warwick and his relatives took serious offence at the king's course, and being joined by others, and especially the king's brother, the Duke of Clarence, who married Warwick's daughter, began a series of insurrections for the purpose of driving the Wydevilles from court. In 1470 Warwick and Clarence were obliged to fly the country to escape the vengeance of Edward. They went to France, where Warwick met his old enemy, Queen Margaret. He now formed an alliance with her by marrying his daughter Anne to Edward, Margaret's son. They returned to England in the course of a few months, proclaimed King Henry, and gained such advantages that Edward, in his turn, was forced to fly. He took refuge with his brother-in-law, Charles the Bold of Burgundy. He came back in March, 1471, with a force of 2,000 men, and was joined by his brother, the Duke of Clarence, who abandoned the Lancastrian party. The forces of the Earl of Warwick were defeated, and he and his brother, the Marquis of Montacute, were slain, in the battle of Barnet, on the 14th of April. Queen Margaret, supported by a small body of French troops, landed at Weymouth on the same day. Edward at once marched against her and defeated her at Tewkesbury on the 4th of May. The queen and her son were taken prisoners. Prince Edward was brought before his conqueror, who asked him how he dared to invade his dominions. The high-spirited youth replied that he came to claim his

just inheritance. Edward, insensible to pity, struck him on the face with his gauntlet, and the king's brothers and attendants despatched the unhappy youth with their daggers. Henry VI., who had been imprisoned in the Tower, died a few days after the battle of Tewkesbury. Queen Margaret was detained a prisoner in the Tower for five years, and was then ransomed by Louis XI. of France, and died in her county of Anjou. The leading Lancastrian nobles were executed as traitors. Anne Neville, the widow of the murdered Prince Edward, married Richard, Duke of Gloucester, the youngest brother of King Edward, who afterwards became Richard III.

Having established his power at home, Edward prepared to punish Louis XI. of France for having assisted Queen Margaret in her last effort to recover the kingdom. Parliament granted him a considerable sum for this purpose, and he obtained more money from wealthy citizens of London, who feared to refuse his request. These loans were termed "benevolences." He equipped an army in 1475, and reviving the English pretensions to the crown of France, invaded that country. As has been related, his ally, the Duke of Burgundy, failed to join him, and the superior craft of Louis XI. soon brought the war to a close by the treaty of Pequigny. Louis agreed to pay an annual pension to Edward, and betrothed the Dauphin Charles to the English king's eldest daughter. The failure of Edward to accomplish more was a sore disappointment to the English people.

Edward had never forgiven the Duke of Clarence for his assistance of Warwick, and that prince now had the misfortune to gain the enmity of the queen and the Duke of Gloucester. A powerful combination was formed against him, and he was charged by the king with treason, and sentenced to death. He was committed to the Tower, where it is said he was drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine. Louis XI., in the treaty of Arras (December 23d, 1482), offered a mortal insult to the English king by setting aside the engagement of the dauphin to Edward's daughter, and betrothing his son to Anne, the daughter of the Emperor Maximilian. Edward prepared to avenge this insult by a fresh invasion of France, but died in the midst of his preparations, on the 9th of April, 1483. He left five daughters, and two sons—Ed-



STANLEY OFFERING THE CROWN TO HENRY VII. ON THE FIELD OF BOSWORTH.

ward, Prince of Wales, thirteen years old, and Richard, Duke of York, ten years old.

Edward V. reigned from the 9th of April to the 22d of June, 1483. At the time of his father's death he was residing at Ludlow Castle, surrounded by his mother's kinsmen and friends. He at once set out for London, and on the way he and his attendants were seized by his uncle Richard, Duke of Gloucester. The queen fled with her other children to Westminster for sanctuary; Edward V. was lodged in the Tower, then a palace as well as a prison; and Gloucester was proclaimed Protector of the kingdom. Gloucester removed the little Duke of York from the sanctuary at Westminster to the Tower, and caused the chiefs of the Wydeville party to be beheaded. He then claimed the crown as his rightful property on the ground that his nephews were illegitimate by reason of a marriage of Edward IV., contracted before his union with Queen Elizabeth. In order to strengthen his absurd claim, Gloucester did not hesitate to insult his own mother, who was still alive, by declaring that he alone, of all her sons, was legitimate. He caused his nephews, the young sons of Edward IV., to be secretly murdered in the Tower, and had himself and his wife crowned king and queen at Westminster on the 6th of July, 1483, and to please the people of the north country had the ceremony repeated at York.

The disaffected nobles lost no time in beginning their plots for the overthrow of Richard III. The head of this party was an exile in Brittany at the time. He was Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, the grandson of Owen Tudor and Catharine, the widow of Henry V. On his mother's side he was descended from John of Gaunt, and was the nearest heir to the throne on the Lancaster side. The leader of the party in England was the Duke of Buckingham. His plot was soon discovered by Richard, who defeated Buckingham and put him to death. Executions of the other leaders followed rapidly. The tyranny of Richard soon drove the nobles into rebellion against him again. They invited the Earl of Richmond to come over to England and claim the crown, Richmond, on his part, promising to end the quarrel between the houses of York and Lancaster by marrying Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV. Richmond landed at Milford Haven on the 7th

of August, 1485, and with an inferior army defeated Richard at Bosworth on the 22d of that month. Richard fought with great gallantry, and died, sword in hand, in the presence of his rival, whom he strove to reach. Richmond was proclaimed king on the field of battle.

During the reign of Edward IV. the art of printing was introduced into England by William Caxton, who had learned it on the continent of Europe. He was encouraged by the king and court, and a large number of works were issued from his press.

Henry VII. was formally crowned at Westminster, and was married to Elizabeth of York, the daughter of Edward IV., on the 18th of January, 1486. His hatred of the house of York was so great that he was very much averse to this marriage, and is said to have treated his wife with coldness in consequence of this feeling. The king seized the young Earl of Warwick, the son of the Duke of Clarence, and imprisoned him in the Tower, and by his harsh treatment of the Yorkist party drove them into an insurrection before he had been king a year, but the outbreak was speedily quelled. The next year a young man, who declared himself the Earl of Warwick, and who claimed to have escaped from the Tower, was furnished with troops by Margaret of Burgundy, the widow of Charles the Bold, and sister of Edward IV., for the purpose of claiming the crown. He was joined by the Earl of Lincoln and Lord Lovel, and was crowned king in Ireland, where the house of York had always been liked. His appearance in England aroused no enthusiasm among the Yorkists, and Henry easily defeated him at Stoke-upon-Trent, August 16th, 1487. The Earl of Lincoln and most of the Yorkist leaders fell, Lord Lovel fled, and the pretended Earl of Warwick, being captured, confessed that he was the son of an Oxford carpenter. Henry spared his life and made him a scullion in his kitchen.

Henry was prudent and cautious in his character, and very fond of money. In 1487 war broke out in France for the possession of the duchy of Brittany. Under the pretence of aiding the young Duchess Anne, Henry obtained liberal supplies from the parliament, and extorted large sums from the merchants as "benevolences." In 1492 he invaded France, besieged Boulogne for a few days, and then returned to

England, having been bought off by Charles VIII. for the sum of one hundred and forty-nine thousand pounds. Thus the shrewd king managed to fill his coffers at the expense of both nations.

A new pretender to the crown now appeared. He claimed to be Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York, the second son of King Edward IV. He appears to have been one Perkin Warbeck, the son of a renegade Jew of Tournay, and was induced by the Duchess of Burgundy to personate her nephew. On the outbreak of the war with England, Warbeck was invited by Charles VIII. to Paris, and handsomely entertained there. He sent him away on the conclusion of peace with Henry, and Warbeck went to the court of the Duchess of Burgundy, who received him as her nephew. Here he opened negotiations with some of the English nobility. These were detected by Henry, and a number of executions followed in England. Among these was Sir William Stanley, who had saved Henry's life at Bosworth Field. As Stanley was one of the richest gentlemen in England, it was believed that Henry had put him to death in order to confiscate his wealth to the crown. In 1496 Warbeck passed over to Scotland, where he was warmly received by King James IV., who gave him his beautiful kinswoman, Catharine Gordon, in marriage. The next year he landed in Cornwall, where he was joined by many of the people. On the approach of the royal army Warbeck abandoned his followers and took sanctuary, but surrendered upon being assured that his life should be spared. Lady Catharine Gordon, the wife of Perkin, fell into the hands of Henry, who treated her with kindness, and assigned her a place at the court of the queen. Warbeck was confined in the Tower, where his restless plots for securing his liberty caused him to incur the anger of the king, and he was hanged at Tyburn. He had managed to draw the Earl of Warwick into his plots, and Henry, who had been long watching for an opportunity to destroy Warwick, availed himself of this, and had him executed, A. D. 1499.

In 1501 Arthur, Prince of Wales, the eldest son of Henry VII., was married to Catharine of Aragon, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. The prince survived this union but five months, and Henry VII., unwilling to part with the rich dowry of the princess, obtained a dispensation from

the pope which enabled him to marry the young widow to his second son, Henry, who was now the heir to the crown. Henry was much younger than his bride, and was as much opposed to the match as a boy of twelve could be, but was forced into it by his father. In 1503 the Princess Margaret, the eldest daughter of Henry VII., was married to James IV. of Scotland. Both of these marriages were productive of the most important consequences.

Henry had always been mean and grasping, but during the latter part of his reign his exactions caused him to be cordially hated by his people. He wrung money from his subjects by a multitude of unlawful devices. His chief instruments in these extortions were two lawyers, named Richard Empson and Edmund Dudley, who searched out long-forgotten laws to enable him to impose unjust fines and penalties, and showed him how to use the courts of justice to carry out his most iniquitous schemes. This state of affairs ended only with the king's death, which took place on the 21st of April, at the new palace of Richmond.

CHAPTER V.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF HENRY VIII. TO THE DEATH OF ELIZABETH—THE REFORMATION.

Henry VIII. King—Punishes Empson and Dudley—War with France—Battle of the Spurs—Defeat of James IV. of Scotland at Flodden—Henry Visits Francis I. of France—The Field of the Cloth of Gold—Henry becomes the Ally of the Emperor Charles V.—Cardinal Wolsey—The Emperor Deceives him—Henry's Scruples as to his Marriage with Catharine—Becomes Enamored of Anne Boleyn—Applies to the Pope for a Divorce—Trial of Queen Catharine—Fall of Wolsey—Henry is Compelled to Favor the Reformers—Cranmer—His Advice to the King—Henry Submits the Question of his Marriage to the Universities—Cromwell made Prime Minister—The King Marries Anne Boleyn—Is Excommunicated—The Nun of Kent—Execution of Sir Thomas More—Henry's Connection with the Reformation—He Orders the Bible to be Translated into English—Execution of Queen Anne—Henry Marries Jane Seymour—Birth of Edward VI.—Reconciliation of the King and the Princess Mary—The Pilgrimage of Grace—Henry Suppresses the Monasteries—Seizes the Treasures of the Shrines—Rage of the Pope—The Six Articles—Henry Marries Anne of Cleves—Puts her Away—Fall of Cromwell—The King Marries Catharine Howard—Sends her to the Block—Reactionary Measures—Henry Marries Catharine Parr—Protects Cranmer—War with Scotland—Death of Henry—Wales Incorporated with England—Edward VI. King—Somerset Regent—Progress of the Reformation—Rapaicity of Somerset—His Fall—Northumberland Regent—Persuades the King to Alter the

Succession—Death of Edward VI.—Northumberland Proclaims Lady Jane Grey Queen—The People Support the Princess Mary—Lady Jane Grey made a Prisoner—Mary Ascends the Throne—Execution of Northumberland—Wyatt's Rebellion—Execution of Lady Jane Grey—Mary Marries Philip of Spain—His Unpopularity—The Roman Catholic Religion Restored—Persecution of the Protestants—The Martyrs—Cranmer Burned—Philip goes Back to Spain—Loss of Calais—Death of Mary—Elizabeth Proclaimed Queen—The Work of the Reformation Resumed—The Puritans—Character of Elizabeth—Peace with France—Mary of Scotland—A Dangerous Rival to Elizabeth—The French Driven from Scotland—Mary Returns to Scotland—Marries Darnley—Murder of Darnley—Civil War in Scotland—Mary takes Refuge in England—Is Made a Prisoner—Plots of the Catholics—Massacre of St. Bartholomew—Elizabeth Aids the Protestants of the Continent—Babington's Conspiracy—Execution of Mary—The Spanish Armada—Its Defeat and Destruction—The Earl of Essex—His Rebellion and Execution—Death of Elizabeth.

HENRY VIII. was eighteen years old at the death of his father. He was handsome, carefully educated, and highly accomplished, and was of a frank and hearty disposition. He was impatient and high-tempered also, but it was hoped that these faults would disappear with time. As he grew older, however, his nature became fiercer and more tyrannical. He began his reign by punishing Empson and Dudley for their iniquities during the last reign, but in order to show his regard for the letter of the law, had them convicted of high treason, a crime of which they were innocent, and they were executed.

Soon after he began his reign, Henry, without any reasonable cause or motive, involved himself in the quarrels of the states of continental Europe, and plunged England into a series of costly and unprofitable foreign wars. He became a party to the League of Cambray, but took no active part in the war against Venice. In 1512 he sent an unsuccessful expedition against France, in aid of Ferdinand of Spain, who managed to reap all the benefits of the enterprise. In 1513, in alliance with the emperor-elect, Maximilian I., the pope and the Swiss, he renewed his attempts against France. Landing at Calais with a force of 20,000 men, he advanced to T rouenne, and formed the siege of that place, and on the 16th of August defeated the French army at Guinegate, which engagement is known as the second *Battle of the Spurs*, from the ignominious flight of the French cavalry. T rouenne at once capitulated,

and Tournay surrendered soon after. The Scots, the allies of the French, took advantage of this war to invade England, led by their chivalrous sovereign, James IV. They were decisively defeated by Thomas Howard, Earl of Surrey, in the battle of Flodden, fought on the 9th of September. James and the flower of the Scottish nobility fell on this bloody field, and Scotland was reduced to such a critical condition that it could not have resisted Henry had he made a determined effort against it. He acted with generosity, however, and granted the request of his sister, Queen Margaret, for peace, and spared the helpless kingdom. Peace was made with France in 1514, Henry having become convinced of the folly of the war in which he was engaged. Louis XII. married Henry's sister, the Princess Mary. Three months later the French king died, and his widow gave her hand to Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. Suffolk was a favorite of Henry, and was readily forgiven for this marriage, which both parties had thought it politic to contract without Henry's consent.

Francis I. was now King of France, and Charles V. was Emperor of Germany and King of Spain. Both monarchs were anxious for the English alliance. Charles visited England and conferred with Henry at Dover. The English king then passed over to France to meet Francis, in June, 1520. He was magnificently entertained by the French monarch between Guines and Ardres. The splendor displayed was so great that the place of meeting was called "The Field of the Cloth of Gold." Nothing came of these interviews, and at the end of a fortnight Henry went back to England rather piqued than pleased at the splendors of the French, which outshone his own. He visited the Emperor Charles at Gravelines on his return, and induced him to spend some days with him at Calais. The emperor completely won over both the king and his minister, Cardinal Wolsey, and in 1522 Henry, acting upon the advice of Wolsey, embraced the side of Charles, and declared war against France. The captivity of Francis, and the unmistakable ambition of the emperor, opened the eyes of Henry to his true interests, and in 1525 he made peace with France, and signed a treaty of neutrality and defensive alliance with that kingdom. He bound himself to use every effort to obtain the liberation of

Francis, but exacted that that liberation should never be purchased by the surrender of any of the French territory.

During the greater portion of this time the policy of Henry had been to a great degree shaped by the influence of his prime minister, Cardinal Wolsey. Thomas Wolsey was the son of a butcher at Ipswich,

delaying his departure so long. He told the king that he had already been to Brussels, and had successfully executed his majesty's commands. Henry was astonished, but added: "On second thoughts, I found that somewhat was omitted in your orders, and have sent a messenger after you with fuller instructions." "I met the



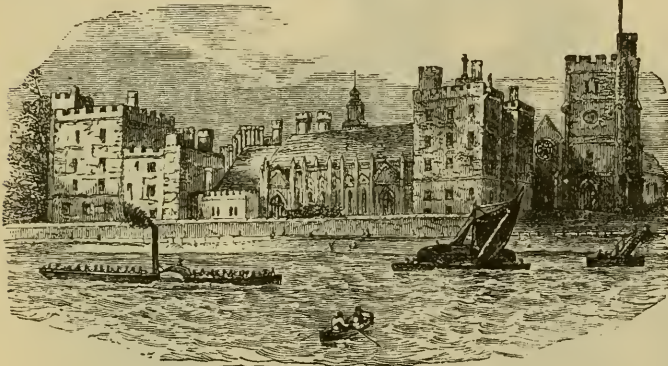
HENRY VIII.

but having obtained a learned education, had been appointed chaplain to Henry VII., who conceived a high respect for his abilities. On one occasion the king sent him on a secret mission to the Emperor Maximilian, who was then at Brussels. Three days later Wolsey entered the presence of the king, who reproved him for

messenger," replied Wolsey, "on my return; but, as I had reflected on that omission, I ventured, of myself, to execute what I knew must be your majesty's intentions." This incident strikingly illustrates the character of the man. The death of Henry prevented his immediate advancement, but he soon managed to gain the confidence and friend-

ship of Henry VIII. He devoted himself to promoting the pleasures of the king, and introduced business in the intervals of amusement, and insinuated those maxims of conduct which he was desirous his master should adopt. Henry made him Archbishop of York, and bestowed many other ecclesiastical offices upon him. He secured his appointment as cardinal, and soon after Wolsey was appointed papal legate at the king's request. His influence over Henry was supreme, and he administered the state very much as he saw fit, finding it easy to win over the king to all his measures. He affected the utmost pomp and splendor in his manner of living, and was haughty and imperious in his treatment of the most powerful nobles. Only to the king was he submissive and obedient. He managed to gather into his hands the ecclesiastical as

of his relinquishment of his design—a measure which he could not avoid. In 1523 Pope Leo X. died and was succeeded by Adrian VI., the tutor of the Emperor Charles. Wolsey was indignant at the failure of the emperor to comply with his promises in his behalf, but dissembled his resentment, as Adrian's great age and infirmities made it evident that he could not long remain upon the throne. Adrian died in 1523, and Clement VII. became his successor. Wolsey now saw that the emperor had never been sincere in his promises to him, and from this time the policy of England underwent a change. The disappointment of the ambitious prelate drove him to promote the true interests of his country by seeking to check the power of Spain. At home he was all powerful. His nomination as legate was confirmed by



LAMBETH PALACE.

both Adrian and Clement, and he held in his hands the whole of the papal power in England, which he used to suit his own purposes.

Events now began to take a course most unfavorable to him. Henry VIII. had been betrothed when a boy of twelve to Catharine of Aragon, his brother's widow. He had at first been bitterly opposed to this union, but had afterwards undergone a change of senti-

ment with regard to the princess, and had married her in the first year of his reign. The general sentiment of the people was opposed to a marriage between persons so closely connected, and after the king's accession, Archbishop Warham, the primate, and some other members of the privy council, had openly declared against this marriage. When Henry sought to arrange a marriage between his daughter Mary and Charles of Spain, the states of Castile had opposed the marriage on the ground of Mary's illegitimacy; and when negotiations were afterwards opened with France for the purpose of betrothing Mary to Francis, or to the Duke of Orleans, the French ambassador revived this objection. These and other things had served to call Henry's attention often to the question of the legality of his marriage with Catharine, and to raise doubts in his mind concerning it; but

well as the civil power, being both legate and minister. The law of the land was set at defiance by the establishment of a legatine court. Wolsey even cherished the hope of succeeding to the Holy See at the death of Pope Leo, and his ambition was artfully flattered by the Emperor Charles V., who induced him to believe that he would exert himself in his favor. Thus the haughty cardinal was making himself obnoxious to the whole kingdom except the sovereign and his own immediate following.

Wolsey was generally regarded as the author of the arbitrary measures by which the king endeavored in 1525 to extort money from his subjects, and which came near resulting in a general insurrection. Although the cardinal was simply carrying out the king's instructions, he became more bitterly hated than ever, while Henry, strange to say, became popular by reason

ment with regard to the princess, and had married her in the first year of his reign. The general sentiment of the people was opposed to a marriage between persons so closely connected, and after the king's accession, Archbishop Warham, the primate, and some other members of the privy council, had openly declared against this marriage. When Henry sought to arrange a marriage between his daughter Mary and Charles of Spain, the states of Castile had opposed the marriage on the ground of Mary's illegitimacy; and when negotiations were afterwards opened with France for the purpose of betrothing Mary to Francis, or to the Duke of Orleans, the French ambassador revived this objection. These and other things had served to call Henry's attention often to the question of the legality of his marriage with Catharine, and to raise doubts in his mind concerning it; but

as long as his wife suited his inclination he paid no attention to them. The queen, however, was older than her husband by six years, and though a woman of blameless character and deportment and of many virtues, had become personally unacceptable to him by reason of her failure to give him an heir, and by becoming diseased. All her children, save the Princess Mary, had died in early infancy. Henry now began to be troubled with serious doubts concerning the legality of his marriage, notwithstanding it had been celebrated under a dispensation from the pope. He seems to have been sincere in these doubts. His being without an heir he regarded as a fulfilment of the curse pronounced in the Mosaic law against him who espouses his brother's widow. The Princess Mary was his only child, and her claim might be contested by the King of Scotland at his death on the ground of her illegitimacy, and the kingdom once more plunged into civil war. Thus public as well as personal considerations induced the king to regard his marriage with regret. He applied to the Archbishop of Canterbury for advice, and the primate and all the bishops in the kingdom, save Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, declared under their hands and seals that they deemed the king's marriage unlawful. Wolsey also sustained the king's scruples.

So far Henry, who had ceased all but the most formal intercourse with the queen, was doubtless sincere. His scruples were now quickened by a violent passion which he conceived for Anne Boleyn, a young and beautiful lady of noble birth, whom he had met among the attendants of the queen. Finding her virtue equal to her beauty, Henry determined to make her his wife, and applied to Pope Clement VII. for a divorce. The pope was personally favorable to Henry, and would willingly have granted his request, but he feared to offend the Emperor Charles V., who was the nephew of Catharine, and who openly threatened Clement with his vengeance if he granted Henry's request. In this dilemma the pope hesitated, and kept Henry waiting for five years. He at last sent Cardinal Campeggio to England, who, with Wolsey, formed a court for the trial of the king's marriage. Catharine, who had never ceased to appeal to her nephew the emperor for protection, appeared before this court with the king, and throwing herself on her knees before Henry, addressed to him a

touching and passionate appeal not to brand her with the crime of incest and her child with illegitimacy, and implored him to remember the fidelity with which she had observed her marriage vows for twenty years. She then made a solemn appeal to the pope, and left the court and refused to enter it again. The trial was spun out for several months, and was conducted chiefly by Campeggio, who, on the 23d of July, 1529, suddenly adjourned it until October. A few days later orders came from Rome transferring the trial to that city. It was evident now to Henry that the pope was trifling with him, and that he was ready to sacrifice him to please the Emperor Charles.

The king now turned furiously upon Wolsey, who was in no way responsible for the pope's conduct. It was the king's habit to make his ministers responsible for the success of the matters intrusted to them. He proceeded with caution, however. First Wolsey, who had long dreaded such an event as the result of a failure of the trial, was deprived of the great seal, which was conferred upon Sir Thomas More. The cardinal was then ordered to leave London, and his palace of York Place, afterwards Whitehall, was seized by the king, who also confiscated his wealth. Wolsey retired to his country seat near Hampton Court, and was left in possession of his sees of York and Winchester. In his prosperity he had been followed by crowds who waited upon his favor. Now, with the exception of Thomas Cromwell, he was utterly deserted. His enemies, chief among whom was Anne Boleyn, who attributed to him the failure of her hopes, now sought to complete his ruin, and in 1530, the year after his fall, he was indicted for high treason—a crime of which he was certainly innocent—and was arrested by the Earl of Northumberland in his see of York. On the way to London he was seized with a fatal sickness, and died at Leicester Abbey. His last words were addressed to the constable of the Tower, who had him in custody: "Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, he would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

The fall of Wolsey was not the only important consequence of the failure of the pope to comply with Henry's desire for a divorce. We have seen that since the days of Wycliffe the reformed doctrines had been silently gathering strength in England. In this reign the number of those holding

these doctrines increased rapidly. The Reformation in Germany, and above all the accompanying religious movements in Switzerland and France, had affected England profoundly. Henry VIII. had indeed, in the earlier years of his reign, written a book to refute the doctrines of Martin Luther, and had been rewarded by the pope with the title of *Defender of the Faith*, but the reformers had multiplied so rapidly that they now constituted a strong party. The resentment which the king cherished towards the pope induced him to lean more and more favorably towards the reformers, as a means of humbling the pontiff and destroying his power in England, and he conceived the idea of making the English Church independent of Rome. Not that he wished to destroy the faith of Rome, for in all things Henry was still a good Catholic; but now that he was resolved to have done with the pope he could not help playing into the hands of the reformers. It should not be forgotten that Henry was in no sense responsible for the English Reformation. He used that great movement to serve his own selfish purposes, and sought to prevent it from attaining its legitimate results. He miscalculated both his ability and the force of the movement.

Dr. Thomas Cranmer, a fellow of Jesus College in Cambridge, having casually remarked to two of the king's ministers that Henry should submit the question of the legality of his marriage to the universities of Europe, because if they confirmed the king's view the pope would find it difficult to refuse Henry's petition, backed by the opinions of the most learned men of the world. Henry swore vehemently that Cranmer had the right sow by the ear, and not only acted upon his suggestion, but took Cranmer into favor. The question was submitted to the various universities of Europe, which decided in the king's favor, and, thus fortified, Henry renewed his request to the pope. Clement, still in fear of the emperor, declined to take any definite action, and cited Henry to appear at Rome.

Wolsey's power had passed to Sir Thomas Cromwell, who had served the cardinal with such fidelity that Henry had taken him into his confidence, and had made him secretary of state. Henry chose him because of his abilities and his bold, decisive character, for he wanted such an ally in his contest with the pope. Perceiving clearly that nothing was to be hoped for from the

pontiff, Cromwell advised the king to declare himself the head of the church in his own dominions, and Henry promptly acted upon this advice. The bishops and higher clergy prepared to resist, but the king put a most formidable agency in operation against them. Nearly all of them had by their submission to the legatine court violated the statute of *Præmunire*, and had thus rendered themselves liable to its penalties. Henry determined to use this statute against them, and the clergy, who knew that it was useless to oppose reason or argument to the arbitrary will of the king, made their peace with him by paying a fine of £118,840, and acknowledging that the king was the "protector and supreme head of the church and clergy of England." This acknowledgment they qualified by the clause "in so far as is permitted by the laws of Christ." By this measure Henry struck a decisive blow at the connection between the English Church and Rome, and laid the foundation of its complete independence of that power. He next proceeded to put a stop to the payment of the large sums which were annually drawn from England by the pontiff, and a statute was passed by parliament which forbade all appeals to the pope or to any person outside the realm. These measures induced the chancellor, Sir Thomas More, one of the best of Englishmen, and a devoted Catholic, to resign his office. Henry received his resignation with regret, as he sincerely esteemed him, but went on with his efforts. Having carried his other points, he now treated his marriage with Catharine as invalid, and married Anne Boleyn. A daughter was born of this union, who subsequently became Queen Elizabeth. Catharine, who steadfastly refused to forego her title of queen, or to acknowledge the annulment of her marriage, died in 1536.

When the news of the king's marriage with Anne reached Rome, the pope was urged by the cardinals favorable to the emperor to proceed to extreme measures against Henry, but he contented himself with confirming the validity of the marriage with Catharine, and pronounced that with Anne null and void. He threatened Henry with excommunication if matters were not restored to their original footing. A little later an effort of Francis I. to mediate between Henry and the pope having failed, Clement proceeded to more extreme measures against Henry. Parliament now

made it treason to deny that the king was "the supreme head on earth of the Church of England." A number of Catholics refused to acknowledge this supremacy, among whom were Sir Thomas More and Fisher, Bishop of Rochester. Neither would they recognize the exclusion of the Princess Mary from the succession. More and Fisher were sent to the Tower. A little later an insurrection was attempted by the Catholics in consequence of some alleged prophecies of a nun of Kent. This outbreak was quelled and the imposture exposed. The king, being determined to strike a decisive blow at the Romish party, now caused Fisher and More to be condemned and executed for treason, A. D. 1535. Fisher had been made a cardinal by the pope during his imprisonment, and when the news of his execution reached Rome, Pope Paul III. excommunicated Henry, declared him deprived of his crown, and laid the kingdom under an interdict.

Thus far the king had been compelled by his own necessities in the struggle with Rome to move forward with the reformers. He was greatly indebted to the Reformation for the success of his movements, but the Reformation owed him little or nothing. Cranmer and Cromwell, though they had not yet openly departed from the ancient doctrines, endeavored steadily to lead the king into measures favorable to the reformers, while the Duke of Norfolk and the other leaders of the Catholic party endeavored to encourage his devotion to the Catholic faith, and to prevent a separation of the English Church from Rome in points of doctrine. They were working, however, against a force which was more potent than they believed. The Bible had been made accessible to the English, and was doing its work rapidly and decisively among them. In 1526 a translation of the Scriptures into the English language was made by William Tyndale, and was published in the Low Countries. Its circulation was forbidden in England under heavy penalties, but the demand for it was great, and it was read in spite of the severe laws against it. Evidences were multiplied that the English were beginning to lose their belief in the cardinal doctrine of the Roman Catholic faith—that of transubstantiation, and that the doctrine of justification by faith was becoming stronger. Several martyrs were found, who sealed their opposition to the

former and their fidelity to the latter with their blood. Henry punished with an unsparring hand both those who maintained the pope's supremacy against his own, and those who denied the doctrines of the Roman Church. He still retained his early detestation of Luther and his principles. The English reformers, however, were passing beyond the point reached by Luther, and were placing the doctrines of their church far in advance of his. Cranmer, sensible of the influence of the Scriptures upon their readers, procured, in 1536, a resolution from both houses of convocation requesting the king to cause the Scriptures to be translated by learned men appointed by him, and given to the people. He was warmly supported by Queen Anne and Cromwell, and the result was that the king sanctioned the translation of the entire Bible made by Miles Coverdale, and printed, it is supposed, at Zurich in Switzerland. He ordered that the whole Bible, both in Latin and in English, should be placed in the choir of every parish church, and that all men should be exhorted to read it. This was an immense gain for the reformers, A. D. 1536. At the advice of Cranmer, the king now resolved to suppress the monasteries, which had become not only the centres of a gross corruption and a baneful idleness, but of unremitting opposition and hostility to the crown. He proceeded carefully, however. In 1536 the lesser monasteries were suppressed, but it was not until 1538 that the greater establishments were closed.

The reformers now suffered a severe loss. The queen, Anne Boleyn, who was inclined to their doctrines and exerted her influence with the king in their behalf, fell into disfavor. Henry's passion for her having cooled, he became indifferent to her. Her enemies—the whole Catholic party—exerted themselves to widen the breach between the king and herself, and in this they succeeded. The king was induced to believe that his consort was unfaithful to him, and she was arrested and consigned to the Tower. She was tried by a jury of peers, and upon the most worthless evidence was sentenced to death, and was beheaded on the Tower green. "The innocence of this unfortunate queen," says Hume, "cannot reasonably be called in question. Henry himself, in the violence of his rage, knew not whom to accuse as her lover, and though he imputed guilt to her brother and

four persons more, he was able to bring proof against none of them." Henry was tired of his wife, and anxious to remove her as she stood in the way of his gratification of a new passion. On the very day after her execution, he married Jane Seymour, the daughter of a Wiltshire knight. The next year she bore him a son, who was named Edward, but she died a few days later, 1537. The execution of Anne Boleyn was made the occasion of a reconciliation between the king and his elder daughter, the Princess Mary. He required her to acknowledge his supremacy, and to admit the illegality of her mother's marriage. She was twenty years old, and a woman of spirit, and these were hard terms. She knew her father's character too well to resist, however, and was aware that her own safety depended upon her acquiescence. She therefore wrote him a letter admitting his claims, and was received into favor.

The suppression of the monasteries threw a large sum into the hands of the king, as they were possessed of great wealth. The people of the northern counties, who were still attached to the old religion, broke out into rebellion. One hundred thousand men took up arms, and set out from Yorkshire for London, to compel Henry to restore the Romish faith and the papal supremacy in England. The king was obliged to take the field against them, and the insurrection was with difficulty suppressed. Several of the great abbots and nobles were put to death for their part in these troubles. The revolt received the singular name of "the Pilgrimage of Grace." Henry derived from the acquisition of the wealth of the monasteries yearly revenues amounting to over £130,000. He set apart a sum not exceeding £8,000 for the establishment of a number of new bishoprics. He gambled away a large part of the rest, and gave the remainder to his favorites. Henry next proceeded to destroy the rich shrines which had so long been the objects of adoration. The treasures attached to them were enormous. The gold from the shrine of Becket, who was known as St. Thomas of Canterbury, filled two chests which were a load for eight strong men. Henry not only stripped Becket's shrine, but proceeded to uncanonize him, declaring that he was no saint, but had died as a rebel and a traitor. These acts aroused the pope (Paul III.) to more energetic measures. Henry was excommunicated and

deprived of his crown, the kingdom was laid under an interdict, and his subjects were absolved from their allegiance to him. The pope called upon the people and nobles of England to take up arms against the king, who was declared infamous, and all the princes of Christendom were commanded, in virtue of the obedience they owed to the apostolic see, to make war upon him, and to seize such of his subjects as they could lay hands on, and hold them as slaves. In England the efforts of the pope produced no effect. The reformers were too strong, the power of the king was too great, and the exposures of fraud and corruption on the part of the Romish Church, which had accompanied the suppression of the monasteries, had disgusted the English people too thoroughly to allow the Catholic party to hope for a successful rebellion; and England was too formidable for any foreign power to wish to go to war with her on her own soil. Moreover the spiritual weapons of the pope had lost their force in the eyes of Christendom. Cardinal Reginald Pole, a grandson of George, Duke of Clarence, and a kinsman of Henry, was residing abroad at the time. He did his best to stir up the foreign princes to a war with England, but without result. His elder brother, Lord Montague, and his aged mother, Margaret, Countess of Salisbury, the last of the direct line of the Plantagenets, and some others, being detected in treasonable correspondence with him, were sent to the block.

Although he had gone to such extremes as we have related, Henry was still sincerely attached to the Catholic faith. In 1539 he joined hands with the Catholic party, and the "six articles," which substantially imposed the Catholic faith upon the nation, were adopted. This was a direct blow to the reformers, and Henry exerted all his despotic power to compel the acceptance of the articles. He could never tolerate any claim of his subjects to think for themselves in religious matters, but sought to compel them to accept his views. Several persons were sent to the stake for rejecting the articles. The parliament now made a complete surrender of the rights and liberties of the nation by giving to the king's proclamations the force of laws. Henry now strikingly manifested the inconsistency of his character by giving every householder leave to have the new translation of the Bible in his family.

The reformers were now to suffer another severe loss. Henry was anxious to marry again, and, through the influence of Cromwell, his choice fell upon Anne, daughter of the Duke of Cleves, a Protestant princess of Germany. The marriage took place early in 1540. When the new queen arrived in England Henry found her stupid and unattractive. The king in disgust sought and found a pretext for annulling his marriage with her, and she consented to accept a handsome pension in lieu of the royal dignity, and remained in England until her death. Henry soon became enamored of Catharine Howard, a niece of the Duke of Norfolk, the leader of the Catholic party. He had never forgiven Cromwell for his blunder in procuring such an unacceptable bride for him as Anne of Cleves, and Norfolk and the Catholic leaders resolved to make this resentment and the king's passion for Catharine Howard the occasion of destroying Cromwell. That minister was cordially hated by the whole Catholic party for his prominent part in the destruction of the monasteries, which had won him the name of "the Hammer of the Monks." Henry lent himself willingly to this scheme, and Cromwell was arrested and beheaded on the 28th of July, 1540, on a charge of high treason, and without being allowed a hearing in his own defence. His only crime was the too hearty zeal with which he had supported the tyranny of Henry. After Cromwell's death Henry hastened his marriage with Catharine Howard. This marriage brought to him a portion of the punishment his iniquitous course respecting his wives deserved. A little more than a year after her marriage the queen was found to be a notoriously dissolute woman, and was beheaded on the 12th of February, 1542. Several of her paramours were also executed.

The death of Cromwell and the marriage with Catharine Howard restored the Catholics to power. They did not dare to proceed in the course they had marked out as Romanists, for their influence with the king would have perished with such an avowal, so they craftily maintained their influence over him as believers in transubstantiation. The six articles were rigorously enforced, and in 1543 the general permission to read the Bible was revoked. Only the higher classes, or merchants, who were householders, might read it, but it was forbidden to the common people. In the same year

the king married Catharine Parr, the widow of Lord Latimer, a woman of ability and great discretion, who managed to retain her influence over him until his death. She was known to be favorably inclined to the reformers, and Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, and the Catholic party energetically sought to destroy her. They did succeed in putting to death Anne Askew, one of her attendants, and sought by the cruellest torture to wring from her some confession damaging to the queen, but without success. Enraged by their defeat, they turned upon Cranmer, and representing to Henry that the primate and his learned men were destroying the kingdom with heresy, asked his commitment to the Tower. Henry thoroughly esteemed, and was sincerely attached to, Cranmer. He allowed Gardiner and his colleagues to proceed far enough to show the archbishop who were his enemies, and who his friends, and then sternly forbade them to raise a hand against the primate, whom he declared to be faithful and true. From this time the queen and the primate were safe from the attacks of the Romanists.

For some time past Henry had been trying to draw the Scottish kingdom into closer relations with England, but James V. of Scotland, who was a Romanist, had no wish for the alliance of his uncle, whom he regarded as the great enemy of his church. In 1542 Henry, greatly vexed at his failure, declared war against Scotland. James, hoping to anticipate him, sent a force of 10,000 men over the border. These troops were put to a shameful flight by a body of 500 English at Solway Moss. James died of shame and grief at this humiliation, leaving his crown to his infant daughter, Mary Stuart. Henry, who earnestly desired a union of the two kingdoms, negotiated a marriage between Mary and his son Edward. The Queen of Scotland and the regent, the Earl of Arran, being Catholics, determined to disregard this treaty. Henry attempted to enforce it by sending an army into Scotland under the Earl of Hertford, the brother of Queen Jane Seymour. The country was ravaged, and Edinburgh was sacked and burned. This war led to one with France, in which Henry acted as the ally of the Emperor Charles. In 1544 Henry passed over to France, and captured Boulogne after a short siege. The next year peace was made with France and Scotland, and it was agreed

that Boulogne should be restored to the French at the end of eight years in consideration of the payment of a sum of money.

In his later years Henry became very corpulent, and towards the last was very infirm. His health continued to fail, and he made his will, settling the succession, in case of the failure of heirs to his son Edward, upon his daughter Mary and her heirs, then upon his daughter Elizabeth and her heirs. On the 19th of January,

paid great attention to the navy, and succeeded in bringing it to a high state of efficiency.

Henry was succeeded by his young son Edward VI., a child of ten years. The Earl of Hertford, the brother of Queen Jane Seymour, was declared protector of the kingdom, and was created Duke of Somerset. He was a man of great rapacity and ambition, but was much beloved by the common people. He began his administration by endeavoring to compel the Scots to



BATTLE OF PINKIE.

1547, he caused the Earl of Surrey, the son of the Duke of Norfolk, to be executed for high treason. On the 28th of January, in the same year, Henry died, after a reign of nearly thirty-eight years, and in the fifty-sixth year of his age.

In 1536 Wales was incorporated with England, and the laws and privileges of England were extended over that country. In 1542 Ireland, in which the English authority had been strengthened, was raised to the dignity of a kingdom. Henry VIII.

executed the treaty of marriage between Edward VI. and Mary Stuart, and made a savage invasion of Scotland for that purpose. He defeated the Scots at Pinkie in 1547, and though he did not succeed in securing the fulfilment of the treaty won considerable credit at home by his course. The next year the Scots settled the matter by sending their young queen to France, and marrying her to the Dauphin Francis, the son of Henry II.

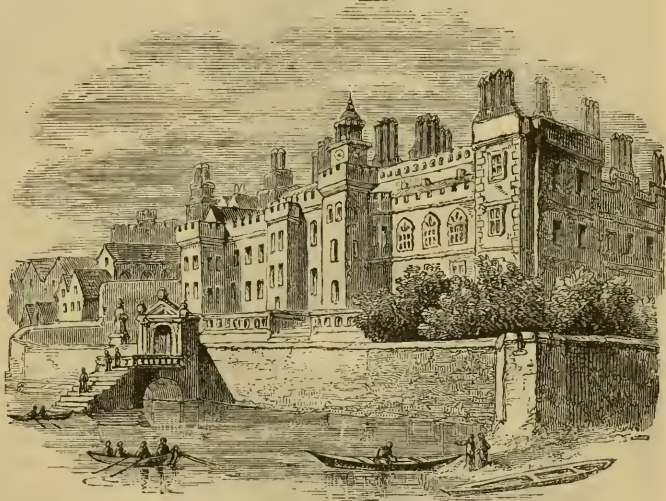
Edward had been trained in the reformed

doctrines, and Somerset was favorable to the same belief. The first parliament repealed the six articles, and Henry's tyrannical laws concerning treason. The political leaders during this reign, anxious to obtain the wealth of the church, committed many outrages upon the Catholic clergy. The direction of the doctrinal part of the reformation lay chiefly in the hands of Cranmer, who was assisted by Bishops Latimer and Ridley. The character of the primate inclined him to mildness, and the work went on with moderation. The churches were stripped of their crucifixes, images, and paintings, and a simpler service in the English language was substituted for the celebration of the mass. The Book of Common Prayer was compiled by Archbishop Cranmer, who took the old Latin service as the groundwork of the book. The first prayer book was published in 1549, but in 1552 many changes were made in it to suit the views of the more advanced reformers. The complete success of the reformers betrayed them into serious indiscretions, and it needed the severe trials of the next reign to remove these evils and purify their work.

Somerset's ambition and rapacity soon raised up enemies for him at home. The first of these was his brother Thomas, Lord Seymour of Sudley, High Admiral of England, who was even more ambitious and unprincipled than the protector. He had married Catharine Parr, the widow of Henry VIII., and aimed at taking his brother's place as protector. Somerset had him attainted for high treason, and he was executed without being allowed a hearing in his own defence on the 20th of March, 1549. The spoliation and seizure of the abbey lands and other church property which disgraced the early part of this reign was stopped by the influence of Cranmer, but not until Somerset had amassed a large fortune from the plunder. The Romanists in the west took up arms to compel the restoration of the mass and the plundered lands, but the insurrection was quelled.

As Somerset was believed to sympathize with the rebels in many things, his enemies succeeded in securing his removal from the protectorate, and the administration of the state passed into the hands of his great rival, the Duke of Northumberland. In 1552 Somerset was charged with conspiring against Northumberland and the other great lords of the council, and was beheaded. His death caused universal sorrow among the common people.

Northumberland's administration was even worse than that of Somerset, and he was disliked by the people. His reign did not last long. In 1553 Edward VI., who was a youth of remarkable promise and of great sweetness of character, fell seriously ill. Northumberland, who had espoused



OLD SOMERSET HOUSE.

the Protestant cause, knew that the accession of Mary would restore the Romish faith and system, and persuaded the dying king to alter the succession. By this act, which was unlawful, as it had not received the sanction of parliament, Edward excluded his sisters from the succession, and bestowed the crown upon his cousin, Lady Jane Grey, daughter of the Duke of Suffolk, and granddaughter of Mary Tudor and Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. The king's motive was the security of the reformed religion. That of Northumberland was more selfish. He had just married his fourth son, Lord Guilford Dudley, to Lady Jane, and he hoped to secure him the crown by this irregular transfer of it. Edward died at Greenwich on the 6th of July,

1553. It was commonly believed that Northumberland had hastened his end by poison.

Northumberland had intended to keep the king's death secret until he could secure the arrest of Mary and Elizabeth, but the former received warning from faithful friends and escaped into Norfolk. Northumberland then proclaimed Lady Jane Grey queen on the 10th of July, to her great regret and against her remonstrances. She was prevailed upon by her husband and father-in-law to submit to their will, but the people refused to acknowledge her



QUEEN MARY.

title, and rallied around Mary, who was universally regarded as the rightful heir. Mary was proclaimed amid the rejoicings of the people, and her triumph was secured almost without opposition. On the 19th of July she entered London. Northumberland was seized, tried and beheaded, and died declaring himself a Catholic. Jane and her husband were arrested and imprisoned in the tower. Renard, the Spanish ambassador, to whose evil counsels much of the misery of this reign was due, advised the queen to put them to death at once, but as yet she declined to do so.

Mary, who was a Catholic, began her

reign with a solemn promise to make no change in the religion established by her brother. She then proceeded to violate this pledge. The rapacity of Somerset and Northumberland had brought the reformed religion into discredit with a large part of the nation, and there were not wanting many who were willing to see the old faith restored. Mary soon satisfied them. She restored the Catholic faith and worship, made Gardiner chancellor, and caused many of the leading reformers to fly the kingdom. Cranmer, who had favored Lady Jane Grey, was arrested, thrown into prison, and sentenced to death for high treason. The queen reserved him for a still more terrible fate. The Princess Elizabeth, who was a Protestant, was ordered to embrace the Catholic faith, and during the whole reign was in serious danger of her life. She was kept a prisoner, but escaped the queen's vengeance by dissembling her real sentiments.

Mary now expressed her determination to bestow her hand upon Philip of Spain, the son of the Emperor Charles V., the most bigoted prince of Europe. The match was unpopular with every class of the English people; all feared that it would result in the loss of the freedom of the country, which Philip would seek to make a mere province of Spain—a most reasonable fear. In order to prevent the marriage, Sir Thomas Wyatt raised a body of Kentish men and marched to London to seize the queen. He was defeated and made a prisoner. The rebels had intended to proclaim Lady Jane Grey queen in the event of their success, and Mary, in order to prevent a recurrence of the trouble, caused both Lady Jane and her husband, Guilford Dudley, to be beheaded on the 12th of February, 1554. Wyatt and the Duke of Suffolk, and many others concerned in the insurrection were also put to death. The Princess Elizabeth and Courtenay, Earl of Devon, great-grandson of Edward IV., were suspected of aspiring to the throne, and were committed to the Tower. The Spanish ambassador earnestly sought to induce Mary to put her sister to death, but as there was no evidence to convict her of treason, Mary did not dare to venture upon so extreme a measure, and merely placed her for a time in confinement at Woodstock.

In July, 1554, Philip of Spain came over to England, and was married to the queen. It was agreed by parliament that he should

be called King of England during the life of Mary, but that body stoutly refused to allow him to be crowned, or to succeed the queen in the event of her death without heirs. The whole nation was distrustful of Philip, whose cold and haughty manners increased his unpopularity, and the cruelty with which the queen had removed those whom she considered her enemies had caused her to become universally hated throughout the kingdom. Philip's ruling

Cardinal Reginald Pole was sent to England as the pope's legate to complete the work of restoring the Catholic faith. On the 30th of November, 1554, both houses of parliament met at Whitehall, and kneeling before the legate received from him for the whole realm absolution for the national sins of heresy and schism. Mary, more zealous than her subjects, restored to the church such of the confiscated ecclesiastical property as remained in the possession of



EXECUTION OF LADY JANE GREY.

passion was ambition, and Mary soon perceived that the best way to retain his affection was to help him to become master of England. Had not parliament, in spite of its submissiveness in other respects, been so resolute to maintain the independence of the kingdom, the evils of this reign would have been increased by the sacrifice of England to the queen's fondness for her husband.

The marriage was followed by a reconciliation of the kingdom with Rome.

the crown, but it was found impossible to recover the property that had passed into other hands. The ecclesiastical legislation of Henry VIII. was repealed, and the laws against the Lollards were revived.

Mary was determined that her people should be forced to conform to the Catholic faith, and severe measures were put in force against those who refused to do so. The execution of these measures was intrusted to the clergy. Gardiner, the chancellor, was quite prominent in these severities, but he soon

became disgusted with the horrid task, and resigned it to Bonner, the brutal Bishop of London. The persecution began in 1555 with the martyrdom of John Rogers, who was burned at Smithfield for denying the doctrine of transubstantiation. Other martyrs were found rapidly by the persecuting agents of the queen and the church. Between the execution of Rogers and the close of the reign, a period of three years, 277 persons were burned alive for heresy, namely, five bishops, twenty-one clergymen, eight lay gentlemen, eighty-four tradesmen, 100 husbandmen, servants, and laborers, fifty-five women, and four children. "The crime for which almost all the Protestants were condemned," says Hume, "was their refusal to acknowledge the real presence. . . . The persons condemned to these punishments were not convicted of teaching or dogmatizing, contrary to the established religion; they were seized merely on suspicion, and articles being offered them to subscribe, they were, immediately, upon their refusal condemned to the flames. . . . Each martyrdom was equivalent to a hundred sermons against popery; and men either avoided such horrid spectacles, or returned from them full of a violent though secret indignation against the persecutors." Many of the worst practices of the Spanish Inquisition were introduced into England, to the indignation and disgust of the nation.

The principal martyrs were, in the order named, John Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester; Bishops Latimer and Ridley, who were burned together, and Edward Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury. The martyrdom of Cranmer was the most injurious to the Church of Rome of any that took place during this reign. Thousands had witnessed the patient heroism with which he suffered at the stake, and the whole land mourned the good archbishop. So much popular sympathy was shown to the martyrs that the queen issued a proclamation forbidding her subjects to approach, speak to, or comfort heretics on their way to execution. This command was utterly disregarded. The English people, to whom such cruelties were foreign, deeply resented them. Each case of persecution made fresh converts for the Reformation. The queen was given the name of "Bloody Mary," to express the detestation her people bore her, and Philip was hated to an even greater degree.

The marriage of the queen was unhappy. She was a small, haggard, sickly woman, eleven years older than her husband. The marriage had been one of policy on his part, and though his wife was passionately attached to, and extremely jealous of him, Philip did not trouble himself to return her affection. He soon became tired of her, and gladly went back to Spain when recalled by his father's abdication. He returned to England in 1556 for a short time, to secure the alliance of that country in his war with France. He told the queen that if she refused his demand, he would never set foot in England again, and the poor woman, half mad with the fear of losing her husband, wrung a considerable sum of money from her subjects in the most arbitrary manner, and sent a force of 10,000 men to the aid of Philip. War was declared against France, but the only result of this struggle as far as England was concerned was the loss of Calais, which was captured by the Duke of Guise in January, 1558. In actual fact England could well afford to lose the town, but it had been made a point of honor to hold it for centuries, and its loss was a severe blow to the pride of the nation.

In spite of her crimes it is impossible to withhold our pity from Mary. She was hated and cursed by her people with a bitterness which words have no power to express. She was aware of this, and the knowledge caused her no little suffering. Her husband, tired of her, remained on the continent, and paid no heed to the piteous letters she constantly addressed to him. She supposed herself pregnant, when in reality the symptoms which she thus interpreted were but the signs of an incurable disease. Her people were not slow to give her evidences of their hatred of her. Libels and lampoons, ribald ballads upon her supposed pregnancy were dropped by unknown hands where she could not fail to find them. As she read them she would give way to bursts of despairing fury, and then go to her chamber to weep her heart out in the bitterness of her sorrow. There she would sit for hours on the floor, her knees drawn up to her face. Then rousing herself, she would wander restlessly about the corridors of the palace, or write to her husband those sorrowful, tear-blotted letters with which she vainly tried to move his heart of adamant. At last, on the 17th of November, 1558, Mary died. Her death

was followed within twenty-four hours by that of Cardinal Pole. The news was greeted in all parts of England with demonstrations of joy. The death of Mary ended the power of Rome in England.

Mary having died without heirs, her sis-

they had been left by Edward VI. The supremacy of the crown was restored by act of parliament, though the sovereign discontinued the title of "Head of the Church." The bishops of Mary's reign, with a few exceptions, refused to take the



QUEEN ELIZABETH.

ter Elizabeth, the daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn, was proclaimed queen. She was attached to the faith of the Reformation, and began her reign by reversing the acts of Mary with regard to church matters, and restored the doctrines and worship of the church to the form in which

oath of supremacy, and were deprived of their sees. Elizabeth recalled the bishops who had fled to the continent to escape Mary's wrath, and new consecrations were made by these to fill the vacant sees. Dr. Matthew Parker, a man eminent for his learning and piety, was made Archbishop

of Canterbury. Some alterations were made in the second prayer-book of Edward VI., and it was ordered to be used in the church. Parliament passed a new act of uniformity, and imposed a fine upon all who absented themselves from church. Many Roman Catholics, unable to submit to this law, fled the kingdom, and from the continent kept Elizabeth in danger by their plots throughout her reign.

Another class of Christians also found the queen's determination to make all her

meetings of their own, and towards the close of the reign openly separated from the church, as a distinct sect, and were known as Independents. A "Court of High Commission" was appointed by Elizabeth to enforce the act of uniformity. The non-conformists were punished by fines and imprisonment, but they held on to their doctrines.

In spite of this division, however, the English Protestants presented an unbroken front to Rome and to their foreign enemies.

The Puritans never wavered in their loyalty to Elizabeth, but gave her their unflinching support in the great trials to which the religious and political enmity of Rome and Spain subjected the kingdom. As the greatest of the Protestant sovereigns, Elizabeth became the hope of the reformers in all parts of Europe. She was not able to help them to the extent of her power, for she was always surrounded by dangers and difficulties which compelled her to act with the greatest caution. Still the assistance she gave to the reformers in France, the Netherlands and Scotland, was of great service to them, and the moral weight of her alliance was of the highest importance to them.

Elizabeth was twenty-six years old when she came to the throne, and it was hoped by her subjects that she would marry and give them a sovereign of her own blood to succeed her. Philip of Spain offered her his hand on condition of her renunciation of the reformed faith, but she declined the alliance of a man who had persecuted her in her days of helplessness. Several eligible matches were proposed to her during her reign, but she refused them all, preferring to continue her estate of maidenhood,



QUEEN ELIZABETH SETTING OUT FOR LONDON.

subjects conform to the established church a source of trouble. These were the extreme Protestants or "Puritans," as they were called from their desire for a simpler and purer form of worship—that is, one farther removed from the Roman Catholic forms. These persons had no wish to leave the Church of England, but strove to establish their ideas in its doctrines and ritual. Some of the more advanced objected to the government of bishops. Finding it impossible to carry out their wishes, they began to withdraw from the church and hold

and perhaps wisely, as this resolve left her more independent and freer to carry out her vigorous policy. In whatever light we view her character, we are compelled to acknowledge her as a great sovereign. She possessed in a high degree the qualities of vigor of mind, energy, constancy, penetration, vigilance, magnanimity, and tact. A daughter of Henry VIII., she was imperious and high-tempered, but she was a more faithful friend than her father, and had her weaker qualities under the firm control of her vigorous and sagacious mind. She in-

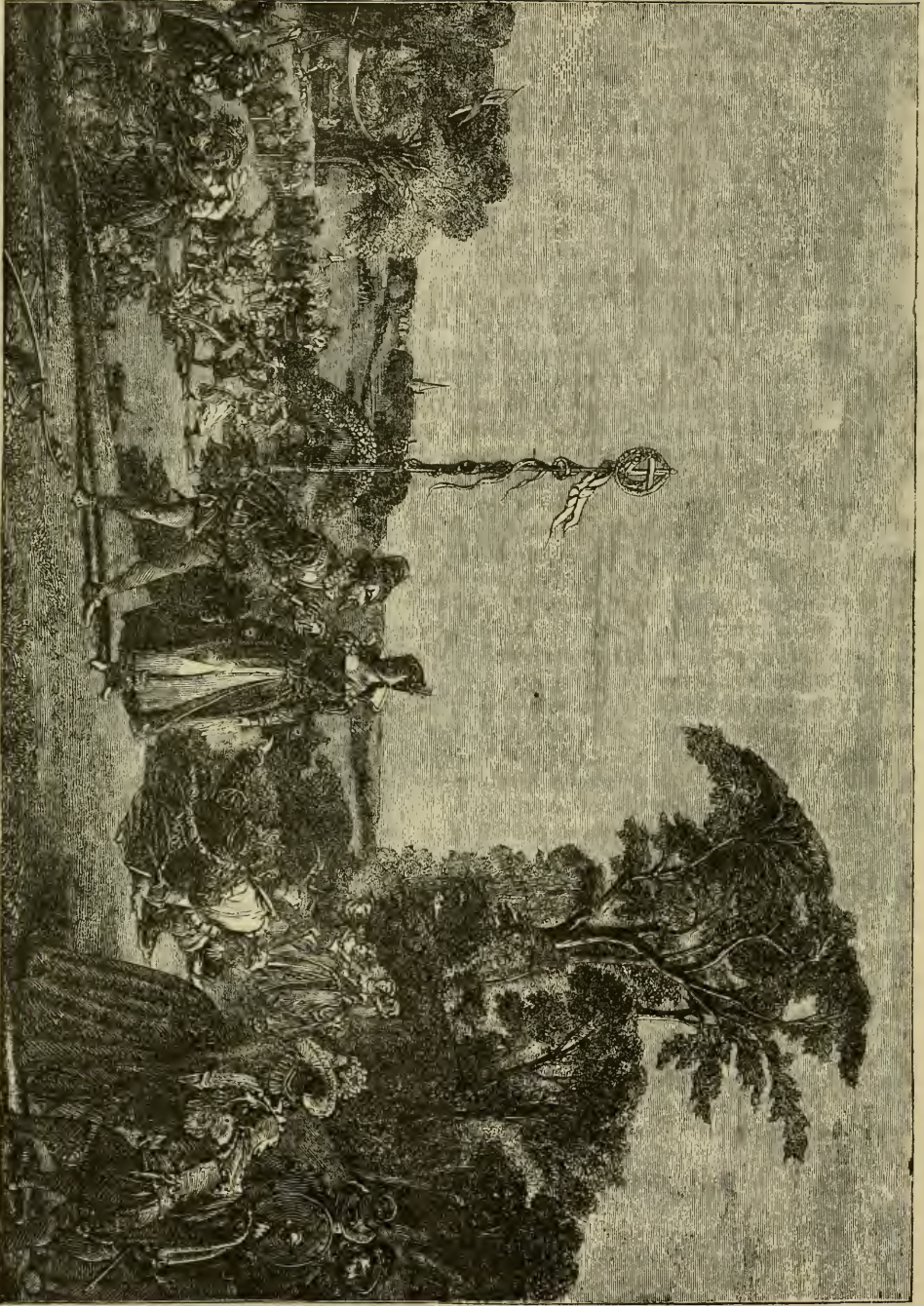
herited the faults of her sex, and was vain of her beauty, jealous of those women whom she deemed her rivals, and fond of admiration. But though she had lovers and favorites, she never yielded her honor to her passion, or allowed them to cause her to sacrifice the public interests to her tenderness. She was not tolerant, but she kept the religious differences of her people within bounds by her strong personal influence over them. Although a woman, she maintained her country's renown at the highest point, and made her friendship to be courted and her enmity dreaded by the most powerful sovereigns of Europe. She showed a rare discernment in the selection of her ministers, and rarely failed to choose the most fitting instruments for the execution of her will. She supported them with unvarying constancy, but she remained their mistress, and it was her firm hand that guided England safely through the dangers which encompassed her reign. Her chief minister was Sir William Cecil, afterwards Lord Burleigh, whom she made lord high treasurer. He was a statesman of great ability and integrity, and served the queen with remarkable fidelity. To his wise counsels much of the success of her reign is to be attributed.

One of the first acts of Elizabeth's reign was to make peace with France. Calais was left in the hands of the French. This peace, however, did not produce a return of good feeling between the two kingdoms. Mary Stuart, the young Queen of Scotland, who had been married to Francis, the Dauphin of France and son of Henry II., was, next to Elizabeth, the nearest relative of Henry VIII., and the true heir to the crown in the event of Elizabeth's death. Those who regarded the marriage of Henry and Anne Boleyn as unlawful, and Elizabeth as an illegitimate child, and therefore incapable of succeeding to the throne, of necessity regarded Mary Stuart as the true heir of Mary Tudor. Henry II. adopted this view, which at the accession of his son would unite the crowns of France, Scotland, and England, if it should prevail, and sought to induce the pope to excommunicate Elizabeth and turn her Catholic subjects against her. By his command Francis and Mary assumed the arms and titles of King and Queen of England. Elizabeth remonstrated through her ambassador, but could obtain no satisfaction. After the accession of Francis II. to the French

throne, the Guises pushed matters to greater extremities, and Elizabeth was naturally driven to regard Mary and her husband as her most dangerous enemies.

Scotland had been for some time in a most disordered state. The reformers, who now comprised the great bulk of the nation, had obliged the queen regent, Mary's mother, to grant their demands, which included entire toleration in matters of religion, and the discouragement of the French influence, which had grown too great for the safety of the independence of the kingdom. Margaret, however, in league with the French court, set herself to work to bring Scotland into more complete subjection to France, after which it was intended to rid the former kingdom of heresy. Troops were sent over from France, and the danger became so evident that the Scottish reformers appealed to Elizabeth for aid. That queen, perceiving the extent of the danger to England of the success of the French schemes, responded to this appeal at once, and sent a fleet into the Frith of Forth and an army across the border, which compelled the French forces in Scotland to capitulate. A treaty was concluded between England and France, by which the French troops were withdrawn from Scotland; the French sovereigns agreed to cease to bear the arms and titles of the English sovereign; and Scottish affairs were settled by the exclusion of foreigners from office in that kingdom. This vigorous action on the part of Elizabeth raised her credit to a high degree abroad. The Scottish reformers assembled a parliament and established their faith throughout Scotland, and continued their alliance with Elizabeth.

The death of Francis II. put an end to the danger of a war with France on account of Mary's pretensions to the English crown; but that queen, acting upon the advice of her uncle, the Duke of Guise, would not formally surrender those claims. Moreover, she had not yet, as Queen of Scotland, given her assent to the treaty of Edinburgh, the terms of which we have just stated. The ill treatment which Mary received after the death of her husband, from Catharine de' Medici, made her anxious to leave France and return to Scotland. She therefore asked permission of Elizabeth to pass through England on her way home, but Elizabeth made her consent conditional upon the ratification of the treaty. Appre-



MAY DAY IN THE TIME OF QUEEN ELIZABETH.

ciating the danger of the presence in Scotland of Mary, whose title to the English crown was regarded by the Catholic party as preferable to her own, Elizabeth stationed a fleet in the channel to intercept her. Mary succeeded, however, in eluding this force in a fog, and reached Scotland in safety. The Scotch reformers were not inclined to regard her with favor. She was a Catholic, and the kingdom was now too thoroughly Protestant for her position to be pleasant. The unhappy queen was treated by the Scottish leaders, with John Knox at their head, with a severity and brutality from which her sex, if not her rank, should have shielded her. She found herself, without the power to enforce her will, in the midst of a people bitterly hostile to her. Her situation was most uncomfortable, and her lack of prudence soon made it worse. Finding that her position in Scotland could not be maintained without the friendship of England, Mary endeavored to open a friendly correspondence with Elizabeth, but her course was so impolitic as to convince Elizabeth that the Scottish queen still harbored her designs upon her crown. Still, a nominal reconciliation was effected between them, and they appeared to be the best of friends, all the while distrusting and disliking each other in the most womanly fashion. Elizabeth professed to be anxious for Mary to marry one of the great nobles of England, but really intended that she should remain a widow. She was much annoyed, therefore, when Mary, in 1564, married Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, son of the Earl of Lennox. Darnley was a worthless, trifling person, and soon disgusted his wife with his ingratitude and jealousy. He conceived a violent hatred for an Italian secretary of the queen, named David Rizzio, whom he charged with being Mary's lover. His fury having led him to extreme measures, he conducted several of his friends to the palace of Holyrood, and surprised Rizzio as he sat at supper with the queen, and the unfortunate Italian was stabbed at Mary's feet. He was dragged out of the room and quickly despatched. Mary, conquering her agitation, vowed vengeance upon the murderers, among whom was her husband. The next year (1567) Darnley was murdered, and the Queen of Scots, who was believed to have brought about his death, soon after married the Earl of Bothwell. Bothwell was regarded as one of the murderers of Darnley,

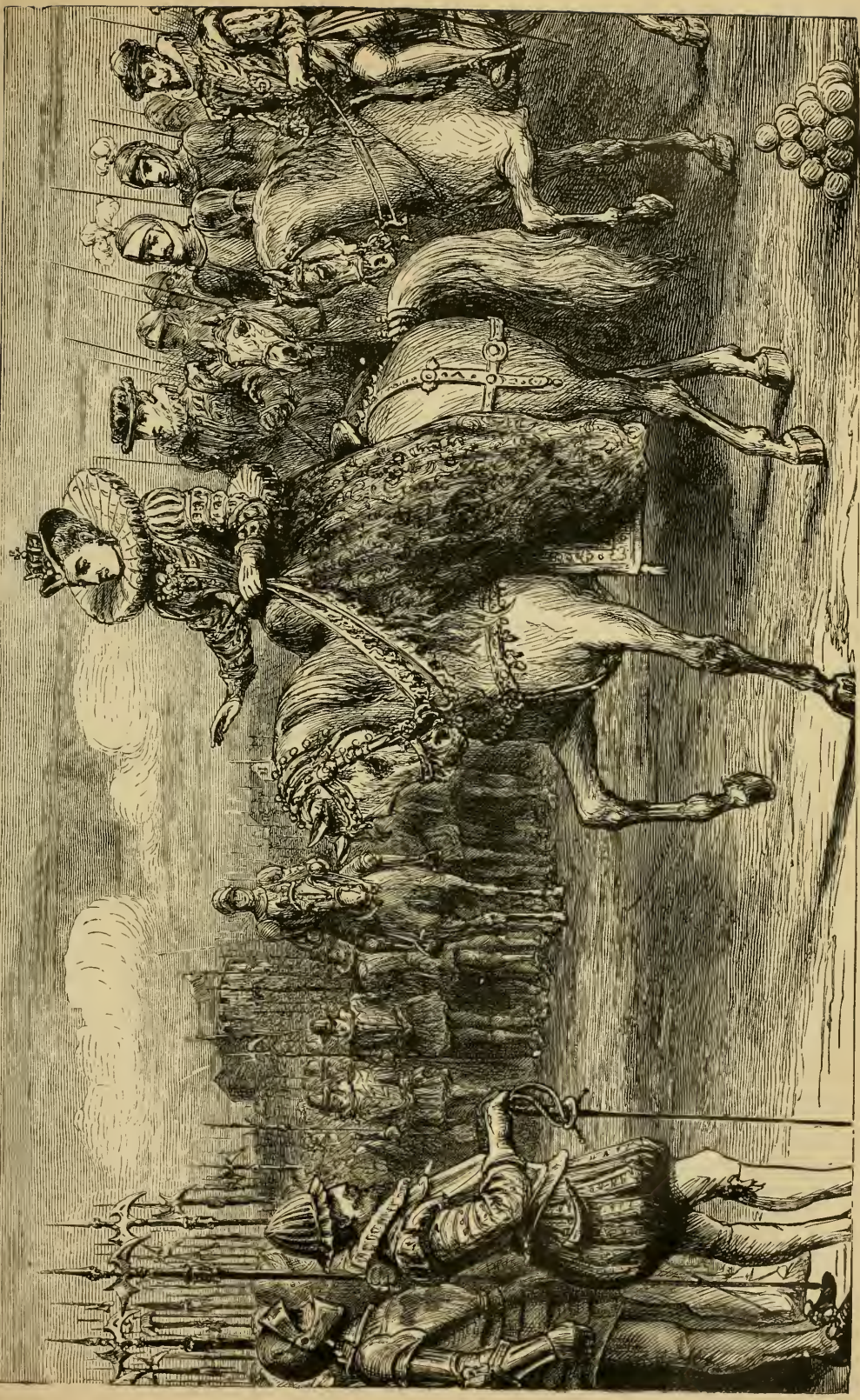
and the marriage gave great offence to the Scottish people. The nobles took up arms against the queen. Bothwell fled the kingdom, and Mary was taken prisoner and confined in Lochleven Castle. She was compelled to resign the crown to James VI., her infant son by Darnley. In 1568 she escaped from her confinement and rallied her partisans. Her brother, the Earl of Murray, who had been made regent for his nephew, marched against her, and defeated her at Langside. She then escaped into England, and threw herself upon the protection of Elizabeth, May 16th, 1568. Elizabeth, however, detained her as a state prisoner, and kept her in confinement for upwards of nineteen years. She was induced to take this step by the advice of her minister Cecil, who pointed out to her the danger of allowing Mary, who was unable to remain in Scotland, to pass over to France, as she desired, where she would be the centre of every Catholic plot against England. Her confinement, however, did not avert the danger which Cecil dreaded. Mary became an object of compassion because of her unlawful detention, and numerous conspiracies were formed by the Catholics, each of which had for its objects the release of Mary, the overthrow of Elizabeth, and the elevation of Mary to the English throne. These malcontents invariably looked to Spain for aid. The Duke of Norfolk, the head of the Catholic party in England, hoped to become the husband of Mary, and through her King of England. His conspiracies to effect this cost him his liberty in 1569 and his head in 1572. In 1569 the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland got up a Catholic rebellion in the north of England, which was speedily crushed with great severity. In 1570 Pope Pius V. issued a bull declaring the English people absolved from their allegiance to Elizabeth. English priests, educated at the Catholic seminaries of France, and members of the Jesuit order, came into the kingdom in such numbers, and were so constantly engaged in plots against the queen, that it was generally believed that they were sent to England for no other purpose than to promote treason. Many of these were tortured for the purpose of obtaining information as to the designs of the Catholic party, and were put to death. Torture was contrary to the English law, but it had been used so freely under the Tudors that Elizabeth merely

pursued the policy of her family in adopting it.

The queen retaliated the annoyances caused her by the seminary priests by allowing the Huguenots to enlist men in England, by loaning money to the Queen of Navarre, and by employing her influence with the German princes in behalf of the French Protestants. The terrible massacre of St. Bartholomew filled England with horror and alarm. Elizabeth made no secret of her indignation and disgust, feelings which she shared with her people. This terrible affair and the cruelties of Philip II. in the Low Countries, convinced the queen and her ministers that the Catholics of the continent had combined for a bloody extirpation of Protestantism. The Catholic party in England was strong and active, and it was not certain whether it would not with the assistance of France and Spain turn against Elizabeth, and repeat in England the horrors enacted upon the continent. As the head and protectress of the reformed faith, Elizabeth was the constant object of the fury of the Catholics, and her situation was always full of danger. It was necessary for the queen to act with great prudence, and she therefore deemed it best not to sever her intercourse with the French court. Yet she accorded to the French ambassador, a man of honor and humanity, a reception which left him in no doubt of her real sentiments respecting the massacre. In January, 1578, an alliance was formed between England and the United Provinces of the Netherlands, which had established their independence of Spain after a long and heroic struggle. The troubles which followed the death of the Prince of Orange, and the efforts of the Spaniards to regain possession of the Netherlands, induced the provinces in 1585 to offer the sovereignty of their country to Elizabeth. Elizabeth deemed it most prudent to decline this offer, but as she was resolved to prevent the subjugation of the provinces by Philip, she agreed to assist them with troops and money. She sent an expedition to their aid under the Earl of Leicester, her favorite. Leicester failed to accomplish anything, but the expedition is memorable for the death of Sir Philip Sidney, who was mortally wounded in an action before Zutphen. He was one of the most perfect characters of history, a model of manly virtue, and possessed of many rare gifts of mind. So far there was no war of

importance between Spain and England, but hostilities were kept up by Sir Francis Drake and other English sailors, who attacked the Spanish possessions in America, and captured Spanish ships at sea.

In 1585 parliament had passed a law for the punishment of persons plotting against the sovereign for the purpose of securing the crown. Mary was the first victim of this law. Of the numerous plots formed for her release and elevation to the English throne, the last was organized by Anthony Babington, an English Catholic gentleman of means, John Savage, and John Ballard, priests of the English seminary at Rheims, and some others. It was intended to assassinate Elizabeth, and release the Queen of Scots at the same moment. The Spanish ambassador at Paris had promised to aid the conspirators with his master's troops, and it was believed that these, with the co-operation of the English Catholics, would be sufficient to seat Mary on the throne of her rival. Mary entered cordially into the plot. The conspiracy was detected, however, by the vigilance of Elizabeth's minister, Walsingham, and the parties to it were seized and executed. Mary was tried by a commission provided for by the law of 1585, and being found guilty of complicity in the plot, was sentenced to death. She was executed at Fotheringhay Castle on the 8th of February, 1587. It was a severe remedy, but it was inevitable. If Elizabeth was to hold the throne in peace, if the Catholic powers of Europe were to be deprived of an always available pretext for interfering with the tranquillity of England, Mary's death was necessary. James VI. of Scotland had vainly endeavored to save his mother's life. He resented her death, but, though the Catholics urged him to take up arms to avenge her, he remained on friendly terms with Elizabeth. Philip II. of Spain, though he remained quiet, was secretly preparing to strike a terrible blow at England. Hearing this, Elizabeth sent Sir Francis Drake in 1587 to operate against the Spanish coast. Drake attacked the Spanish fleet in the harbor of Cadiz, and destroyed it. Meanwhile Philip continued his preparations secretly, but with celerity. A powerful fleet, the most formidable that had yet been assembled by a single sovereign, was collected at Lisbon, and equipped with every appliance necessary for the success of the enterprise. A strong



QUEEN ELIZABETH REVIEWING HER TROOPS AT TILBURY.

force of seamen and troops manned the ships, and an army of 30,000 men was assembled on the Flemish coast of the channel. The command of the armada was bestowed upon the Duke of Medina Sidonia, while the Prince of Parma was given charge of the army. The expedition having been blessed by Pope Sixtus V., was looked upon as a holy war, and the flower of Spain engaged in it with a zeal equalled only by the crusaders' enthusiasm. The Spanish fleet was so formidable that its success was regarded as a foregone conclusion, and hence it received the name of the "Invincible Armada." England was to be conquered and made a Spanish province, the Romish religion was to be restored; and, that there might be no difficulty in establishing the inquisition at once in England, chains and instruments of torture formed a part of the equipment of the armada. The Spanish king, unable to prevent his preparations from being known, pretended that he meant this formidable force for service in the Indies; but the English were well satisfied that its destination was their own shores, and preparations were made to meet it. The niggardness of the queen prevented them from being as complete as the danger demanded, but still the means were collected which gave the English a reasonable hope of defeating their enemy in a fair fight. The royal navy, consisting of only twenty-eight sail, was reinforced by about one hundred vessels furnished by the cities and the nobility and gentry of the kingdom. The command of the fleet was conferred upon Lord Howard of Effingham, and under him were Drake, Raleigh, Hawkins, Frobisher, and other noted sailors. Two armies were collected. One was stationed at Tilbury on the lower Thames, under the Earl of Leicester. The other was charged with the protection of the queen. Philip had expected the English Catholics to join him; but they answered manfully to the call of the queen, and sustained her as zealously as the most devoted Protestant. England presented a solid front against the foreign foe.

The armada sailed from Lisbon in July, 1588, amid the most extravagant enthusiasm. On the 19th of that month Lord Howard was informed that it was off the coast of Cornwall, standing in for the channel. It numbered about one hundred and fifty ships of a large size, a number of which were huge three-deckers. Howard

at once sailed out of Plymouth harbor with about seventy ships, and hung upon the rear of the Spaniards. His vessels were all inferior in size and strength to those of the armada, but they were better managed. He was joined daily by reinforcements until his fleet numbered one hundred and forty sail. As the armada advanced up the channel, Howard seized every occasion to attack it and cut off the straggling vessels, and each fresh trial added to the confidence of the English. On the 27th of July, the Spanish fleet anchored in Calais Roads, to await the arrival of the Prince of Parma, who was hourly expected. On the night of the 28th Lord Howard, in order to force the enemy to put to sea, fired eight of his ships, and set them drifting among the Spanish vessels, which cut their cables, and stood out to sea in haste and in great disorder. The next morning the English made a determined attack upon the armada and defeated it, destroying twelve ships and disabling a number of others. Disheartened by his reverses, the Spanish admiral resolved to abandon the attempt and return home. Had not the English run out of powder—the queen's stinginess denying them a proper supply—the Spanish fleet would have been destroyed. As it was, the huge ships of the armada were compelled by the English, who hung upon their rear, to take the northward passage home. After passing the Orkneys, the Spaniards were overtaken by a fearful tempest, and the greater number of their vessels went ashore on the rocky coasts of Scotland and Ireland. Only fifty-four vessels, and these terribly crippled, reached Spain. The Spanish kingdom was filled with mourning for the loss of its bravest and noblest warriors and gentlemen. When Medina Sidonia presented himself before his sovereign, he was received with these words: "We cannot blame you for what has happened: we cannot struggle against the will of God."

Amid the rejoicings with which the English greeted the defeat of the armada, the Earl of Leicester, the queen's favorite, died. His death enabled a new favorite to rise to power. This was Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex. He was handsome and brilliant, a man of gallantry and imperious will, and had served with distinction at the taking of Cadiz by Drake. He soon acquired such an influence over Elizabeth that in 1599 he was made Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and sent over to that country to

quell the dangerous rebellion of the Earl of Tyrone. He was not fitted for such an important command, however, and matters did not prosper under him. Elizabeth was greatly dissatisfied with his conduct, and severely censured it. Essex upon hearing of this imagined that his enemies at home were seeking to ruin him, and at once left his post and returned to England to justify himself with the queen. Elizabeth punished him by removing him from his government and appointing his successor at once. She then proceeded to treat Essex with great severity, and inflicted upon him so many humiliations that the earl lost patience. Believing that the queen had been led into this treatment of him by her advisers, who were his enemies, he attempted to excite a revolt among the people of London, for the purpose of removing them by force. The effort failed. Essex was arrested, convicted of treason, and beheaded in 1601. The queen consented to his death with extreme reluctance. Lord Mountjoy, the successor of Essex in Ireland, brought the war against Tyrone to a successful close, although the rebels received considerable aid from Spain. Soon after the submission of Tyrone, Elizabeth fell into a profound melancholy, from which she never rallied. Her grief for the Earl of Essex is said to have hastened her death, which took place at Richmond on the 24th of March, 1603.

CHAPTER VI.

THE REIGNS OF JAMES I. AND CHARLES I.

James VI. of Scotland Becomes King of England as James I.—His Character—Discards Presbyterianism for Episcopacy—His Views as to the Royal Authority—Imprisonment of Sir Walter Raleigh—James Refuses the Demands of the Puritans—Translation of the Bible—Contest between the King and the House of Commons—Hostility of the Catholics to James—The Gunpowder Plot—The King's Favorites—James Refuses to Aid his Son-in-Law, the Elector Palatine—His Infatuation for Spain—Execution of Raleigh—Failure of the King's Contemptible Policy—The Duke of Buckingham—Tyranny of the King—Sir Edward Coke—Quarrels of the King with Parliament—Troubles in Ireland—Settlement of Virginia and Massachusetts—Death of the King—Charles I.—His Character—Marries Henrietta Maria of France—Imprudence of the Queen's Religious Attendants—Charles Quarrels with Parliament—Forced Loans—War with France—Failure of the Attempt to Relieve Rochelle—The Petition of Right—Murder of Buckingham—Tonnage and Poundage—The King Tries to Govern Without a Parliament—Strafford and Laud—Strafford in Ireland—Arbitrary Measures of the King—Ship-Money—John Hampden Resists the Tax—Efforts

of the King to Force a Liturgy on the Scots—The Solemn League and Covenant—Rebellion of the Scots—Meeting of the Long Parliament—Execution of Strafford—The King Violates the Privileges of the House of Commons—Firmness of the Commons—Flight of the King—Commencement of the Civil War—The Committee of Public Safety—Battle of Edgehill—Hesitation of Charles—Death of Hampden—Alliance of the Parliament with the Scots—Oliver Cromwell—Battles of Marston Moor and Naseby—Surrender of the King to the Scots, who Deliver him to the Parliament—The King's Person Seized by the Army—Escape and Recapture of Charles—Battle of Preston—Trial of the King—His Execution.

BY the terms of the will of Henry VIII. the crown of England should have passed from Elizabeth to the descendants of the Princess Mary, the wife of Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. The nearest heir to the throne, however, was James VI. of Scotland, the son of Mary Stuart and her second husband, Lord Darnley. Robert Cecil, Elizabeth's chief minister, declared that, with her dying breath, Elizabeth had named the Scottish king as her successor, and he was accepted without question by the nation. After the coronation of the new king, who took the title of James I., an act of Parliament was passed declaring his the only rightful claim to the throne. He was naturally inclined to the doctrine of the "divine right" of kings, and now that he had succeeded to the English crown in virtue of his birth, it became his interest to insist upon this right, and he did it to the utmost. "No sovereign," says Professor Green, in his admirable *History of the English People*, "could have jarred against the conception of an English ruler which had grown up under the Tudors more utterly than James I. His big head, his slobbering tongue, his quilted clothes, his ricketty legs, his goggle eyes, stood out in as grotesque a contrast with all that men recalled of Henry or Elizabeth as his gabble and rodomontade, his want of personal dignity, his course buffoonery, his drunkenness, his pedantry, his contemptible cowardice. Under this ridiculous exterior, however, lay a man of much natural ability, a ripe scholar, with a considerable fund of shrewdness, of mother wit, and ready repartee. His canny humor lights up the political and theological questions of the time with quaint incisive phrases, with puns and epigrams, and touches of irony, which still retain their savor. . . . But his shrewdness and learning only left him, in the phrase of Henry IV., 'the wisest fool

in Christendom.' . . . He clung to two theories which contained within them the seeds of a death-struggle between his people and the crown. The first was that of a divine right of kings. Even before his accession to the English throne, he had formulated the theory of an absolute royalty in his work on 'The True Law of Free Monarchy;' and announced that 'although a good king will frame his actions to be according to law, yet he is not bound thereto, but of his own good will and for example-giving to his subjects.' . . . An 'absolute king,' or an 'absolute monarchy' meant with the Tudor statesmen who used the phrase, a sovereign or rule complete in themselves, and independent of all foreign or papal interference. James chose to regard the words as implying the monarch's freedom from all control by law, or from responsibility to anything but his own royal will. The king's blunder, however, became a system of government, a doctrine which bishops preached from the pulpit, and for which brave men laid their heads on the block." James had been brought up a Presbyterian, and the Puritans hoped much from his accession to the throne, and from the loud professions of attachment he had made to their doctrines while simply King of Scotland. He had scarcely set foot in England, however, before he abandoned all his former principles, and, adopting as his maxim the expression, "No bishop, no king," threw himself into the arms of the Episcopal party, and denounced the men of his former faith as schismatics and rebels, and declared his intention to force them to conform to the Church of England, or to drive them out of the kingdom.

One of the first, as well as one of the wisest, acts of James was to enter into a treaty with Henry IV. of France, by which the two sovereigns bound themselves to give secret aid to the struggling Dutch republic, and to support each other if attacked by Spain on account of this assistance.

In the first year of this reign Sir Walter Raleigh was condemned to death on a charge of conspiring to raise Lady Arabella Stuart, James' first cousin, to the throne. He was reprieved, and was imprisoned in the Tower, where he passed thirteen years. James, conscious that the sentence of death was unjust, did not dare to execute it upon the most illustrious Englishman of his day, and so kept him a prisoner. Raleigh em-

ployed his imprisonment in philosophical studies and in the composition of his "History of the World." Lady Arabella Stuart was not molested, as she had no share in the alleged plot. Eight years later she gave offence to the king by marrying William Seymour, who, as a descendant of the Duchess of Suffolk, had also pretensions to the throne. She was imprisoned in the Tower, where she became insane and died.

Upon his entrance into the kingdom James had been met by petitions from the leading Puritans to reform the abuses which they pointed out in the church. In 1604 a conference was held at Hampton Court between the bishops and the most eminent Puritans. The latter demanded the abolition of the episcopate as the chief abuse against which they complained. James consented to some slight alterations in the prayer-book, and ordered a new translation of the Bible to be made. This translation was made by the most learned men in the kingdom, and was completed and ordered to be used in the churches in 1611. It is still the "authorized version" of English-speaking Protestants. The king utterly refused the demands of the Puritans for a reform in church matters, and silenced their speakers with insults and coarse buffoonery. He announced his intention to compel them to conform to the established church, and made a great parade of his learning and wit.

In like manner the king claimed absolute control over the liberties of his people. In 1604 a controversy arose between him and the house of commons respecting the claim of that body of the sole right to judge of the elections of its members. The king insisted upon his right to command the commons to accept his decision, but the house maintained its privileges. A more serious misunderstanding was obviated by a compromise, which the king himself suggested as the best way out of the difficulty.

The union of the Scottish and English kingdoms under one sovereign put an end to their ancient hostility. James warmly advocated the adoption of measures which should make this union more perfect. As yet the two kingdoms were separate, and each managed its internal affairs in its own way. The English parliament declined to carry out the policy of the king, as it attributed it to his partiality and to desire to benefit his ancient subjects.

The Roman Catholics had expected to

be treated with considerable indulgence by the son of Mary Stuart; but they were soon undeceived, and found James a more inveterate enemy than Elizabeth had been. Their anger was very great, and a fearful vengeance was resolved upon. A Roman Catholic gentleman, Robert Catesby by name, conceived the idea of blowing up the parliament house on the 5th of November, 1605, the day on which the king was to open the session. By this means, he argued, they would rid themselves of the king, the heir apparent, the Protestant lords and

of religion required that the innocent should here be sacrificed with the guilty." A cellar under the house of lords was hired, and barrels of gunpowder were stored in it. The task of firing the train was confided to Guy or Guido Fawkes, a soldier of fortune, who was brought over from Spain for the purpose. The matter was kept a profound secret, and everything was gotten in readiness. At the last moment Lord Mounteagle, a Romanist, but not a party to the plot, was warned by an anonymous letter to remain away from parliament.



THE GUNPOWDER CONSPIRATORS—FROM AN ENGRAVING OF THE TIME.

commons, and place matters in a state which would enable them to seize the government and restore the Catholic religion in England. This villanous plot was entered into by a number of Catholic gentlemen. "It is remarkable," says Hume, "that no one of these pious devotees ever entertained the least compunction with regard to the cruel massacre which they projected of whatever was great and eminent in the nation. Some of them only were startled by the reflection that, of necessity, many Catholics must be present, as spectators or attendants upon the king, or as having seats in the house of peers; but Tesmond, a Jesuit, and Garnet, superior of that order in England, removed these scruples and showed them how the interests

He showed this letter to Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, and an examination of the parliament house was made on the eve of the 5th of November. The gunpowder was discovered, and Fawkes was arrested in the cellar where it was stored. The news of the discovery of the "Gunpowder Treason" spread rapidly, and the parties to the plot took flight. They were either captured or killed. All the prisoners, including Fawkes, were executed. The whole nation joined in a thanksgiving for the discovery of the conspiracy, and the hatred of the English for the Roman religion was intensified by the very means which Catesby had hoped would secure the triumph of his faith. More stringent laws against the Catholics were enacted, and a new oath of

allegiance was required of them, renouncing, in the most unqualified terms, the Catholic doctrine that princes excommunicated by the pope might be deposed or murdered by their subjects or others. Some of the Romanists took the oath; others, at the bidding of Pope Paul IV., refused it.

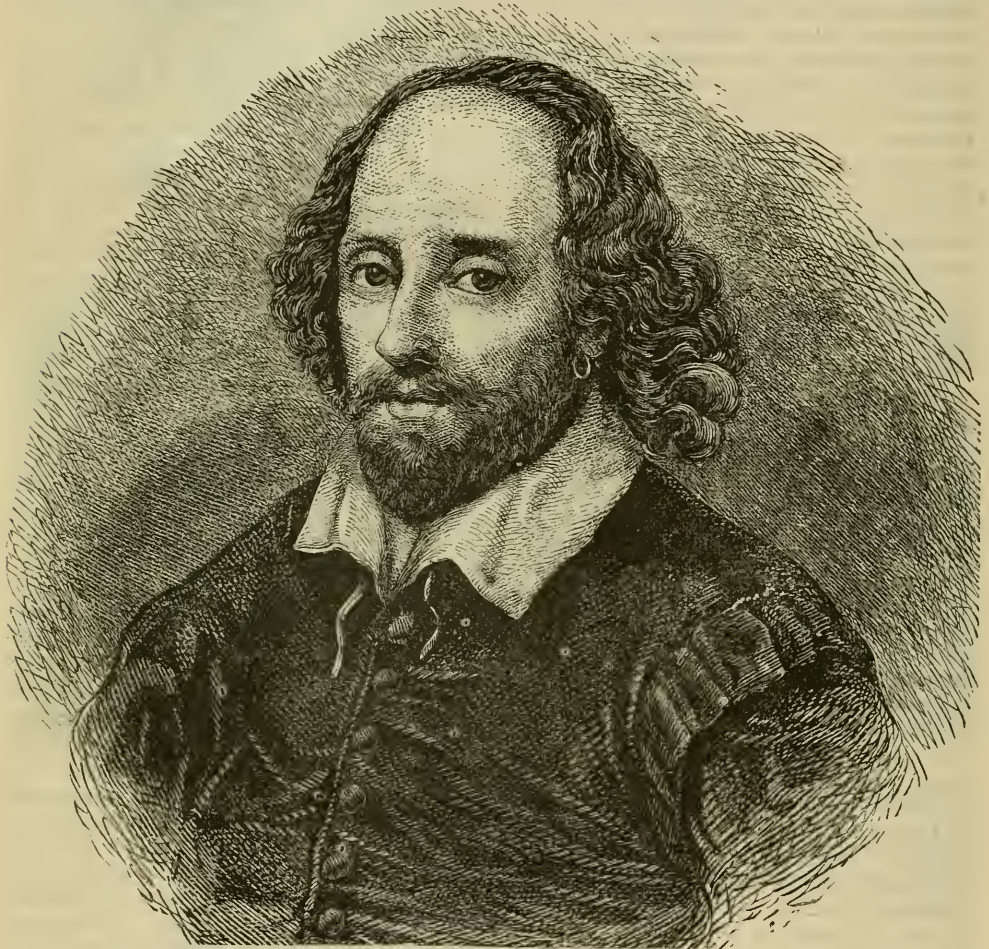
Though James claimed absolute power for himself, he surrendered himself entirely to the control of his favorites, who ruled him in all things. During the life of the Earl of Salisbury that nobleman managed to retain his influence over the king, but upon his death Robert Carr, a Scot, who had been created Earl of Somerset, became the royal favorite. The king's foreign policy did not please his people. His daughter Elizabeth married Frederick V., Elector Palatine, and it was supposed that the king would at least give his moral support to the Protestant cause in Europe. James, however, had no intention of doing so. His sympathies were entirely with Spain and the house of Austria and against the men of his own faith. The English nation hated Spain with an intense hatred, and after the death of Cecil the king deliberately set himself against this feeling. He began to cultivate intimate relations with Spain, and commenced negotiations for the marriage of his son to a Spanish princess. The patriot party were urgent in their demands that the king should declare war against Spain, and so relieve the German Protestants of her hostility, but he treated this demand with contempt, and became more intimate with Spain, England's worst enemy. In the hope of inducing Spain to declare war against England an expedition was prepared against her colony of Guiana, and Sir Walter Raleigh was released and allowed to lead it for the purpose of finding a gold mine of which he knew. James suffered the expedition to sail, and gave the Spaniards warning of it. They defeated Raleigh's attempt to land in Guiana, and when he, on his return voyage, attempted to seize the Spanish treasure ships, in the hope of compelling Spain to declare war, that power, sure of the contemptible King of England, contented herself with demanding the execution of Raleigh. He was put to death immediately upon his return home in 1618, not upon any fresh charge, but upon his old sentence, and was universally regarded as a martyr to the vengeance of Spain. The people and court vainly appealed to the king to strike a blow in behalf of Protes-

tantism on the continent. Although the interests of his religion and the welfare of his own children demanded his interference, he steadfastly refused to attempt to keep Spain from engaging in the fight. He believed that the friendship of the Spanish king for himself would induce him at his request to abandon his designs upon the Palatinate. He was undeceived at length, when the Spanish army entered and reduced the dominions of his son-in-law, the Elector Palatine, after the expulsion of that prince from Prague. The burst of fury which broke forth from the English nation frightened the king, who was for the moment angry at having been so easily duped by Spain, and he not only permitted a national subscription to provide funds to enable the Elector Palatine to raise an army for his defence, but summoned a parliament, and opened it with a speech which induced the nation to hope that he would act as a king at last. He did procure a cessation of hostilities for a single summer by threatening Spain with war if she continued her attack upon the Palatinate, but upon the conquest of the upper Palatinate by the forces of the Catholic league, James returned to his old intimacy with the Spanish king, and left the interests of his son-in-law to take care of themselves as best they could. Throughout the whole of the war he held aloof from the continental Protestants, and gave to Spain the benefit of his friendship, influenced by his eagerness to secure a Spanish bride for his son. Philip IV. was willing that this marriage should take place, but was determined to take advantage of the eagerness of James and make him pay dearly for the alliance. The Spanish match was utterly distasteful to the nation, but James persisted in it. In 1623 Prince Charles, the heir to the crown, in company with the Duke of Buckingham, who was now the royal favorite, made a journey to Madrid, where the prince was warmly received, and was presented to his affianced bride, the Infanta Maria. A treaty was negotiated for the marriage, but in a few months it was, to the joy of all England, broken off, and the Spanish marriage became an impossibility.

James was no less unpopular in his domestic than in his foreign policy. Upon the fall of the Earl of Somerset, George Villiers succeeded to the royal favor. He was rapidly advanced by the king to the dignity of Duke of Buckingham. He was

a reckless and unprincipled adventurer, and shaped a large part of the policy of this reign. James was always in trouble with his parliaments, as he was always striving for absolute power, while they sought to secure their freedom from his control. The king was anxious to govern without parliaments, and attempted to obviate the necessity for raising supplies through them

chief justice, a man of many faults, but who could not lend himself to the king's scheme of trampling the laws of the kingdom under his feet. Coke was at once dismissed from the council, and upon his continued adherence to his resolution was deprived of his office of chief justice, in 1615. This act of the king was regarded with horror and resentment by all classes



SHAKESPEARE.

by levying of his own authority duties upon the commerce of the country. This illegal levy of customs was resisted by the people, and the courts sustained the popular sentiment by their decisions. The enraged king sent for the judges and abused them into promising submission to his will. One man alone declared he would decide the cases which came before him as a just judge should. This was Sir Edward Coke, the

of the people as an announcement of his intention to tamper with the course of justice.

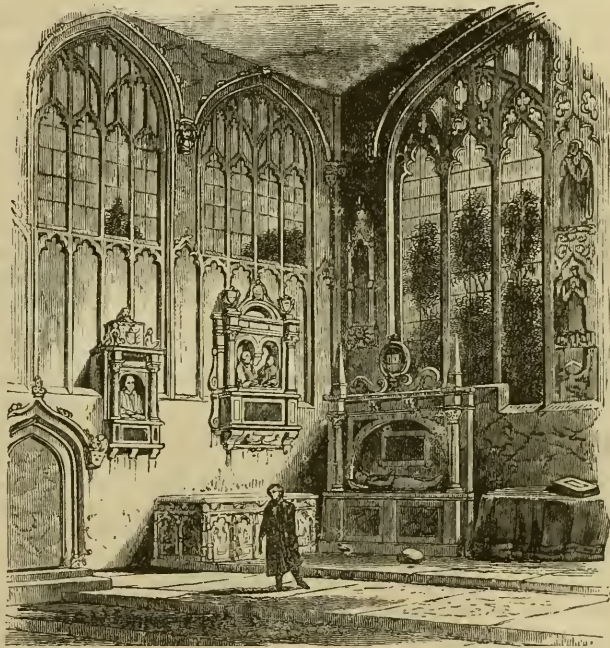
In the same year James attempted to raise money by the sale of peerages; and he increased the number of lay peers nearly one hundred per cent. in the course of his reign by this shameful sale of titles. He could not dispense with the services of parliaments, however, and was obliged to sum-

mon them as often as he tried to do without them. In 1614 he broke out into a fury against the parliament of that year, and dissolved it before it had passed a single act. After this he attempted to supply himself with money by the practice of "benevolences." In 1621 he was compelled to summon a parliament, which showed more independence and determination than its predecessors in attacking abuses and corruption. It boldly put in force a privilege which had long fallen into disuse, and impeached the lord chancellor, Francis Bacon, one of the greatest philosophers of England. He was charged with accepting bribes and with other corrupt practices, and was dismissed from his office with ignominy. Left to himself James would have stopped the impeachment of Bacon as an attack upon the crown itself, but the chancellor had incurred the hostility of Buckingham, who persuaded the king to leave him to his fate. The house of commons then appealed to the king to aid the German Protestants, and to secure a Protestant bride for the heir to the throne. This interference with foreign affairs so enraged the king that he dissolved the house, after having first insulted it. He had overshot his mark, however, and "for England the victory of freedom was practically won. . . . A power had at last risen up in the commons with which the monarchy was henceforth to reckon. In spite of the king's petulant outbreaks, parliament had asserted and

enforced its exclusive right to the control of taxation. It had suppressed monopolies. It had reformed abuses in the courts of law. It had revived the right of impeaching and removing from office even the highest ministers of the crown. It had asserted its privileges of free discussion on all questions connected with the welfare of the realm. It had claimed to deal with the question of religion. It had even declared its will on the sacred 'mystery' of foreign politics."

A few years after James' accession to the throne, the Earl of Tyrone, and the Earl of Tyrconnel, the most powerful chieftains

of the north of Ireland, were accused of engaging in a conspiracy to throw off the English rule. They sought safety in flight, and were attainted of treason and outlawed. In 1608 O'Dogherty, a chieftain of considerable influence, rebelled, and his possessions were declared forfeited. These unsuccessful plots caused the greater part of Ulster to be forfeited to the crown. The king thereupon disposed of the lands of this part of Ireland to Scotch and English settlers, who improved it to such an extent that it soon became the most flourishing region in Ireland. Similar plantations were also made in Leinster, with the same success.



TOMB OF SHAKESPEARE IN THE CHURCH AT STRATFORD-ON-AVON.

But in spite of the material improvement of the country a deep injury was inflicted upon Ireland. The native proprietors were driven from their homes in many cases to make room for the settlers, and a sense of injustice was implanted in the Irish heart, which Great Britain has ever since carefully cultivated.

In the reign of James I., as we shall see, the colonies of Virginia and Massachusetts, in America, were founded, and the settlement of the western hemisphere by the English was definitely begun.

In 1616 William Shakespeare, the greatest of English poets, died. To this reign

also belong the writings of Lord Bacon, which must ever rank among the masterpieces of English literature.

On the 27th of March, 1625, King James died of the ague, and was succeeded by his second and only surviving son, Charles I.

Much was hoped by the English from this change of sovereigns, for Charles I. was very popular with all classes of his people. He was a strikingly handsome man, with a body of middle stature, of great natural vigor, and finely proportioned. He was gracious and dignified in his bearing, and "of a sweet but melancholy aspect." He excelled in horsemanship and manly sports, and possessed many of the qualities of an excellent sovereign. Unfortunately for him, he had imbibed his father's ideas of absolute power, and he came to the throne with the firm resolve of making himself master of his people. He regarded himself as superior to the laws of his kingdom, and considered every attempt of the commons to limit his authority within the bounds of the constitution as downright treason against him. Coming to the throne with such ideas of his rights at the most critical period of his country's history, he was not likely to prove a tranquilizer or a reformer of the evils from which England had suffered for so long.

A few weeks after his accession to the throne Charles married the Princess Henrietta Maria, the daughter of Henry IV. of France, to whom he had been betrothed during the latter part of his father's reign. The union was distasteful to the English, as the new queen was a Roman Catholic. She was accompanied to England by a retinue of priests of her own faith, and these instead of confining themselves to their religious duties undertook to interfere with the affairs of the court to such an extent, that quarrels soon became innumerable. They induced the queen to make a pilgrimage in their company to Tyburn, the place where the lowest criminals were hanged, and where some Roman Catholics had been executed in the reign of Henry VIII. This proceeding aroused such indignation throughout the nation that the French attendants of the queen were sent back to their own country. An apology was submitted by the French court for their conduct, and the queen was allowed to have twelve priests and a bishop of the Romish Church attached to her household.

The quarrel between the king and the parliament began with his reign. Charles had but one use for a parliament—to raise money. Parliament desired a reform of abuses, and the removal of the favorite Buckingham. Two parliaments were dissolved by the king within a year—one in 1625 and the other 1626—as they refused to grant supplies until their demands were complied with. Charles then attempted to raise money by arbitrary exactions, and to do without a parliament. Writs were issued by the king empowering certain specified officials to compel the people to loan money to the king, and these forced loans were levied in such a manner as to make the aggregate equal to four usual subsidies by parliament. The officers were also empowered, in case of the refusal of these loans by the people, to require of them a declaration under oath of the names of all persons who had encouraged the persons so refusing to persist in their refusal. The principles of liberty were trampled under foot by the king. The country immediately took the alarm, and the spirit of disaffection towards the crown became general.

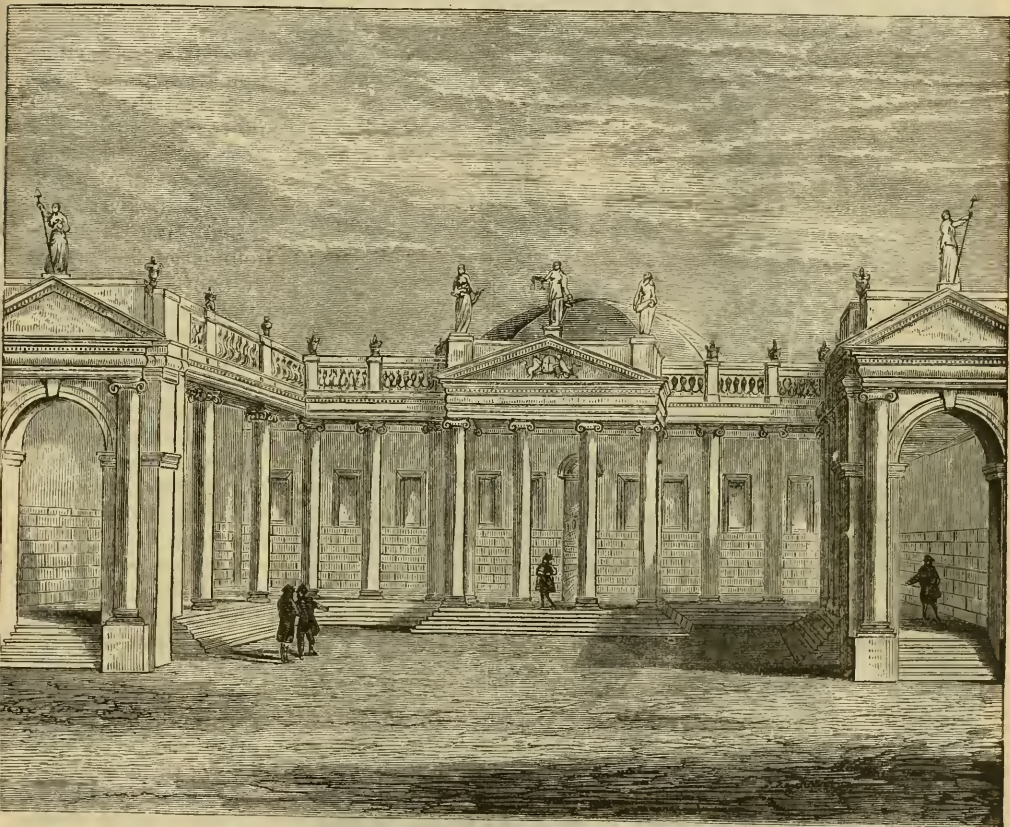
In the midst of these difficulties, Charles, in 1627, suddenly, and to the surprise of the whole nation, declared war against France, in behalf of the Huguenots. Religious sympathy was the nominal cause of this war, but all the authorities of the time agree in ascribing it to the influence of the Duke of Buckingham, who had conceived a mad passion for the Queen of France, which had been detected and exposed to ridicule by Richelieu. In order to be avenged upon the cardinal, Buckingham had embroiled his country in a war with France. A fleet was despatched in 1627, under Buckingham, to the assistance of Rochelle, but as we have already seen, the incompetency of the duke caused the expedition to fail. Other efforts were made to relieve Rochelle, but without success.

To make the matter worse, the army was discontented; the people were largely disaffected; and the treasury was bankrupt. The king was not willing to risk any more forced loans, and in 1627, to his great mortification, was obliged to summon a parliament. This body granted him five subsidies, and obtained his assent to their *Petition of Right*, which was presented by both houses of parliament in 1628, and which embodied some of the most important principles of liberty. The recent ille-

gal practices, such as the levying of arbitrary taxes, unlawful arrests and imprisonments, the enforced quartering of soldiers upon the people, and the exercise of martial law, were condemned, and the king agreed to discontinue them. The commons, emboldened by this victory, denounced the Duke of Buckingham as the author of the national calamities, and demanded his removal from office. The king paid no attention to this demand, but a little later Buckingham was assassinated at Ports-

years no parliament met in England. The king had not yet determined to abolish the legislative branch of the government; for the present he only meant to rule without it, and to put down all resistance to his arbitrary power. The leaders of the patriot party in the last parliament were arrested and sent to the Tower, where one of them, Sir John Eliot, died, "the first martyr of English liberty."

Charles was now resolved to govern without parliaments, and called to his assistance



OLD PARLIAMENT HOUSE—DUBLIN.

mouth by one John Felton, who supposed he would be doing his country service by removing the favorite.

Though he had given his assent to the *Petition of Right*, Charles soon violated its conditions, by levying of his own authority certain duties called "tonnage and poundage." The indignant commons declared that whoever should pay these unlawful taxes should be considered an enemy to the liberties of England. Charles thereupon dissolved the parliament, and for eleven

two ministers eminently qualified to assist him in his tyranny. One of these was Thomas, Viscount Wentworth, whom he afterwards created Earl of Stafford; the other was William Laud, Bishop of London, afterwards made Archbishop of Canterbury. In order to give his attention more entirely to his own kingdom, Charles made a hasty peace with Spain and France, and abandoned all interference with the affairs of the continent. Wentworth and Laud set to work with great vigor to make the king

absolute. Charles on his part believed in good faith that his absolute power formed a part of the English constitution, and that the resistance of the people was unlawful. Wentworth and Laud were better informed, and had no such excuse for their tyranny. To Wentworth was committed the task of putting down opposition in civil matters. He was made president of the council of the north, a tribunal established by Henry VIII. upon the suppression of the insur-

the crown and the people, which was to decide the future of England; and he endeavored to make Ireland a stronghold from which the king could successfully conduct his efforts against English freedom. He had no private ends to serve. He was sincerely devoted to the king, and labored for him. He sought by a stern and rigid administration of justice to attach Ireland firmly to the royal authority, and to teach it to look to the king as the source from

which it derived all its rights and good fortune. He aimed to prevent a reconciliation between the Catholics and the Protestants, in order to make both parties dependent upon the crown. In this he was successful, and laid the foundation for a whole system of evils for the unhappy country. He reduced Ireland to perfect submission to the royal will as expressed by himself, and held the lives, the liberties, and the fortunes of the Irish people entirely at his pleasure.

To Laud was given the task of compelling the submission of the Puritans to the authority of the established church. The Puritans now comprised a very large part of the nation, and embraced in their numbers many of the best and most eminent men, and many of the most learned and



JOHN HAMPDEN.

rection of 1536. He was given almost absolute power over the northern counties, and soon brought them into submission to the royal authority, and piled up a mountain of grievances for the day of reckoning. In 1631 he was sent to govern Ireland as lord deputy, and ruled that country with the same despotic authority he had exercised in England. He was more of a statesman than the king, and saw clearly the approach of the great conflict between

useful of the clergy, of the kingdom. Laud directed the whole power of the government to crushing this party. Liberty of conscience or belief meant treason in his estimation, and must be put down. The star chamber, a court composed of members of the king's council, which in the previous reigns had earned an infamous notoriety for its tyranny, was put to work to compel submission. The court of high commission was also employed for the same

purpose. The tyranny of these courts was carried to an unheard of extent. Fines and imprisonments of an excessive nature were levied upon all who refused conformity, and from these the courts passed to other shameful and cruel punishments. The only result of this persecution was to increase the detestation with which the king and his ministers were regarded, and to increase the number of the Puritans, who were looked upon as martyrs to the cause of popular liberty.

Among the devices to which the king resorted to raise money was the levying, in 1637, of a tax known as "ship-money," so called because it was said to be levied for the support of the fleet. Such a tax had in former days been occasionally, in time of war, imposed upon the seaboard counties; it was now exacted from the entire kingdom. John Hampden, a country gentleman from Buckinghamshire, and one of the noblest of English patriots, refused to pay the tax. The courts were invoked to compel him to do so, and being under the royal influence decided against him. The arguments by which this decision was supported were more injurious to Charles than a defeat would have been, and Hampden at once took his place among the leaders of the patriot party.

In 1637 the king, under the baleful influence of Archbishop Laud, attempted to compel the Scotch to accept a liturgy similar to that of England. Since the close of Queen Mary's reign, Scotland had been at peace under the rule of Presbyterianism, to which it was devotedly attached. The effort of Charles was stoutly resisted by the Scotch, and as the king persisted, the northern kingdom rose in rebellion against him. In 1638 a "Solemn League and Covenant" was signed in the churchyard of the Gray-Friars at Edinburgh, by the greater part of the nobles and gentry of Scotland, for the defence of their religion and freedom. Charles took the field in 1639, but was unable to accomplish anything against the insurgents, and being entirely out of money, concluded a peace with them. He was forced to this step, for Scotland was thoroughly aroused, the royal army was disaffected, and there was a deep sympathy with the rebels in England. The Earl of Strafford, who had returned from Ireland, urged the king to supply himself with money by levying taxes at will; but Charles, who was not yet prepared to go to such lengths, de-

clined to take his advice. He was greatly alarmed by the state of England, which was in almost open revolt, and in 1640 once more summoned the two houses of parliament to meet at Westminster. This body is known as "The Long Parliament."

One of the first acts of parliament was to impeach Strafford and Laud of treason. They were committed to the Tower, and Strafford was brought to trial for his outrages upon the liberties of the people. In a little while the commons changed their form of proceeding against him, and passed a bill of attainder, to which the king gave his assent with tears. Charles' tears were not unnatural. He had sustained Strafford in every act of which he was accused, and he now deserted him, while at the same time he was prepared to cling to the arbitrary course which had given rise to all the trouble. Strafford was beheaded on the 12th of May, 1641, and met his fate with dauntless courage. His death was greeted with public rejoicings throughout England. Parliament then proceeded to abolish the courts of the star chamber, the high commission, and the council of the north; it declared the levy of ship money to have been illegal, and passed an act to secure the continuance of its existence by providing that it should not be dissolved without its own consent.

There was now a brief lull in the struggle; but the king was sore from having been compelled to make these concessions to the commons; and the people, on their part, watched and distrusted the king. In the autumn of 1641 the Irish Catholics rose in rebellion in Ulster, and massacred the Protestants of that province. The insurrection was generally regarded, in the excited condition of public sentiment, as the work of the king. Indirectly it was, as it was the legitimate fruit of Strafford's barbarous policy. It soon became general throughout Ireland. The determination of the commons to secure the liberties of the kingdom greatly incensed Charles, and led him into an act of violence which proved his ruin. Attended by an armed guard, he went to the house of commons to seize the persons of Hampden, Pym, and three other leaders of the popular party, all of whom were members of the house. The house, indignant at this invasion of its privileges, and at the determination of the king to violate one of the fundamental laws of the kingdom, which provided that no subject

could be arrested by the sovereign in person, secured the safety of the five members by ordering their withdrawal. To the questions of the king the commons refused to reply, and maintained a dignified silence until Speaker Lenthal told the king, in reply to his question as to where the five members were, that he had neither eyes nor tongue to see or say anything save what he was commanded by the house.

This bold act of the king brought matters to a crisis. The five members took refuge in London, which rose in arms for their defence, and six days later Charles escaped from London, and sent the Earl of Newcastle to the northern counties to raise an army, as he now meant to conquer the parliament by force. Proceeding to Hull, one of the strongest towns in the kingdom, Charles demanded admittance, but the gates were shut in his face by Sir John Hotham, the governor, whose action was sustained by parliament. War was now inevitable; men began to choose their sides; the whole kingdom took up arms; and on the 22d of August, 1642, Charles set up his standard at Nottingham and called on his subjects to join him.

A committee of public safety, composed of Pym, Hampden, and Hollis, was organized by parliament, and an army of 20,000 men was assembled at Northampton under the Earl of Essex. Charles had but a small force, and Essex by a bold movement might easily have ended the war by a single battle. His hesitation, however, enabled the king to increase his army and to assume the offensive. An indecisive battle was fought at Edgehill on the 23d of October, but the advantages remained with the king, as Essex, distrustful of his army, withdrew to Warrick. Prince Rupert, the king's nephew, the son of the Elector Palatine and the Princess Elizabeth, urged an immediate march upon London, which must have fallen before a vigorous attack; but Charles remained at Oxford, as he was ill provided with artillery and ammunition, the great arsenals of the kingdom being in the hands of the parliamentary forces. Prince Rupert improved the delay by capturing Reading and Brentford. The queen, who had been sent to Holland for safety, sold her own jewels and those of the crown, and purchased supplies of artillery and ammunition, with which she reached England in February, 1643, after a narrow escape from capture by the parliamentary

fleet. In June of the same year John Hampden was killed in a skirmish with Rupert at Chalgrove. The death of Hampden was followed by a series of successes which appeared to place the king on the high road to a triumph, and when the strong city of Bristol was surrendered to Prince Rupert, it seemed that the cause of the people was doomed. The war now began to develop great bitterness between the opposing parties. The adherents of the king were called *Cavaliers*; those of the parliament *Roundheads*, from their habit of wearing their hair short.

The firmness of the parliamentary leaders alone saved their cause. They entered into an alliance with the Scots, who in the early part of 1644 sent an army to their assistance. Charles, on his part, made a truce with the Catholic rebels in Ireland, in order to bring over the royal forces employed in that kingdom for service in England. He summoned such members of the peers and commons as adhered to his cause to meet at Oxford, where they assembled. The parliament at Westminster was divided upon religious questions, which now entered largely into the policy of the war. Until now parliament had been controlled by the Presbyterians, who had a regular system of church government by councils of ministers and elders. Now the Independents, who were most numerous in the army, began to absorb the power. They held that each church or congregation had the right to conduct its own affairs without the interference or control of any other body. To this party belonged the more vigorous and competent leaders of the parliamentary party. Prominent among these was Oliver Cromwell, a gentleman of Huntingdonshire. He had raised among the Puritan freeholders of his county a regiment of horse, which he called the *Ironsides*, and which under his command won fame during the war.

In the spring of 1643 the parliament was strong enough to resume the offensive, and on the 1st of July a decisive battle was fought between the two armies at Marston Moor, which was fatal to the royalist cause at the north. The royal army was almost annihilated; York surrendered to the parliament; and Rupert was forced to retreat with a mere handful of men. Cromwell's men greatly distinguished themselves in this battle, and the Independents now obtained the entire control in the reorganiza-

tion of the army. Essex was replaced by Sir Thomas Fairfax, who had served at Marston Moor, and Cromwell was made second in command. The cause of the king failed rapidly, and that of the parliament gained in proportion. On the 14th of June, 1645, the king was again decisively defeated at Naseby, and his last hope of success was destroyed. He kept up the struggle until the following spring, however, when in sheer despair he surrendered himself to the Scottish army before Newark. The Scots, unwilling to keep him, transferred him to the parliament, by which he was kept a state prisoner at Holmby House, near Northampton.

In the meantime parliament had set to work to destroy Episcopacy in England. The Presbyterian system was established throughout the kingdom, except in Middlesex and Lancashire, where the Independents were supreme, and the use of the church liturgy was forbidden even in private families. The ministers who refused to accept the new order of affairs were driven from their parishes. On the 10th of January, 1645, Archbishop Laud, who had long been a prisoner in the Tower, and had been recently condemned for high treason, was beheaded. The time for this deed had passed by, and it was now simply an act of useless vengeance. It was clear that the parliament was rapidly falling into the error of the bishops and the established church. The lands belonging to the bishops and the crown were sold for the benefit of the state, and the conquered Cavaliers were subjected to heavy fines.

The army consisted mainly of Independents, and was not willing to submit to the enforced rule of the Presbyterians. In order to deprive the latter of the advantage which the possession of the king's person gave them, the leaders of the army resolved to seize the king. This was accomplished by a troop under Cornet Joyce, of Fairfax's guard, and the king was conveyed to the army in June, 1647. The army was now no longer the servant, but the rival of parliament. Charles endeavored to take advantage of this rivalry to play off one party against the other, but without success. The more ultra leaders of the army desired the death of the king, and indulged in such threats against him that in November, 1648, Charles fled from Hampton Court, where he had been lodged, and having no place to go, took refuge with Colonel Ham-

mond, Governor of the Isle of Wight, by whom he was placed in confinement at Carrisbrooke Castle. Shortly afterwards he made an unsuccessful effort to escape from his prison. The army was indignant at the treachery with which Charles had conducted his negotiations with it.

It had been Charles' intention to head a new civil war for the recovery of his crown; but his imprisonment prevented the execution of this plan. His adherents were not disheartened, however, and risings in his behalf took place in Wales and in various sections of England in 1648. In the same year a Scottish army composed of royalists and moderate Presbyterians, led by the Duke of Hamilton, invaded England to compel the king's release. The English and Welsh risings were put down by Fairfax, and the Scottish army was routed at Preston by Cromwell on the 18th of August.

The danger of a civil war being averted, the parliament and the army proceeded to settle their difficulties. The former was willing to trust the king again, and sought to make a treaty with him, in which it imposed very hard terms upon him. The army had no faith in the king; it believed he would violate any promise he might make as soon as he could safely do so. The leaders resolved to establish their authority over parliament before that body could arrange matters with Charles. Fairfax at once marched upon London, and a regiment under Colonel Pride entered the house of commons and expelled one hundred and forty of the members from their seats. This bold act, known as "Pride's Purge," left the parliament in the hands of the Independents. Vigorous measures were proposed against the king. It was ordered by the "purged" house of commons that he should be brought to trial for treason against the parliament, and as the peers refused to concur in this order, the commons resolved that the supreme authority was vested in them, and expelled the lords from parliament. A "high court of justice" was organized for the trial of the king. Of this court John Bradshaw was president; Cromwell and his son-in-law, Henry Ireton, were among its members.

On the 29th of January, 1649, Charles, who had been lodged in St. James' Palace, was brought before the high court in Westminster Hall. He bore himself with dignity and firmness, and refused to acknowl-

edge the authority of the court. He was condemned and sentenced to death as "a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy to the good people of the nation." He resigned himself to his fate, and spent his last days in preparing for it, under the ministry of Dr. Juxon, Bishop of London. On the 30th of January, 1649, he was beheaded in front of the palace of Whitehall, in the presence of an immense and sympathizing multitude. By his own party he was regarded as a martyr, and is still so styled by the Church of England.

CHAPTER VII.

FROM THE DEATH OF CHARLES I. TO THE ACCESSION OF GEORGE III.

Charles II. Proclaimed King in Ireland—The Marquis of Ormond—Cromwell Subdues Ireland—Charles II. is Accepted by the Scots as King—Battle of Dunbar—Escape of Charles—Scotland Compelled to Submit—War with Holland—Cromwell Dissolves the Long Parliament and Seizes the Government—Is Made Lord Protector—The Commonwealth—Cromwell's Vigorous Rule—His Death—Richard Cromwell—General Monk Becomes Master of England—Restores Charles II.—Arrival of the King—First Measures of Charles—Lord Clarendon—The Plague in London—The Great Fire—Contemptible Character of the King—His Weak Reign—The Rye-House Plot—Death of Charles—James II. King—His Efforts to Restore the Roman Catholic Religion—Opposition of the Nation to him—Birth of the Prince of Wales—The Revolution—Landing of the Prince of Orange—Flight of James—William and Mary Ascend the Throne—The Jacobites—Rebellion of the Irish—Battle of the Boyne—Ireland Subdued—Death of Queen Mary—William III.—Events of his Reign—His Death—Queen Anne—Marlborough—His Character—Becomes the Real Ruler of England—His Victories—Capture of Gibraltar—Union of England and Scotland—Fall of Marlborough—The Jacobite Plots—Death of Queen Anne—George I. King—The Whigs in Power—Impeachment of the Ministers—The Riot Act—The Pretender—He Attempts to Seize the Throne—Is Defeated—Growth of the Power of the House of Commons—The South Sea Scheme—Sir Robert Walpole—Prosperity of England—Death of the King—George II.—Walpole Continued in Power—Death of Queen Caroline—War with Spain—Walpole Retires from the Ministry—William Pitt—Battles of Dettingen and Fontenoy—Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle—Failure of the Efforts of the Young Pretender—Battle of Culloden—The Seven Years' War—England Sustains Frederick the Great—William Pitt Prime Minister—His Character—The Methodists.

THE execution of the king—an act unparalleled in history—aroused a feeling of horror throughout Europe. It was not altogether acceptable to the English people, large numbers of whom condemned it as unwise and unjust. The

power of the parliament, which was now in the hands of the Independents, silenced all opposition. The parliament, which consisted of the incomplete house of commons only, appointed a council of state to conduct the government. England was declared to be a commonwealth, and was to be governed without king or nobles. This arrangement did not suit all parties, and a faction in the army, known as "Levellers," because they held that all men should be "levelled" to an equality in rank and property, broke out into an open mutiny, which was sternly quelled by Cromwell.

Charles II., the son of the beheaded king, was proclaimed in Scotland and Ireland. He was an exile abroad at this time. His chief hope of success lay in the Marquis of Ormond, the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, who was a royalist, and was devoted to his cause. Ormond gathered about him an army composed of men of every faith who were willing to support the king. Cromwell, now a lieutenant-general, was appointed by the English government to put down the outbreak. Cromwell arrived in Ireland in 1649, and in nine months had so thoroughly subdued the country that he was able to delegate the work to his son-in-law, Ireton, for completion, as his presence was needed at home. His measures were cruel, but effective, and the spirit of the Irish was broken. After defeating the last armed force in the field, Cromwell sailed to England. Under the rule of the commonwealth, all the conquered and discontented Irish chiefs and their followers, who desired to do so, were allowed to leave the country and take service with foreign princes. Large numbers of the conquered people were shipped to the Barbadoes; and many of the landholders who had taken arms against the parliament were removed to lands assigned them in Connaught and Clare, and parliamentary soldiers and many other English settlers were established in Munster, Leinster, and Ulster. Ireland was completely conquered, and England obtained a firmer hold upon it than it had ever had before.

Defeated in his hopes of retaining Ireland Charles opened negotiations with the Scots, and was accepted by them on conditions utterly distasteful to him. He entered Scotland, and was proclaimed king in 1650. Cromwell marched against the Scotch forces towards the close of the summer, and on the 3d of September defeated the Scottish

army under Leslie at Dunbar. He then proceeded to overrun Scotland, but the next year, while he was thus engaged, Charles with the Scottish army eluded him, crossed the border, and marched into England. Cromwell hastened after him, and overtook him at Worcester, where he in-

was offered for the capture of the prince himself. After a series of romantic adventures, Charles succeeded in escaping to France. General George Monk, one of Cromwell's lieutenants, continued the war in Scotland, and reduced that country to submission to England.



OLIVER CROMWELL.

flicted a decisive defeat upon him on the 3d of September, 1651, the anniversary of the victory of Dunbar. The cause of Charles was now hopeless; his adherents were proclaimed rebels and traitors by parliament, and a reward of a thousand pounds

In 1652 a quarrel with the Dutch concerning the fisheries of the Scottish coast brought on a war between England and Holland. It was fought at sea. In November the English fleet, under Admiral Blake, was defeated by the Dutch, under

Admiral Von Tromp, off the Naze. Blake lost many of his ships, and took refuge in the Thames, while Von Tromp cruised up and down the channel with a broom at his mast-head in token of his determination to sweep the English from the seas. In February, 1653, a battle which lasted four days was fought between these commanders, but was indecisive. In June and July, however, Von Tromp was defeated in two great battles; in the first by Blake, and in the last by General Monk, in which engagement the Dutch admiral was slain. These victories virtually ended the war, but peace was not made until 1654.

In the meantime the quarrel between the army and the parliament had broken out anew. The latter, which had come to be known as "the Rump," as it was but the remnant of the house of commons, was neither feared nor respected, and Cromwell resolved to put an end to the controversy which was distracting the country. On the 20th of April, 1653, he entered the house, and after bitterly reproaching the members, called in a company of soldiers, and drove them out at the point of the bayonet, and locked up the hall. He thus made it known that he meant to be in name, as he was in actual fact, master of England. He desired to restore the old constitution and make himself king, but though his troops were devoted to him, and willing to support him as the head of the state, they hated the very name of king. He therefore simply appointed a council, and summoned a parliament of his own nomination. This assembly met in 1653, and is known as "the Little Parliament." The royalists termed it "Praise God Barebone's Parliament," from one of its members who bore that singular name. At the end of a few months, the majority of the members surrendered their powers to Cromwell, who, on the 16th of December, 1653, took the title of *Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland*.

This act arrayed against the protector not only the royalists but the republicans also, who regarded him as a new tyrant and the destroyer of the commonwealth. Cromwell began his reign with the intention of exercising his power within the limits of the laws of the land, but circumstances forced him to depart from this plan, and to inaugurate a sterner and stronger rule. The first parliament, summoned by him in September, 1654, questioned his author-

ity, and was dissolved in January, 1655. This body also reversed his acts for the toleration of all creeds, and refusing to grant him any supplies, left him at its dissolution without funds for the service of the state. The agents of Charles II., who was an exile in the Low Countries, took advantage of these dissensions to stir up plots in England against the protector. At the same time a republican conspiracy was detected. The republicans were treated with leniency, but the royalists were executed or sold into slavery in the West Indies. Many other schemes were formed for Cromwell's assassination, but were detected by his vigilance, and came to nothing. Their only result was to drive him into more arbitrary measures. England was divided into eleven military districts, each of which was placed under the rule of a major-general of ultra republican sentiments. A contribution of one-tenth, for the use of the state, was levied upon rich and disaffected royalists. A second parliament was assembled in March, 1656, and this body proposed that Cromwell should take the title of king. Finding a large part of the army still averse to a revival of the monarchy, Cromwell wisely declined the crown. An effort was made to revive the house of lords, but the commons were so hostile to it that on the 4th of February, 1658, Cromwell dissolved the parliament. In this parliament representatives from Scotland and Ireland sat with those of England. Scotland was held by an English army of 10,000 men, under General Monk.

The domestic policy of the protector restored order and quiet in England. His foreign policy was in keeping with his determined character, and raised England once more to the position she had lost at the death of Elizabeth as one of the leading states of Europe and the protectress of Protestantism. The English fleet under Admiral Blake compelled the Grand Duke of Tuscany and the pirates of the African coast to make reparation for their outrages upon English commerce. France, Spain, and Holland sought the English alliance, and the protector, true to his policy, threw his weight in behalf of France and against Spain. In 1655 the Spanish possessions in the West Indies were attacked, and the island of Jamaica captured. In 1657 Blake attacked the Spanish treasure-ships in the harbor of Santa Cruz in Teneriffe, and burned them after a desperate fight. He



CROMWELL DISSOLVING THE LONG PARLIAMENT.

was mortally wounded, and died within sight of England on his return. Cromwell exerted his influence actively in behalf of the Protestants of the continent, and interfered to put a stop to the persecution of the Vandois of Piedmont by the Duke of Savoy. In 1658, in alliance with France, he helped to wrest Dunkirk from Spain. The town was ceded to the English by France in accordance with the terms of the treaty.

In the midst of these successes, the health of Cromwell began to fail, and on the 3d

ment of a nation in such troublesome times. He was of a gentle and indolent nature, and lacked the firmness which had enabled his father to hold the discordant elements of the nation in check with a grasp of iron. Though he had no enemies, the army refused to obey a civilian, and after eight months of hesitation the discontented officers recalled the Rump parliament to power. Richard at once resigned his office of protector, and retired to private life. His example was followed by his brother



THE ENGLISH FLEET RECEIVING CHARLES II. IN HOLLAND.

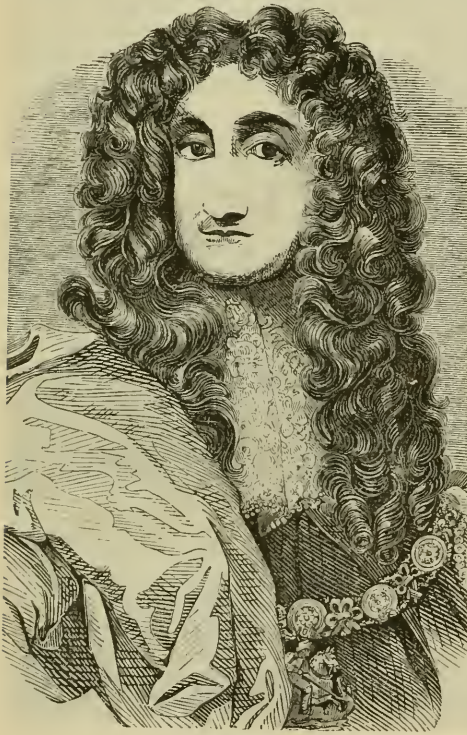
of September, 1658, the anniversary of the battles of Dunbar and Worcester, he died of the ague. In him England lost one of her greatest rulers. He was a general of the first order, and a statesman of consummate ability. If he was ambitious, he used his power for the good of his country, and placed her in the proudest position she had ever occupied in the family of nations.

With his dying breath Cromwell appointed his son Richard as his successor. He was quietly acknowledged by parliament, but he was unsuited to the govern-

ment of a nation in such troublesome times. Henry, who, during the life of their father, had governed Ireland with ability.

The quarrel between the Rump and the army broke out immediately upon the return of the former to power. A few months later parliament was driven out of existence by General John Lambert, who was anxious to be a second Oliver Cromwell. General Monk, the commander of the English army in Scotland, at once marched against Lambert, whose forces deserted him, and passed over to the more popular Monk. The fleet also declared for parliament, and

entered the Thames, and on the 3d of February, 1660, Monk entered London in triumph. He was absolute master of England now, and for several days remained silent as to his intentions, but at length, to the great joy of the nation, declared for a free parliament. The old parliament at once assembled, and after issuing writs for a general election, proclaimed its own dissolution on the 16th of March. Thus ended the famous long parliament, which, having been twice expelled and twice restored, had had an existence of twenty years.



CHARLES II.

The new parliament, which was termed the *Convention*, as it was not summoned by the king, met on the 25th of April, the house of lords resuming its rightful place in it. Monk had been for some time in correspondence with Charles, who issued his famous declaration of Breda, in which he promised a general pardon for all past offences to all save "only such persons as shall hereafter be excepted by parliament," and freedom of conscience. On the 8th of May Charles was proclaimed king without any effort being made to impose conditions

upon him. The fleet was sent to Holland to convey him to England, and on the 29th of May he made his entry into London.

Charles II. was good-tempered, easy-going, and of good manners, but he had little heart and no principles. If he had any religion, he was a Roman Catholic, but he cared little for such matters, and made amusement the chief object of his existence. He began his reign by ignoring the commonwealth and dating all his acts in the twelfth year of his reign. The bones of Cromwell, of Ireton, his son-in-law, and of Bradshaw, the president of the court which sentenced Charles I., were dragged from their tombs in Westminster Abbey, and hanged at Tyburn. All the judges of the late king were excepted from the amnesty, as were five other persons. Twenty-nine persons in all were tried for treason; of these ten were executed, the remainder imprisoned for life. The king's promise of religious toleration was soon broken. The "Solemn League and Covenant" was burned by the hangman, and over 2,000 non-conformist clergymen were ejected from their parishes. A separate parliament was granted to Scotland, which sentenced the Marquis of Argyle, the greatest of the leaders of the Covenanters, to death as a traitor. How far Charles would have carried his revenge it is impossible to say, had he not been checked by the firmness of his great minister, Lord Clarendon, his most faithful companion in exile, who insisted upon the execution in good faith of the acts of amnesty and indemnity. Charles was well satisfied to adopt a more lenient and less troublesome course. Later on the royal government exerted all its power to compel the adoption of the doctrines and practices of the Church of England by the people. Charles, in order to screen the Roman Catholics, to whom he was kindly disposed, would have allowed liberty to the non-conformists also, but the church party compelled him to sanction their acts. All persons not of the established faith were shut out from all public employments and honors. All persons holding office were obliged to take an oath of allegiance, acknowledging the king's supremacy and denying the Roman Catholic doctrine of transubstantiation. In consequence of this law, the king's brother, James, Duke of York, who was a Catholic, was obliged, in 1673, to resign his office of lord high admiral.

In 1662 Charles married Catharine of

Braganza, the daughter of the King of Portugal, and received as her dowry the fortress of Tangier in Africa and the island of Bombay in India. Tangier was of no practical use, and was soon abandoned, and Bombay was made over to the East India Company. In the same year Charles, who was always in want of money, sold Dunkirk to Louis XIV. of France, to the great indignation of the English people.

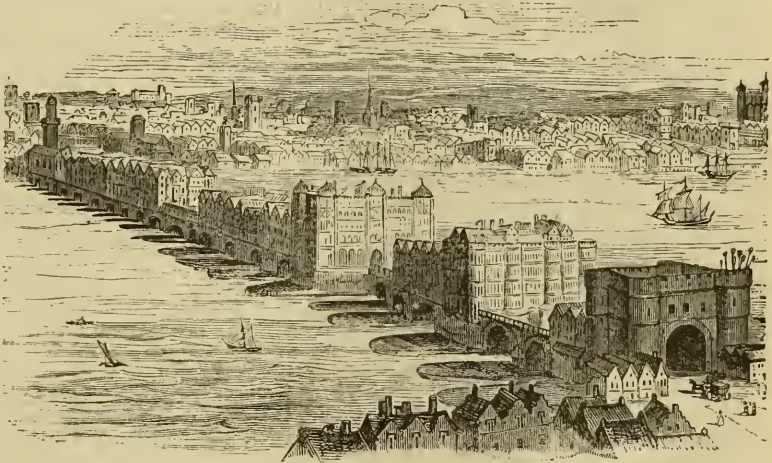
In the summer of 1665 the plague broke out in London, and in six months swept away over 100,000 people. The next year, on the 2d of September, 1666, a destructive fire swept over London and raged for three days, destroying the city from the Tower to the Temple and Smithfield. Among the buildings destroyed was old St. Paul's, which was afterwards replaced by the present splendid cathedral, the work of Sir Christopher Wrenn.

Charles began his reign amid the devoted loyalty of his subjects, who were sick of war and confusion. He soon disgusted them by his profligacy. His immoralities were open and shameless, and his court the most dissolute ever known in England. Its chief dignitaries were his profligate favorites and his mistresses. To support this shameful luxury, the king became the regular pensioner of Louis XIV., and sold to him his own honor and his country's interests.

In the midst of the general depression caused by the plague and the fire England became involved in a war with Holland, growing out of the commercial rivalry between the two nations and the king's desire to be revenged upon the Dutch for their insults to him in his exile. Several naval battles were fought, one of which, the battle of the Downs, was contested for four days. Louis XIV. at first aided the Dutch, as we have seen, but soon entered into a secret treaty with England and deserted his former allies. Charles neglected the war, and

squandered the supplies voted by parliament for the campaign, upon the revels of his court. The fleet was laid up unrepaiied, and the sailors, left without pay, mutinied. In 1667 the Dutch fleet entered the Medway, burned some vessels at Chatham, and blockaded the Thames. The nation, in an agony of shame, awoke from its dream of loyalty, and began to sigh for a return of the proud days of Cromwell. Peace was made with Holland soon afterward.

The Earl of Clarendon, the king's chief adviser, was disliked by the monarch and the people, but for different reasons. The former found him a determined opponent to his plan of making England subservient to France and of re-establishing the Roman Catholic religion; the latter hated him for



OLD LONDON BRIDGE.

his venality and pride. Charles resolved to sacrifice him to the wrath of the people at the close of the Dutch war, and deprived him of his chancellorship. Clarendon was thereupon impeached by the commons; he fled to the continent and passed the remainder of his life in exile. The advisers of the king now induced him to enter into the combination known as the *Triple Alliance*, consisting of England, Holland, and Sweden, for the purpose of checking the ambitious designs of Louis XIV. Charles, as has been related, had no heart in this alliance, and on the 22d of May, 1670, signed the secret treaty of Dover with Louis XIV., by which he again sold himself to France. He was to receive a yearly pension, was to declare himself a Roman Catholic as soon as was prudent,

and was to join Louis in the war against Holland. In case of resistance on the part of the English people to the scheme for restoring the Romish religion, Louis agreed to aid Charles with an army. In accordance with this agreement Charles abandoned his allies, and in 1672 joined Louis in his war against the Dutch. The English gained little credit in this war, and parliament, indignant at this degrading alliance, forced the king to withdraw from it and make peace with Holland in February, 1674.

Charles II. was childless, and the heir to the throne was the Duke of York, a Roman Catholic. The greater part of the nation regarded the prospect of his accession with serious apprehension, and a strong party was formed which had for its object the exclusion of the duke from the throne on account of his religion. To this party the name of whig, which had been applied to the Presbyterian insurgents of Scotland, was given. The supporters of the duke on the other hand were called Tories, a name given to the Roman Catholic outlaws of Ireland. As the king had no legitimate children, the whigs were anxious to secure the crown for the eldest of his illegitimate sons, the Duke of Monmouth, who was the idol of the nation, which believed him to be the king's son by a secret marriage. The efforts to exclude the Duke of York from the throne greatly angered Charles, who, during the last four years of his reign, refused to summon a parliament. The whigs in many places resorted to plots of insurrection, which were detected. One of these, organized by the most desperate of the opposition, was known as the Rye-House Plot, and had for its object the assassination of Charles and his brother. It was betrayed, and several executions followed. Among the victims were Lord William Russell and Algernon Sidney, two of the best men of the day. It is now believed that they were innocent of the charges for which they suffered. Monmouth having been concerned in the whig plots, was obliged to go abroad, and in a short while the Duke of York was reinstated in his post of lord high admiral. Charles was soon after seized with an epileptic attack, and after lingering a few days, died on the 6th of February, 1685. In his last moments he was attended by a Roman Catholic priest. He was sincerely mourned by his people, for, in spite of his contemptible character, he never lost his personal popularity.

The Duke of York at once ascended the throne as James II. He was in reality allowed to assume the crown on sufferance, as the majority of the English people were opposed to him in religious matters, and feared that he would seek to change the existing order of things. Still, as he was believed to be a man of honor, the nation acquiesced in his rule, hoping that he would observe the oath he had taken to defend the Church of England, and respect the laws. When it was known, a little later, that the king had gone in royal state to attend mass, there was a feeling of general alarm throughout the kingdom. Other evidences were soon given that the king set small weight upon his promises.

Almost immediately after James' accession, the attention of the king and the nation was drawn off to a movement which the former might have turned to his advantage had he been a wiser man. In the early summer of 1685 the Duke of Monmouth, accompanied by a number of whig gentlemen who had been with him in exile, landed in Dorsetshire in arms. On the 20th of June, at Taunton, Monmouth declared himself king. He was joined by a number of whig nobles and by many of the peasantry and townspeople of the western counties. The royal forces were immediately despatched against him, and on the 6th of July he was defeated at Sedgemoor. Two days later Monmouth was captured, and was beheaded on the 15th of July, under an act of attainder passed by parliament shortly after his landing. His followers were treated with remorseless cruelty. The chief instrument of the king in punishing them was the infamous Chief Justice Jeffreys, whose courts, from which a prisoner rarely escaped with his life or property, were known as the "Bloody Assizes." This wretch sold pardons in such quantities that he soon became rich, and his bloody zeal was rewarded by the king with the chancellorship.

The ease with which Monmouth's rebellion had been crushed, and the determination manifested by the English people to sustain the king, induced James to think himself strong enough to enforce the policy he had determined upon at the outset of his reign. He was anxious to secure the repeal of the habeas corpus act, which had been passed in the previous reign, and to raise a large standing army. In order to make this force more subservient to his will, he

wished the laws against the holding of offices by Roman Catholics to be repealed. The parliament contained a large tory majority, but in spite of this, it refused to pass the bills for the enforcement of the king's policy, and was prorogued by him. The most prudent of the English Catholics, and even Pope Innocent XI. himself, warned James to refrain from violence and to govern his kingdom in accordance with its laws for the present; but he was deaf to their advice. He dismissed all his ministers who opposed his schemes, and would employ only those who were willing to lend themselves to his tyranny. Consequently the most upright men of his own party stood aloof from him. In order to make Ireland a sure refuge for him in case of trouble in England, the king appointed Richard Talbot, Earl of Tyrconnel, to the government of that country. He was the determined foe of the Protestant settlers, and filled every office in the island with Catholics.

Among the most resolute opponents of the king's tyranny was the English Church. James, who had given himself up to the guidance of a Jesuit priest named Petre, now resolved to compel the submission of that great body to his will. An ecclesiastical commission, presided over by Jeffreys, a fit tool for such work, was set up, and charged with the task of governing the church, or, in other words, of compelling it to submit to the king's plan for its destruction. The king had forbidden the clergy to preach against popery; a clergyman in the diocese of London had violated this command; and Bishop Compton was ordered to proceed against him. The bishop refused, and the power of the commission was invoked. The acts of this body drove the clergy into almost open rebellion against the king. James then tried to force the universities to accept Catholic officers, in the hope of converting them into schools for the dissemination of that faith. Cambridge escaped lightly, but at Oxford a determined struggle ensued, in which the king succeeded in forcing a Catholic president upon Magdalen College, the fellows of which were dismissed for their opposition to him. Seeing that the whole English Church was arrayed against him, James began to court the support of the dissenters. In order to conciliate them, and at the same time to serve his own faith, he published in April, 1687, a "Declaration of Indulgence,"

abolishing all religious tests and the laws against non-conformity. The laws against which this blow was aimed were iniquitous enough, and should never have disgraced the statute-book; but James was a constitutional king, and had no power to annul them. That right was reserved to parliament. His effort to conciliate the dissenters failed. All classes of Protestants saw through his scheme, and laughed at his pretence of serving them.

In 1688 the king published a second declaration of indulgence, which he ordered should be read in all the churches. William Saucroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, and six bishops of his archdiocese, presented a petition to the king against this order. James received the petition in great anger, and sent the "Seven Bishops" to the Tower, on a charge of seditious libel. They were tried by the Court of King's Bench, and were triumphantly acquitted. The news was received in all parts of England with rejoicings, and James was thus given ample cause to see how firmly his people were united against him.

In the midst of these stirring events, on the 10th of June, 1688, was born the Prince of Wales, James Francis Edward, the son of James by his second wife, Mary of Modena. James and his partisans were greatly elated, but the event really hastened his ruin. Until now the people had endured the tyranny of the king in the hope that all would be made right upon the accession of the Princess Mary of Orange, the king's eldest daughter, and the heir apparent to the crown. The birth of a prince destroyed these hopes, and brought matters to a crisis. Some there were who did not hesitate to declare that the Prince of Wales was not the king's son. The leading whig nobles, however, took a more decisive step, and on the 30th of June, the very day of the bishops' acquittal, sent a secret invitation to William and Mary to come over from Holland and claim the crown, promising to support them with all their power. The invitation was accepted, and the Prince of Orange set to work with energy to prepare for the invasion of England. James was not convinced of his danger till the prince was ready to sail, though he was warned of it by Louis XIV., who had detected William's design. Then he attempted to undo his work by abolishing the ecclesiastical commission and making other concessions. It was too late for conciliation, how-

ever. The fate of the Stuart dynasty was sealed.

On the 5th of November, 1688, William of Orange landed at Torbay. He was well received by the people, and in several days was joined by a number of the leading men of the kingdom, among them Lord Churchill, afterwards the great Duke of

stream. It was afterwards recovered. Such peers as were in London at once assumed the government and sent to request the presence of the Prince of Orange, who took upon himself the task of administering the kingdom. A convention of the estates of the realm was summoned, which met on the 22d of January, 1689. The



WILLIAM III.

Marlborough. James retreated before the advancing and rapidly increasing forces of the prince, and his daughter Anne, who was a Protestant, joined the party of her brother-in-law. Utterly disheartened, the king fled from Whitehall on the 11th of December, and as he crossed the Thames in a boat threw the great seal into the

flight of James was recognized as an abdication of the throne; and the convention having secured the "religion, laws, and liberties of England by a Declaration of Right, offered the crown in joint sovereignty to William and Mary on the 13th of February. This formal offer was accepted, and the sovereigns began their reign

on this day. Thus was completed the "English Revolution," which saved that kingdom to Protestantism and liberty. The sovereignty of Ireland went with that of England, and a few months later the estates of Scotland proclaimed William and Mary king and queen of that country.

There remained a large party in England who regarded the accession of William and Mary as unlawful. These were called Jacobites, and were destined to give the new sovereigns considerable trouble.

of France, who had warmly espoused the fortunes of James, as "the cause of legitimacy" against the right of a nation to self-government, furnished James with an army and money, and officers for his Irish troops. James reached Ireland in March, 1689, and summoned a parliament. The Irish rallied round him with enthusiasm, hoping that if they could restore his fortunes, they could exact his consent to their independence as the price of their services. The whole island, except Enniskillen and London-



LONDONDERRY, IRELAND.

About four hundred of the clergy, including five of the "Seven Bishops," had scruples respecting the rightfulness of the deposition of James, and refused to swear allegiance to William and Mary. They were known as non-jurors.

Ireland stoutly refused to acknowledge the new sovereigns, and the Earl of Tyrconnel invited James to come over, and called on the people to support him. The whole Irish race rose in arms in defence of their Catholic sovereign, and Louis XIV.

derry, which were gallantly held by the English, supported him. Londonderry was besieged by James' forces, but held out until aid was received from England. Enniskillen beat back the force sent against it.

In the summer of 1690 William, who had joined the general league of the continental powers against Louis XIV., went over to Ireland to conduct the war in person. The departure of the king from England was seized upon by the French to make an attack upon that country in concert with

the Jacobites. The English fleet under Lord Herbert, Earl of Torrington, was badly beaten by the French fleet, off Beachy Head, on the 30th of June, as has been related. It was believed that Lord Herbert was secretly a partisan of James. The French Admiral Tourville hovered upon the English coast for some time, waiting for the Jacobites to rise and co-operate with him, but as they did not take any such action, he finally withdrew, after sacking the unprotected town of Teignmouth.

Dublin, from which he hastened to Kinsale and took ship for France. At the approach of the English army Dublin threw open its gates to King William. The Irish bitterly cursed the cowardice of the fugitive King James, but gallantly continued the struggle under their accomplished leader, Patrick Sarsfield. William's presence being needed in England, the conduct of the war was left to the Dutch General Ginkell, who defeated the Irish and French forces at Aghrim on the 12th of July, 1691. In this battle the



THE ENGLISH DESTROY THE FRENCH FLEET IN THE BAY OF LA HOGUE.

The defeat off Beachy Head was more than atoned for by the successes of King William in Ireland. Immediately upon landing in Ireland the king marched rapidly to the south, and on the 30th of June arrived in front of the army of James, which was posted strongly behind the Boyne. On the morning of the 1st of July William forced a passage of the stream at the head of his troops, and inflicted a decisive defeat upon the Irish army. James made no effort to rally his forces, but fled to

French commander St. Ruth was killed. The last stand of the Irish was made at Limerick, which was captured by Ginkell in October, 1691. Sarsfield, its heroic defender, and as many of the Irish as chose to go with him, were allowed to pass over to France and enter the service of that country. The triumph of the English was complete, and severe laws were enacted which held Ireland in such absolute subjection, that she ceased to be a cause of apprehension to England until the begin-

ning of the French revolution in the next century.

The efforts of William were now engaged in the struggle on the continent between the Grand Alliance and Louis XIV., the events of which have been related in the French history of this period. During his absence on the continent the French fleet

was brought to a close by the treaty of Ryswick, in 1697.

Previous to this William III. had become sole sovereign of England by the death of Queen Mary on the 28th of December, 1694. A large part of the king's popularity in England had been due to the queen, and after her death the commons



QUEEN ANNE.

attempted another descent upon the English coast, and was defeated by Admiral Russell in the Channel. The French were then driven into the Bay of La Hogue, where their ships were burned by the English, as has been related, A. D. 1692. This victory was the death-blow to the hopes of James II., and saved England from inva-

and the king soon became involved in a quarrel, in which the former indulged the national dislike of foreigners by subjecting the king to many mortifications, which he bore with firmness and dignity. The commons insisted upon the disbanding of the greater part of the army, and obliged William to send away his favorite Dutch guards

and all his foreign troops. The king had bestowed large grants of land in Ireland upon his personal friends. These grants the commons compelled him to annul, and turn over all forfeited Irish lands to the government for the use of the state. The war with France, for which the whole nation blamed the king, and which greatly increased his unpopularity, had caused heavy losses to England, and in a fit of

and the crown of Great Britain passed, according to the settlement made by the declaration and bill of rights, to his sister-in-law, the Princess Anne of Denmark, the daughter of James II. and the wife of Prince George of Denmark.

Prince George, the husband of Queen Anne, was an insignificant person, without ability of any kind. From her girlhood the queen had been thoroughly under the



GIBRALTAR.

economy, parliament reduced the army and navy to a peace footing, and so tied the hands of the king at the very moment that the interests of England required him to be strong and independent.

The union of England with France in the effort to dismember the Spanish dominions, and the events of the war of the Spanish succession, have been related. The war had scarcely begun when William III. died, on the 8th of March, 1702, from the effects of a fall from his horse. He was fifty-one years old, and had ruled England nearly fourteen years.

William left no children by Queen Mary,

influence of the beautiful and imperious Sarah Jennings, who had married John Churchill, a man who had been raised to the peerage by James II., and whom William III., in spite of his personal dislike of him, had created Earl of Marlborough. Through his wife's influence Marlborough gained the favor of the Princess Anne, and William III., when dying, pointed him out to her as the one best qualified to lead the armies of England in the great struggle which had begun upon the continent. Marlborough was in many respects one of the greatest statesmen, and was unquestionably the ablest general England ever pro-

duced. He was a singularly handsome man, and was gifted with a serenity of temper which few things could ruffle. His courage was unshaken, his nature ardent and venturesome, but held in check by a cool, clear judgment, which personal feelings never influenced. His capacity for enduring fatigue was extraordinary, and he was sometimes known to pass fifteen hours on horseback. His manners were perfect, and his courtesy to every one formed a striking trait of his character. In his deepest vexations he was calm and serene. He was passionately attached to his wife, and his love for her was the only strong feeling of his otherwise purely intellectual nature. In all things else he was absolutely without feeling, hating no one, loving none, and regretting nothing. "The passions which stirred the men around him, whether noble or ignoble, were to him simply elements in an intellectual problem which had to be solved by patience." He was insensible to the finer sentiments of our nature, and, though a man of real greatness, loved money simply for money's sake, and stained his great fame by his avarice and peculation.

Under the influence of the Earl of Marlborough, Queen Anne announced immediately upon her accession that it was her intention to continue the foreign policy of her predecessor. Marlborough, who had reached the ripe age of fifty-two, was appointed to the command of the English army in Flanders. He at once entered upon his duties, and by the force of his brilliant genius attained an ascendancy in the councils of the allies which made him the real director of the war. Though an old man, he exhibited a daring and audacity in his plans and movements which astounded both his allies and his adversaries, and compelled victory. The career which he now began was one of unbroken good fortune, for, as Voltaire truly declares, he never laid siege to a fortress but to capture it, or fought a battle but to win it. The events of the war of the Spanish succession have been related, and we shall refer to them only incidentally in this portion of our narrative.

By his first successes Marlborough drove the French from the lower Rhine and freed Holland from the danger of invasion. For these services he was created a duke. By his great victory over the French and Bavarians at Blenheim he firmly established his commanding influence at home

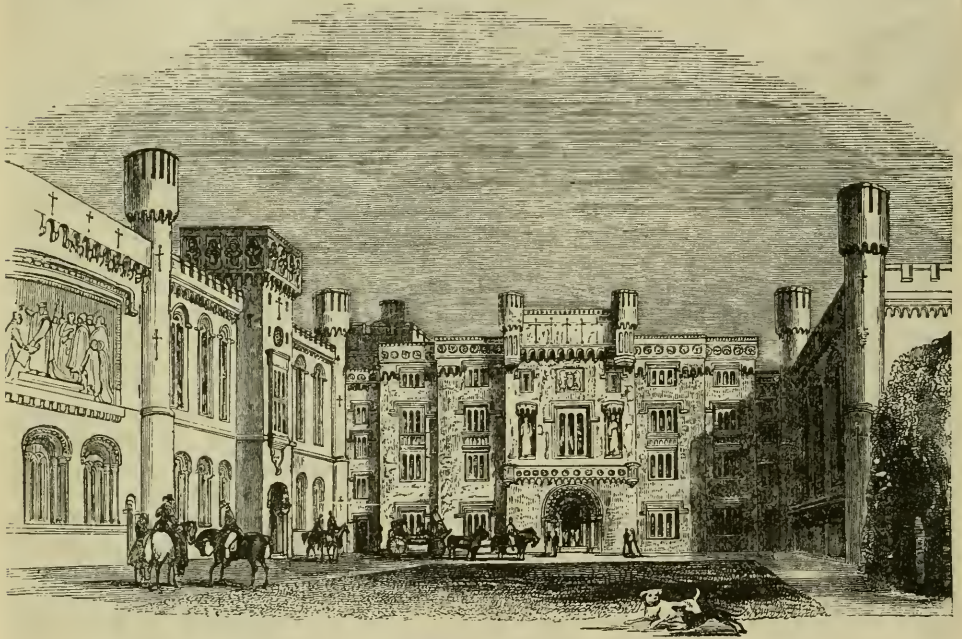
and abroad, and was rewarded by the gift of the royal manor of Woodstock, where was subsequently erected the palace of Blenheim.

Though absent on the continent, Marlborough was the leading spirit of the government of England, and his influence shaped the domestic as well as the foreign policy of Queen Anne. In politics he was a tory, and the war in which he was engaged was entirely a "whig war." He exerted all his influence to draw his party into a support of the war, but with only partial success. His march into Germany caused the tories to regard him with intense bitterness, and had he failed his political ruin would have been inevitable. His victory at Blenheim for a time silenced the opposition to him, but from this moment he began to drift steadily towards the whigs, the only party which really supported his policy. By a skilful coalition of the moderate tories with the whigs he managed to defeat the intrigues of the peace party, and his brilliant victory of Ramillies, on the 23d of May, 1706, which destroyed the French army under Marshal Villeroi and freed Flanders from the French, strengthened his power. In the same year England gained another great advantage by the capture of Gibraltar by Admiral Rooke. This famous fortress has ever since remained in possession of Great Britain. The Earl of Peterborough, a brilliant but erratic genius, rapidly overran Spain for the allies, but left the peninsula in disgust when he found the allies unwilling to act in accordance with his advice.

For a long time the policy of uniting England and Scotland in one kingdom had been seriously considered by the leading statesmen of Great Britain, but the project was long delayed by religious differences and commercial jealousies. In 1706 the measure was revived and was carried forward with such success that, in 1707, an act of union was passed providing for the union of England and Scotland, under the name of the Kingdom of Great Britain. It was agreed that the succession to the British crown should be regulated by the provisions of the English act of settlement, which, in default of heirs to Queen Anne, gave the crown to the Princess Sophia, Electress of Hanover (the daughter of Queen Elizabeth of Bohemia and the granddaughter of James I.) and her heirs, being Protestants. No changes were made in the church or

laws of Scotland, but all rights of trade were made common to the two countries, a uniform system of coinage was adopted, and a single parliament was to represent the united kingdom, for which purpose forty-five Scotch members were added to the English House of Commons, and sixteen representative Scotch peers to the English House of Lords. The union was at first opposed in Scotland, and threats of violent resistance were plentiful; but the good sense of the Scottish people finally prevailed, and by the close of the year 1708 the union was generally acquiesced in as the best policy for both countries. Such indeed it has proved. To Scotland

govern England by holding the balance of power between the rival political parties. The victory of Ramillies made him strong enough to compel the queen, in spite of her hatred of the whigs, to admit Lord Sunderland, their most ultra leader, to office. The tories every day became more opposed to the war, and Marlborough was obliged to rely upon the whigs for support. They made him pay a dear price for their assistance. They were the only party who supported the war to which the duke was pledged, and he was powerless, as he could not command the aid of the tories, to oppose their measures. Not only was the tory party opposed to him, but the tory



ARUNDEL CASTLE.

the union with England has been of the greatest advantage. It "opened up new avenues of wealth which the energy of its people turned to wonderful account. The farms of Lothian have become models of agricultural skill. A fishing town on the Clyde has grown into the rich and populous Glasgow. Peace and culture have changed the wild clansmen of the highlands into herdsmen and farmers. Nor was the change followed by any loss of national spirit. The world has hardly seen a mightier and more rapid development of national energy than that of Scotland after the union."

It was the wise policy of Marlborough to

principles of the queen caused her to lose faith in the great duke. She bitterly resented the appointment of Lord Sunderland to office, which Marlborough had wrung from her by threatening to resign his command. The whigs were determined to drive the moderate tories from office, and Marlborough, powerless to oppose them, was obliged, against his judgment, to comply with their demands. This compliance increased the hatred of the queen towards the duke, and the haughty temper of the Duchess of Marlborough won for her the dislike of her former friend. The whigs were now supreme at home.



TURKISH TROOPS ON THE MARCH.

In 1708 the brilliant victory won by Marlborough at Oudenarde, and the other successes of the allies, induced Louis XIV. to offer terms of peace, as has been related. Marlborough, believing that all that England could justly desire was safe, was anxious for peace, but the English ministry and the allies, in spite of his counsels, haughtily demanded of Louis terms which he could not grant without a shameful sacrifice of his honor, and the war went on. The bloody battle of Malplaquet, though a victory for Marlborough, was purchased by the loss of 24,000 men, and the French army was able to conduct its retreat in good order. The enemies of Marlborough eagerly seized upon this "deluge of blood" as a means of rendering him unpopular at home. A flood of pamphlets and other publications was let loose against him; he was abused, ridiculed, accused of prolonging the war for his own gratification and profit, and even his courage was called in question. These efforts were successful, and the people were led to regard the greatest of living Englishmen as his country's worst enemy. His brilliant services went for nothing with the fickle populace; they were regarded as the evidences of a criminal ambition.

In 1709 Dr. Sacheverel, a clergyman of the established church, preached a sermon at St. Paul's before the lord mayor, in which he declared with great boldness the tory doctrine that nothing could justify a subject in resisting his sovereign. The whigs felt this as a slur upon their conduct in dethroning James II. and setting up William and Mary. In spite of the warnings of Marlborough, who told them such a course would be their ruin, the whig ministers caused the offending divine to be impeached. He was condemned by the house of lords, but his sentence was so light that it was a practical acquittal. The feelings aroused by this trial exhibited in a striking light the popular hatred of the whigs and of the war.

Emboldened by this change of public opinion, the queen, in the autumn of 1710, dismissed her whig ministry and appointed a tory ministry, with Robert Harley, Earl of Oxford, and Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke, at its head. These were resolved upon the ruin of Marlborough, who, feeling assured that he could not expect any support at home, did not dare to undertake any decisive enterprise. A little

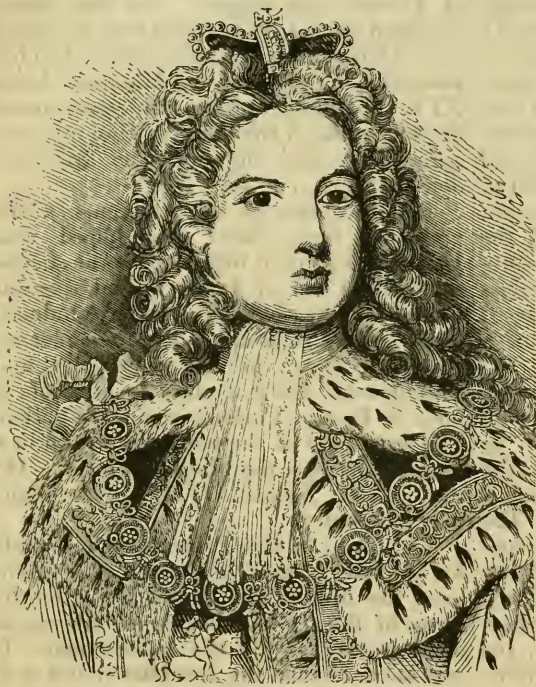
later a tory house of commons was returned, and the ministers felt strong enough to destroy the duke. The Duchess of Marlborough was dismissed from court, the duke was removed from his command, and called home to answer to charges of speculation, and was condemned by a vote of the house of commons, which was controlled by his enemies. He at once left England.

The removal of Marlborough put an end to the opposition to the withdrawal of England from the war. The determination of England to make peace with France induced the allies to adopt a similar course, and on the 11th of April, 1713, the peace of Utrecht was signed. By this treaty England gained Nova Scotia and the island of St. Christopher, and was confirmed in her possession of Gibraltar and Minorca. Louis XIV. recognized Queen Anne, guaranteed the succession of the house of Hanover, and agreed to expel the pretender from his dominions.

The Jacobites, as the adherents of the pretender were called, had hoped that Bolingbroke would bring about the succession of the son of James I., and this was indeed his intention could he have induced him to turn Protestant. The pretender refused to change his faith, however, and Bolingbroke did not dare to attempt to force a Roman Catholic upon the nation. The remainder of the reign was passed in a struggle between the whigs and tories. On the 1st of August, 1714, Queen Anne died of apoplexy.

The death of the Princess Sophia made her son, the Elector George Louis of Hanover, the heir to the British crown by the terms of the act of succession. He was at once proclaimed by the government. It was believed that the Jacobites would seek to oppose his accession by force, but Queen Anne's death took them by surprise, and found them unprepared to offer any resistance. George made no haste to take possession of his new kingdom, and it was six weeks after Queen Anne's death before he and his eldest son landed at Greenwich. He was well received, but he was utterly destitute of the qualities calculated to arouse the loyalty of such a people as the English. He could not speak the English language, and was obliged to learn by rote a few words in which to reply to the addresses of his new subjects. He was fifty-four years of age, small of stature, awkward in manner, and insignificant in appearance.

His private life was scandalous, and when he came to England he left his wife behind him, a prisoner in one of his castles in Germany. He was honest and well intentioned in his course towards his new subjects, but he could never learn to be an Englishman. He preferred his native country to England as a residence, and so caused constant annoyance and embarrassment to his ministers. The nation returned his dislike with great cordiality, and tolerated him only because he was a constitutional sovereign, and made no effort to interfere with their liberties, and because he was the only Protestant heir to the crown.



GEORGE I.

The king began his reign by excluding the tories from the government. A new ministry was formed, composed almost exclusively of whigs. The king took no part in the government of his kingdom, leaving it entirely in the hands of his ministers. The ministers of the latter part of Queen Anne's reign had disgusted the nation with their plots for the restoration of the Stuarts, and had made the name of tory odious to the greater part of the English people. The restoration of the Stuarts meant simply the undoing of the work of the revolution, the repudiation of the

national debt, and the re-establishment by force of Roman Catholicism. The whigs were pledged to sustain the results of the revolution, and, whatever their faults, could not be suspected of disloyalty to the system they had established. The confidence of the nation was not misplaced, for the plots of the tory leaders, Harley and Bolingbroke, had left the whigs the sole representatives, not only of the principles of the revolution, but of constitutional liberty and religious freedom. The first house of commons assembled under this reign contained less than fifty tory members, and their Jacobite sympathies were so well understood that they had no influence in the government. Lord Townshend was appointed by the king secretary of state, and his brother-in-law, Sir Robert Walpole, became successively paymaster of the forces, chancellor of the exchequer, and first lord of the treasury.

One of the first acts of the new parliament was to impeach Bolingbroke, Oxford, and Ormond upon charges of misconduct in the management of the peace negotiations and of intriguing with the pretender. Bolingbroke, at the outset of these efforts, fled to France, and was followed by Ormond. The Earl of Oxford remained at home to face his enemies, and was sent to the Tower, but was acquitted and released two years later. Acts of attainder were passed against Bolingbroke and Ormond. The tories viewed these measures with great dissatisfaction, and riots broke out in various parts of the kingdom in consequence of this feeling. So numerous and serious did these disturbances become that parliament passed the riot act, by

which it was made a felony for members of an unlawful assembly to refuse to disperse on command of a magistrate.

James Stuart, or the Pretender, as he was generally called, was residing in France, and was encouraged by these disturbances to hope that an effort on his part to regain his father's throne would be successful. Bolingbroke knew the English people better, and urged him not to make the attempt, as it could only end in failure; but the pretender was as insensible to reason as his father had been, and ordered the Earl of Mar, the leader of his party in Scotland, to

set up the standard of revolt in that country. Mar obeyed him, and on the 6th of September, 1715, the standard of the pretender was raised in the highlands. Mar believed that his movement would be followed by a Jacobite rising in the west of England, but he was soon undeceived. A few north country Englishmen joined him, but the vigorous measures of the govern-

practically a victory for the king, as it stopped the progress of the rebels. On the same day the north country English Jacobites were defeated at Preston, and the insurrection was practically quelled. Towards the close of the year the pretender himself arrived in Scotland, but he found matters in such a hopeless state that he returned at once to France, taking with him the Earl



CARLISLE BRIDGE AND SACKVILLE STREET, DUBLIN.

ment prevented him from receiving any material assistance from England. The leading Jacobites were arrested, and the party was deprived of its leaders. Mar was incompetent and cowardly. He advanced into the low country, and was joined at Perth by 6,000 highlanders. On the 6th of November he was met at Sheriff-Muir by the royal forces under the Duke of Argyle. The result was a drawn battle, which was

of Mar, and leaving the rest of his partisans to their fate. The insurrection was a complete failure. The Earl of Derwentwater, Viscount Kenmure, and thirty other persons, all taken in arms, were put to death for their share in the rebellion.

In 1717 another and a different effort in favor of the pretender was made. Charles XII., King of Sweden, coveted the duchies of Bremen and Verden, which George I.

had purchased from Denmark and added to the electorate of Hanover. He undertook, by way of revenge for his loss of the duchies, to invade Scotland in connection with a Jacobite rising in that country. The conspiracy was promptly detected and crushed, and the contemplated invasion by Sweden was abandoned.

In 1716 Townshend and Walpole withdrew from the ministry, which passed under the control of Lord Stanhope. The house of commons had now become the ruling power of the kingdom, and in order to establish a proper basis for its influence, the parliament in 1716 passed a law making seven years the longest period for which a parliament could sit. The whigs were now pledged to a policy of peace in their dealings with foreign affairs, and by a faithful adherence to the treaty of Utrecht managed to carry out their pledges. England was growing rapidly in wealth and prosperity, and the sudden increase of her commerce was arousing a desire for speculative ventures among the people which boded no good to the nation. The most famous manifestation of this feeling was the speculation known as the *South Sea Scheme*. A company was organized under the name of the *South Sea Company*, which possessed a monopoly of trade to the Spanish colonies of South America. It engaged with the government to buy up certain annuities which had been granted during the reign of William and Mary, and in this way to reduce the national debt. The annuitants were to receive, in place of their claims upon the government, shares of the stock of the South Sea Company. The scheme became immensely popular; the value of the shares of the company increased tenfold. Walpole, a practical financier, warned the ministry and the country of the fictitious nature of the scheme, but to no purpose. The whole country went mad until 1720, when the South Sea bubble, and other kindred schemes that had sprung up in consequence of its success, exploded. A panic followed, and thousands of families were involved in the general ruin. The estates of the directors of the company were confiscated by parliament for the benefit of the sufferers, but the punishment was denounced by the infuriated people as too mild.

The explosion of the South Sea scheme drove the ministry of Lord Stanhope from power. In this emergency the king sum-

moned Walpole to the direction of affairs. Walpole was the ablest financier of the day, and his prescient warnings against the unhappy speculation had won him the confidence of the country. His administration is the longest in English history since the Revolution, and lasted twenty-one years. His policy was to discourage political activity, and to hold aloof from all continental questions that might draw England into a war with any of her neighbors. He devoted all his great abilities to the advancement of the material prosperity of England, and at the same time maintained her influence and honor abroad by his skill and firmness in negotiation. His measures were generally acceptable to the nation, and were followed by the happiest results, which the king in 1724 thus summed up: "Peace with all powers abroad; at home perfect tranquillity, plenty, and an uninterrupted enjoyment of all civil and religious rights." "Population was growing fast; that of Manchester and Birmingham doubled in thirty years. The rise of manufactures was accompanied by a sudden increase of commerce, which was due mainly to the rapid development of the colonies. Liverpool, which owes its creation to the new trade with the west, sprang up from a little country town to the third port in the kingdom. With peace and security, the value of land, and with it the rental of every country gentleman, tripled; while the introduction of winter roots, of artificial grasses, of the system of rotation of crops, changed the whole character of agriculture, and spread wealth through the farming classes. The wealth around him never made Walpole swerve from a rigid economy, from the steady reduction of the debt, or the diminution of fiscal duties. Even before the death of George the First the public burdens were reduced by twenty millions. But he had the sense to see that the wisest course a statesman can take in presence of a great increase in national industry and national wealth is to look quietly on and let it alone." Walpole did not rely upon the force of his genius for the success of his measures. While he was personally an honest man, he introduced into the management of English politics a general and most discreditable system of corruption. Parliament had its price, and it was regularly bought by Sir Robert Walpole whenever he deemed such a course necessary to the success of his plans.

On the 10th of June, 1727, George I. was seized with an attack of apoplexy, and died in his carriage on the road to Osna-brück. He was succeeded by his son, George Augustus, Prince of Wales, with whom he was on notoriously bad terms at the time, and who took the title of George II.

The new king was, like his father, a German by birth and in feeling. He was attached to his native dominions, and cared little for England. This partiality led him to consider the interests of Hanover rather than those of Great Britain, and induced him to interfere in continental politics, when he would have done better to let them alone. He was disliked by the English people. He was a dull, plodding man, very methodical, stubborn, passionate and stingy, but fond of war, and of unquestioned courage. He could speak English fluently, and in this respect possessed an advantage over his father. He was devoted to his wife, Queen Caroline, a Brandenburg princess, but, in spite of this, his private character was notoriously bad.

The king had hated his father and his father's friends, and greatly disliked Sir Robert Walpole. He was, however, entirely influenced by his clever wife, Queen Caroline, and she was resolved that Walpole should continue to direct the policy of the government. Strong in the favor of the queen, Walpole remained in power for ten years longer, during which time he exerted himself to keep England at peace. He had little to do at home for a while, for the Jacobites made no effort against the government, and the dissenters, who demanded the repeal of the test and corporation acts, were pacified by the passage each year of an act of indemnity for any breaches of these penal statutes. The most important measure of this period was an act of parliament requiring that all proceedings in courts of justice should be conducted in the English language.

Among the most unpopular taxes in the kingdom were the excise duties. In 1733 Walpole proposed to extend these duties, but his scheme aroused a bitter and determined opposition by the tories and the "patriots," as the discontented whigs were styled. These parties managed to make this opposition amount almost to a revolt. Riots were frequent, and Queen Caroline urged the minister to put down the resistance by force. Walpole was confident that his measures would result in benefit to

the nation, but with rare self-command withdrew the bill. "I will not be the minister," he said, "to enforce taxes at the expense of blood."

The king and the queen were both anxious to take part in the war of the Polish succession, but Walpole's firmness kept England clear of this struggle, and in 1736 England and Holland were able, by their joint intervention, to secure peace.

In 1737 Queen Caroline died, and the power of Walpole began to decline. The Prince of Wales, who hated his father, openly supported the "patriots," who were the declared enemies of the prime minister. England was tired of the long peace it had enjoyed, and the mercantile class was determined to push its contraband trade with the Spanish South American colonies. The treaty of Utrecht had limited this trade to the traffic in negro slaves and the annual visit of a single ship, but a large and steady smuggling trade with these colonies had been in existence for a number of years. Philip V. was very hostile to this trade, and after his accession Spain redoubled her efforts to put a stop to it. The Englishmen who were captured while engaged in it were severely punished by imprisonment, or the loss of a nose or ear, and upon returning home filled England with their stories of the cruelties inflicted upon them. They were regarded by their own people as martyrs for the freedom of commerce. The stories of these men roused the English nation to a fury which Walpole vainly endeavored to control. He was anxious that the states of western Europe should be at peace and in harmony at the death of the Emperor Charles VI., which was 'close at hand; but he was unable to contend against the national instinct that sooner or later a war with Spain was inevitable, and that it had better come at once. This time Walpole's statesmanship was at fault, and the national instinct was right. The family compact between Spain and France, to which we have referred elsewhere, had for its object the destruction of England's maritime supremacy, and both kingdoms were watching for a pretext to attack their rival. England, though ignorant of this compact at the time, anticipated it, and in 1739 Walpole was forced, greatly against his inclination, to consent to the rupture, and war was declared against Spain. The war was not, on the whole, either successful or profitable. Admiral Vernon captured Porto

Bello in the West Indies with his squadron of six ships, but this was the only substantial success of the war. A fleet was despatched under Commodore Anson to attack the Spanish settlements on the coast of Chili and Peru. It suffered frightful hardships, and was decimated by scurvy. Out of the entire fleet the flag-ship was the only vessel that returned home. Walpole's reluctance to engage in the war had made him very unpopular, and his enemies took advantage of this feeling to hold him responsible for the ill success of the struggle. For some time Walpole held his ground with determination, but early in 1742 he was able to command in parliament a bare majority of three in support of his measures, and resigned his office. He was at once created Earl of Orford by the king, who continued to consult him upon matters of state in preference to the new ministry, and took his seat in the house of peers. He devoted himself to restoring the unity of the whig party and breaking up the opposition.

In the meantime the general European war, which Walpole had long foreseen, had broken out and had involved England in it. In 1741 the Emperor Charles VI. died. We have related elsewhere his efforts to secure his dominions to his daughter Maria Theresa by a pragmatic sanction, and the origin and events of the war of the Austrian succession. It is not necessary to repeat them here. England took sides with Austria, and blockaded Cadiz with one fleet, while she sent another to Naples, and by threatening to bombard the city compelled Don Carlos to conclude a treaty of neutrality. By means of liberal subsidies she succeeded in withdrawing the King of Sardinia from his alliance with France. These results were mainly achieved during the ministry of Sir Robert Walpole, who aimed only at the preservation of the house of Austria. His successors in office, led by the new premier, Lord Cartaret, went further, and proposed as their object the ruin of the house of Bourbon.

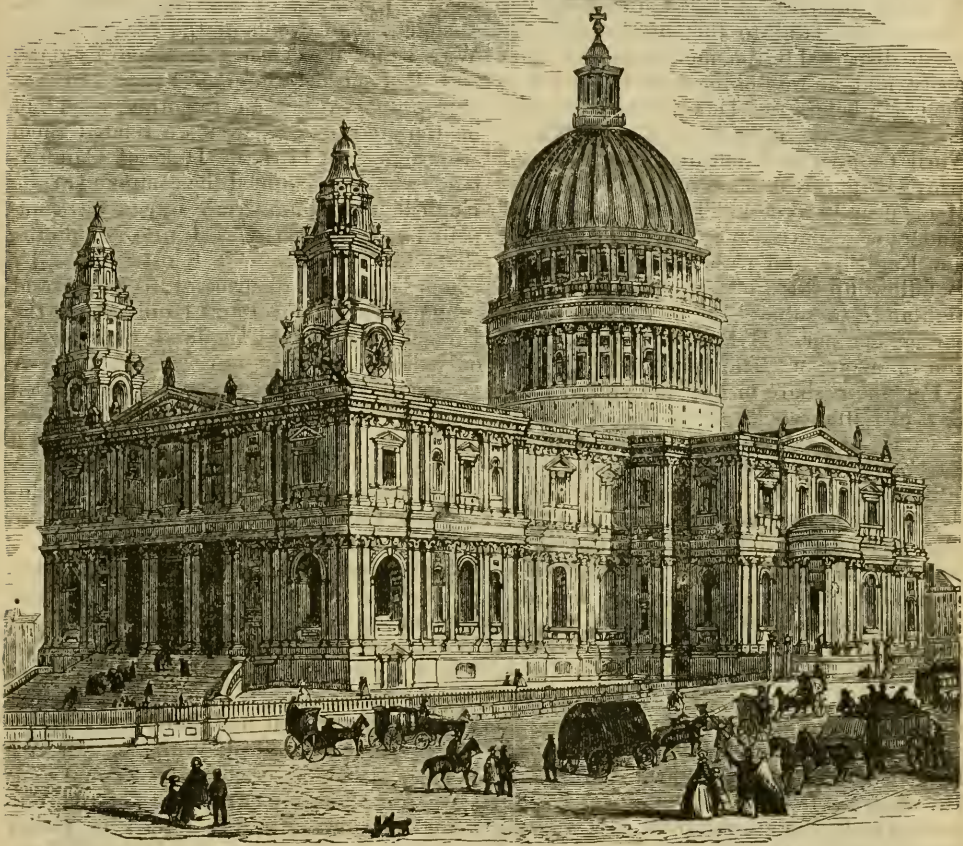
The policy of the new ministry met with a determined opposition, especially the employment of Hanoverian and Hessian troops by the King of England. William Pitt, the ablest leader and most gifted orator of the patriots, declared in the house of commons: "It is now too apparent that this powerful, this great, this mighty nation is considered only as a province to a despica-

ble electorate." In the summer of 1743 George II. joined his army in Germany, and after being forced back from the Main by the Duke de Noailles, won a victory over the French at Dettingen on the 27th of June. The victory was the barest escape from a defeat, and was due to the stubborn courage of the English troops. Its results were surprising. The French evacuated Germany, and the English and Austrian armies advanced to the Rhine. In the battle of Dettingen King George displayed great courage. In the battle of Fontenoy, fought on the 31st of May, 1745, the army of the Duke of Cumberland, composed of English, Dutch and Hanoverians, was defeated by the French under Marshal Saxe. The splendid courage and discipline of the English troops were never more gloriously displayed than upon this memorable field. The plan of Maria Theresa for the dismemberment of Prussia was coldly received by England. Even Lord Cartaret was startled by it. England, as we shall see, was threatened by a Catholic pretender, and could not for a moment entertain the idea of destroying the leading Protestant power of the continent. The more moderate members of the whig party were resolved to withdraw from the war, and make an accommodation with Frederick the Great. In pursuance of this policy Lord Cartaret was forced to resign in 1744, and Henry Pelham, the brother of the Duke of Newcastle, became the head of the ministry and the director of the policy of the government. Under his guidance England concluded with Prussia a treaty known as the Convention of Hanover, and in August, 1745, withdrew from the war as far as her participation in German affairs was concerned. In 1748 the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle closed the struggle. England made great sacrifices during this war, but, as has been stated in our account of the treaty, its substantial results were monopolized by Prussia and the empire.

Early in the war France attempted to weaken England by inciting a civil war in that country. Charles Edward Stuart, the grandson of James II., called the Young Pretender and the Young Chevalier, to distinguish him from his father, the Old Pretender, was invited by the French government to return to France, and an invasion of England by a French force, in his favor, was agreed upon. A fleet was despatched for this purpose in 1744, but

was scattered by a storm, after which the enterprise was abandoned. In 1745, however, the pretender embarked with seven followers in a small vessel, and landing first on one of the Hebrides islands, made his way to the highlands, where he set up his standard, and was joined by about fifteen hundred men. With these he set out for Edinburgh, his force increasing as he went.

the lowlands held aloof from his movement, and Charles could with difficulty persuade his troops to follow him southward. They at last consented to do so, and the army of the pretender crossed the border and pushed forward rapidly towards London. By the 4th of December it was at Derby. The march lay through the counties in which Jacobitism was supposed to be the control-



CATHEDRAL OF ST. PAUL—LONDON.

He entered Edinburgh in triumph, and proclaimed his father king, as James VIII. of Scotland. A force of 2,000 English troops advanced against him; but was defeated at Preston Pans on the 21st of September. This victory greatly elated the followers of the pretender, and his army was rapidly increased to about double its size at the time of the battle. While at Edinburgh some small supplies of arms and money were received from France. Charles Edward now found himself at the head of 6,000 highlanders. The people of

ling influence, but only a single man of property or influence joined Charles Edward, and scarcely two hundred men of the lower class entered his army. Even Manchester, the very stronghold of Jacobitism, gave him only two thousand pounds in money, but no men. The policy of Walpole, which had made the nation rich and prosperous, had won England for the house of Hanover, and Jacobitism existed only as a matter of tradition, and as a means of expressing political opposition to the government. The officers of the pre-

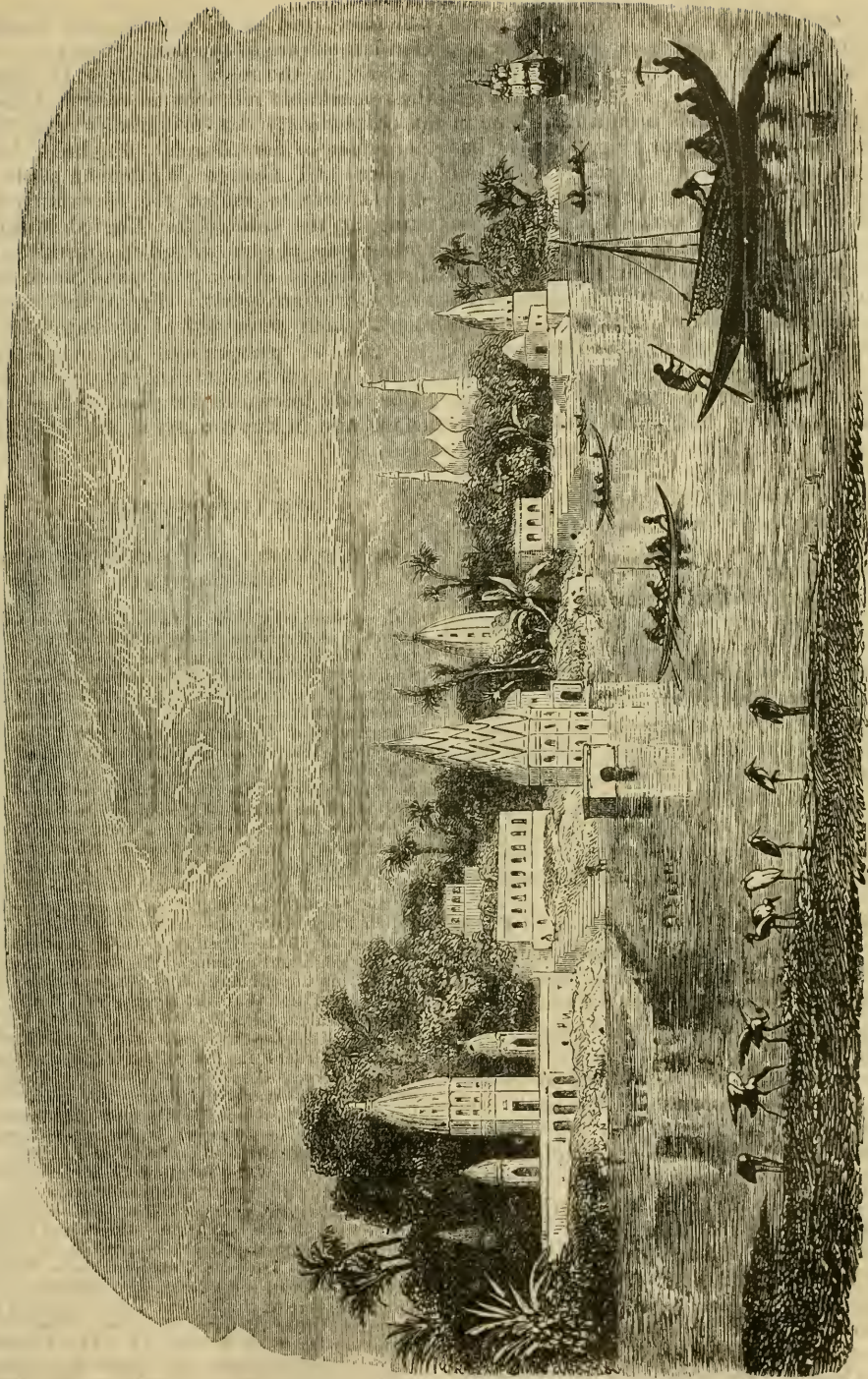
tender's army were thoroughly alarmed, and refused to continue their advance, and urged him to retreat into Scotland. He consented unwillingly, and fell back on Glasgow. Having managed to increase his army to 9,000 men, he marched against the English army under General Hawley, which had followed his retreat. A battle was fought at Falkirk on the 23d of January, 1746, and the English were defeated by the wild charge of the highlanders. The victory was fatal to the pretender. His troops dispersed to the mountains with their booty, and he was obliged to fall back to the north before the Duke of Cumberland, the king's favorite son. On the 16th of April Cumberland defeated the insurgent army, with great slaughter, at Culloden Moor, near Inverness. The wounded highlanders were put to death on the field by the English; and Cumberland proceeded to follow up his victory by reducing the highlands to submission in the most barbarous manner. His cruelties gained for him the name of "The Butcher."

For their share in this insurrection the Earl of Kilmarnock, Lords Balmerino and Lovat, Charles Radcliffe (brother of the Earl of Derwentwater, who had lost his life in behalf of the old pretender), and nearly eighty other persons were put to death. The pretender wandered about the highlands in disguise, hunted by the royal troops, for five months, and after many remarkable adventures escaped in a French vessel. By the terms of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle he was forbidden to reside in France, and the remainder of his life was spent in wandering over Europe, trying to raise men and money for another invasion. He at length became a confirmed drunkard. He died on the 30th of January, 1788, leaving no legitimate children. His younger brother, Henry Benedict, who was created Cardinal of York, died in 1807, and with him ended the house of Stuart.

The continent of North America was at this time divided between England and France. The encroachments of France upon the region claimed by England involved the two countries in a controversy, which, as we shall see elsewhere, resulted in a war for the possession of the Ohio valley. The war began in America and at sea some years before England and France came to blows in Europe. It opened with a series of disasters for the English, the most serious of which was the capture of the

island of Minorca by the French in 1756. Admiral Byng was despatched from Gibraltar to the relief of the garrison, but returned after a partial and indecisive encounter with the French fleet. He was court-martialed the next year, and was shot in the presence of the fleet, for his failure to relieve the garrison. England now made an alliance with her natural ally, Frederick the Great of Prussia, and thus secured the safety of her Hanoverian possessions. The events of the Seven Years' War, which now ensued between England and Prussia on the one hand, and the European coalition on the other, need not be repeated here, as we have related them elsewhere. In 1757 the Duke of Cumberland, who had assumed the command of the English and Hanoverian forces, was compelled, as has been related, to conclude the shameful convention of Kloster-Seven, by which he agreed to disband his forces, and relinquished Hanover and Brunswick to the French. Thus far England had reaped only disaster by her share in the war. A feeling of the deepest despondency settled upon the nation, which believed itself degenerate. This feeling was well expressed in the passionate exclamation of despair which these reverses wrung from the cold-hearted Lord Chesterfield: "We are no longer a nation."

The reverses of the war forced the king to dismiss the Duke of Newcastle, and appoint as prime minister the famous William Pitt. Pitt was the son of a wealthy governor of Madras, and had been in parliament since 1734. He was the first great statesman that had controlled English affairs since the fall of Walpole. In November, 1756, he was made secretary of state, but the early expeditions of the war being unsuccessful, was forced to resign four months later, and the Duke of Newcastle was recalled. In July, 1757, however, the king found it necessary to reappoint Pitt to the direction of the foreign policy of the government. A compromise was easily effected between Pitt and the Duke of Newcastle, by which Pitt obtained the control of the foreign policy of the kingdom, which was all he cared for, and left to the duke the task of managing the home politics, a task in which the latter had no rival. Pitt came into office with the determination to replace the power of England on its ancient footing. "I want to call England," he said, "out of that ener-



THE BANKS OF THE GANGES.

vate state in which 20,000 men from France can shake her." His policy was vigorous, and soon brought success with it. Frederick the Great recognized in him a kindred spirit. "England has been a long time in labor," said the Prussian king, "but she has at last brought forth a man." Pitt had this advantage over his contemporaries in England: he knew he was honest, and he believed in the truth of the principles he advocated. His strong, earnest nature, his scorn of the corruption which surrounded him, and which he disdained to engage in or profit by, excited the surprise and ill will of his contemporaries, who were both insincere and corrupt. He was too proud a man to stoop to their level, and his pride was of the kind that keeps a man in the path of right. His matchless eloquence gave him a control over the house of commons such as no other minister had ever enjoyed, and the unflinching courage with which he denounced the shams and hypocrisy of the period won him the confidence and affection of the English people, who named him the "Great Commoner." He did not seek popularity; it came to him as the result of his great services. At the height of his popularity he stood alone, with scarcely half a dozen personal followers. It was a corrupt age, and Pitt was a pure as well as a great man. He never lost sight of the fact that he was the leader of the English *people*, and he never betrayed the confidence they reposed in him.

Pitt began his career by giving to Frederick the Great a firm and hearty support. The result was a rapid and substantial change of fortune. The convention of Kloster-Seven was repudiated, and Frederick, sure of the assistance of England, aroused himself to extraordinary exertions, and won the victories of Rossbach and Leuthen. His exhausted treasury was rapidly refilled by the subsidies of England. In November, 1759, Admiral Hawke defeated the French fleet in a great battle off the coast of Brittany, and in September of the same year General Wolfe captured Quebec, and Canada passed into the hands of England, in which it has since remained. This was the most important result of the war, though its magnitude was scarcely realized even by Pitt himself. By winning North America for the English race Pitt changed the history of the world. His support of Prussia enabled that kingdom to preserve her inde-

pendence, and so paved the way for the German empire of the next century.

Early in the reign of George II. began the remarkable religious movement known as *Methodism*. Its originators were two clergymen of the Church of England, John Wesley and George Whitefield, and its objects were to reform the corruption existing at the time in the English Church and in general society, and to substitute for these national evils a purer and more earnest Christian spirit. From this movement, which struggled along painfully in the face of persecution and opposition during the century, sprang the great religious body known in England as the Wesleyans, and in this country as the Methodist Church.

CHAPTER VIII.

FROM THE REIGN OF GEORGE III. TO THE PRESENT TIME.

Death of George II.—George III. King—His Character—His Marriage—Resignation of Pitt—England Abandons Frederick the Great—War with Spain—Efforts of the King to Monopolize all the Powers of the State—Character of the House of Commons—The Freedom of the Press Secured—The American Revolution—England Loses her Colonies—War with Europe—Heroism of the English People—Battle of Cape St. Vincent—England Recognizes the Independence of the United States—End of the War—William Pitt the Younger becomes Prime Minister—Success of his Policy—Rapid Growth of England in Prosperity—Insanity of the King—The French Revolution—War with the French Republic—Defeat of the Spanish Fleet off Cape St. Vincent—The Dutch Fleet Destroyed—Battle of the Nile—The English in India—History of their Conquest of India—England Supreme in the Mediterranean—Attack on Copenhagen—The Peace of Amiens—Renewal of the War—Pitt Recalled—Battle of Cape Trafalgar—Death of Lord Nelson—Battle of Austerlitz—Death of Pitt—Fox Prime Minister—The Orders in Council—The Berlin and Milan Decrees—Abolition of the Slave Trade—Progress of the War with France—The Peninsular War—Victories of Lord Wellington—Madness of George III.—The Prince of Wales made Regent—Battle of Waterloo—Condition of England at the Close of the War—Death of the King—Union of Ireland with Great Britain—George IV.—Harsh Treatment of Queen Caroline—England Abandons the Holy Alliance—Intervenes in Behalf of Greece—Ministry of the Duke of Wellington—The Catholic Emancipation—Daniel O'Connell—Death of George IV.—William IV. King—Passage of the Reform Bill—Abolition of Slavery—Other Reform Measures—The First Railroad—Death of William IV.—The Princess Victoria becomes Queen—Separation of England and Hanover—Marriage of the Queen—The Quadruple Alliance—The Repeal of the Corn Laws—The Chartist—The Crimean War—The Palmerston Ministry—The Reform Bill of 1867—The Gladstone Ministry—The Appeal to the Country

—Disraeli Premier—Affairs in India—The War with China—The Indian Mutiny—India Made Subject to the British Crown—The Abyssinian War—Settlement and Growth of Australia—The Ashantee War—Capture of Coomassie—The Famine in India—Visit of the Prince of Wales to India—Queen Victoria Proclaimed Empress of India.

ON the 25th of October, 1760, George II. died suddenly of heart disease at Kensington. His eldest son, Frederick, Prince of Wales, having died nine years before, he was succeeded by his grandson, George Frederick William, Prince of Wales, who took the title of George III.

The new king was the first sovereign for several reigns who had been born on English soil. He had received a passable education, was a man of pleasing address and



GEORGE III.

of good intentions. He came to the throne with the determination to rule his kingdom, and he was more responsible for the policy of his reign than any sovereign of his house had been before him. He was a man of good morals, and of naturally small mind, with no capacity for using greater minds than his own for the accomplishment of his designs. He hated and was jealous of the great men of his kingdom, and was resolved that no measures but those of his own conception or adoption should be put in force while he held the throne. He wished to govern his kingdom in actual fact, as well as in name, and to be free from the dictation of political parties. In the pursuit of his ends, which were always clearly defined, though often most unwise, he was as stubborn as a man could be. The utter failure of the Jacobite cause had left the tory party free to take an active part in English politics once more, and they now came forward to the support of the king with the same zeal they had manifested in behalf of the Stuarts. They constituted a "King's Party," which George III. was able to strengthen by a judicious bestowal of the

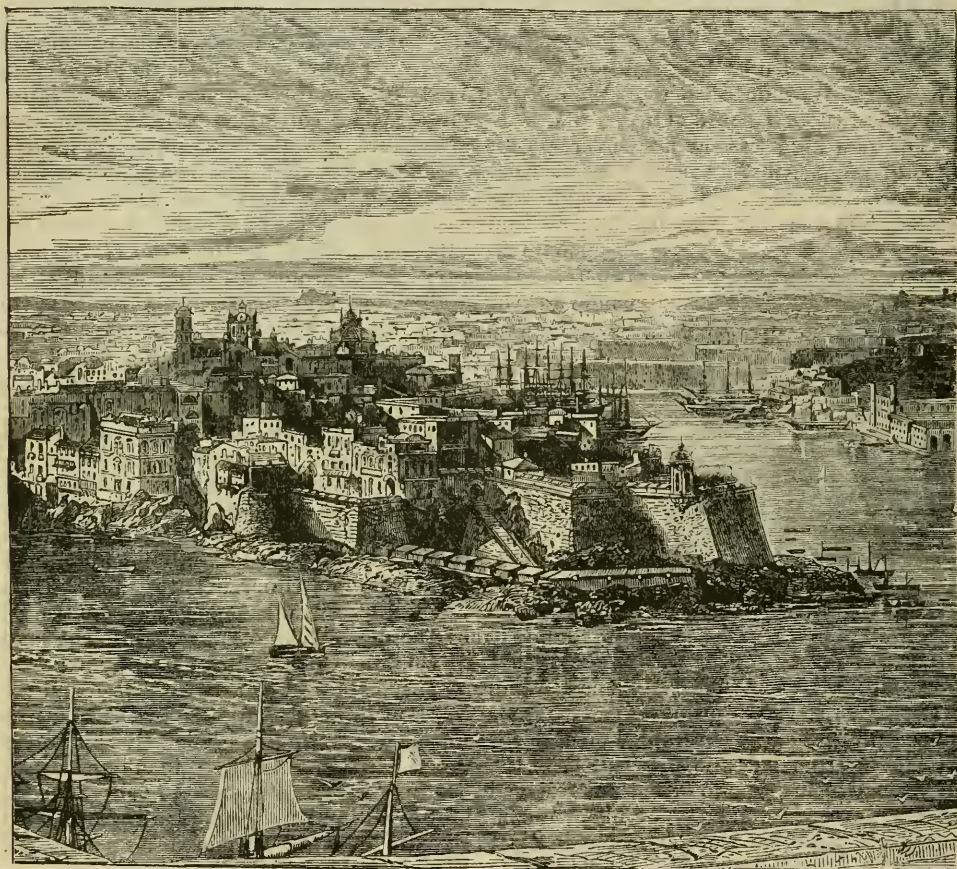
patronage still left in his hands. About a year after his accession to the throne, George married the Princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz.

The king was anxious to bring the war to a close. The chief obstacle to the peace at any price policy of the crown was William Pitt, the prime minister. Pitt would not consent to desert Prussia, although that step would bring about an immediate settlement with France. Having learned of the conclusion of a new family compact between France and Spain, he proposed in 1761 to declare war against the latter power. His colleagues shrank from such a measure, and the king opposed it with such firmness that Pitt resigned his office. The king then drove the Duke of Newcastle from office by a series of studied insults, and placed at the head of the ministry the Marquis of Bute, a man of no ability, but who was perfectly prepared to carry out the king's will, which was simply to withdraw England from the war at any sacrifice of the national honor. In the spring of 1762 England withdrew her subsidies from Prussia, and Frederick was left to save himself as he could. His own resolution and the sudden change in the policy of Russia at the death of the Empress Elizabeth were all that enabled him to end the war with credit to himself and without the loss of territory. Three weeks after the fall of Pitt his policy was vindicated by the declaration of war against England by Spain. Cuba and the Philippines were quickly captured by a British fleet, and the war was brought to a close by the treaty of Paris in September, 1763. By this treaty Great Britain retained Canada and Nova Scotia. France renounced her right to establish military settlements in India. Great Britain regained Minorca and obtained Florida from Spain.

The king's anxiety for peace abroad was caused by his desire to give his undivided attention to the task of bringing the home affairs of his kingdom under his own control. He proposed to accomplish this to a great degree through the house of commons. That body had long since ceased to represent the English people. It was made up principally of the representatives of boroughs which were controlled by the great nobles, who returned whom they pleased, and some of which like Old Sarum had long ceased to exist. The English people were so far deprived of the

power of choosing representatives to parliament that out of 8,000,000 Englishmen, only 160,000 possessed the right of suffrage. Seats in the house of commons were openly bought and sold, the will of the owner of the borough always deciding the election. Great towns like Manchester or Birmingham had no representatives at all in the commons. The king exerted himself to increase his party in the house

ances which continued through the early years of George III. The public indignation rose so high, that Lord Bute, who was its chief object, was obliged, in 1763, to resign his office. The king, greatly against his will, appealed to Pitt to form a new ministry, but the latter would consent only upon terms which the king would not submit to. The Marquis of Rockingham was therefore intrusted with the formation of a



THE CITY AND HARBOR OF LA VALETTA, MALTA.

of commons by purchasing seats for his supporters. The royal revenue was also used to buy votes in the house. "Under Bute's ministry an office was opened at the treasury for the bribery of members, and £25,000 are said to have been spent in a single day."

In the face of such corruption, conducted upon a scale unparalleled in English history, the nation found itself helpless. Its indignation was expressed in a constant discontent, and in numerous public disturb-

new ministry. One of the first acts of the controlling clique of this ministry was to quarrel with the press, which had undertaken to champion the cause of the greatly wronged people of England. The press had become the recognized court of appeal from the decisions of the corrupt house of commons, and ventured to criticise the acts of that body and of the crown with a vigor which incensed both the king and parliament. It was the press which drove Lord Bute from the ministry. John Wilkes, the

editor of the *North Briton*, in 1763, denounced the peace of Paris with great bitterness, and attacked one of the ministers by name. Wilkes was a man of contemptible character, and but for the mistake of the ministers would have died in obscurity. The government caused him to be arrested, and tried for libel. Wilkes was discharged by the Court of Common Pleas, and obtained damages against the government for its arbitrary treatment of him. His cause was espoused by the majority of the English people, who regarded their liberties as violated in his person, and the result of the proceedings against him established the right of the press to discuss political affairs. In spite of this display of popular sentiment, the government unwisely continued its persecution of Wilkes. He was dismissed from parliament, of which he was a member, and compelled to fly from England. His partisans re-elected him to parliament from the county of Middlesex, but he was refused a seat, though returned three times. The government attempted to extend its rigors to the press of the whole country, and roused such a storm of opposition that it was forced to abandon its illegal position. Six years later the government undertook to prosecute the publisher of the "Letters of Junius," but the prosecution failed, and from that day the freedom of the press was secure in England.

The same recklessness which had led the government into its attempt to muzzle the press now induced it to undertake to extend its arbitrary power over its American colonies. The king claimed the right to levy a tax upon the colonies for the purpose of assisting in defraying the expense of their protection. The colonies, on their part, denied this right. This dispute gave rise to a quarrel which resulted in a war between Great Britain and her colonies, and in the successful establishment of their independence by the latter, under the name of the United States of America. We shall relate the causes and events of this war in the American history of this period. In 1778 France, which had long sought an opportunity to be revenged upon England for the loss of Canada, made an alliance with the United States, and assisted them with men and money. In 1779 Spain joined France against Great Britain, and laid siege to Gibraltar, which for three years and seven months was gallantly defended by General Elliott against the com-

bined forces of France and Spain. In 1780, finding that Holland was about to assist the Americans, England declared war against her. Russia, Denmark, and Sweden joined in an armed neutrality to compel England to abandon her claim to the right to search neutral vessels at sea in time of war. The whole world was now united against England, but she held her own at sea. Never in all her history was the heroic determination of her people to uphold the national honor more strikingly manifested. Even Ireland turned against England. A force of 80,000 armed Protestant volunteers had been raised in Ireland for the defence of that island. These now demanded an independent parliament, and threatened to enforce their demand with arms. It seemed that England would be driven into a dishonorable peace, as, indeed, she would have been had she not been rescued from her humiliating position by the victories of her navy. Admiral Sir George Rodney in 1782 encountered the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, and annihilated it. Only four of its vessels escaped into Cadiz harbor. He then sailed to the West Indies, where, on the 12th of April, 1782, he destroyed the French fleet under Count de Grasse. In September the French and Spanish fleets were defeated off Gibraltar, and the war was brought to a close. In November the treaties of Paris and Versailles were signed. England yielded nothing to France; but restored Minorca and Florida to Spain, and acknowledged without reserve the independence of the United States. Canada, the Hudson's Bay country, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Newfoundland were still retained by England.

In March, 1782, the ministry of Lord North, which had conducted the war, was driven from power, and was succeeded by a whig ministry under the Marquis of Rockingham, by whom the war was brought to a close. With this ministry there arose a new power in the house of commons in the person of William Pitt, the younger, the son of the Earl of Chatham. He soon took rank as one of the leaders of the whigs, sharing this distinction with Charles James Fox. He was a man of gigantic ability, and by far the first statesman of England in his day. He was his father's inferior as an orator, but his superior in many other qualities, especially in his power of self-command, his immense capacity for business, and his untiring industry. At the

age of twenty-five, A. D. 1783, he became prime minister, and even the king yielded to his sway. He was supreme in England as no minister had ever been before him. He was incorruptible, too proud to accept a bribe, and honestly sought the welfare of his country. He chose for himself the post of first lord of the treasury, and exerted his great genius to advance the material wealth and industry of England. His measures were successful, and under his rule England began that wonderful march of prosperity

the borough system, but his bill for this purpose was defeated by parliament, which was too deeply wedded to its system to abandon it. His financial measures were eminently successful. He put a stop to smuggling by lowering and finally removing the duties, and so wise were his measures that the revenue increased with each successive removal of taxes. Credit was restored, and in two years there was a surplus of a million of pounds in the treasury. Pitt exerted himself to do justice to Ireland,



BATTLE OF CAPE ST. VINCENT.

which has made her the chief manufacturing and commercial nation of the world. Canals were constructed between the prominent points of the kingdom, and England was covered with a network of splendid highways. The mining of coal was greatly increased, and that article became one of the principal exports of the kingdom. The manufacture of cotton, linen, and woollen goods advanced with wonderful rapidity. Large tracts of country were drained or cleared of wood, and added to the area of cultivated land. Pitt endeavored to abolish

which had been wretchedly misgoverned since the battle of the Boyne; and gave his hearty support to Wilberforce in his efforts to put a stop to the African slave trade. Both efforts were defeated; the former through the jealous dislike of the Manchester merchants and the Protestant faction in the Irish parliament; the latter through the hostility of the Liverpool slave merchants.

Pitt was left comparatively free to carry out his measures, for the king had been hovering for many years on the verge of

insanity, and in 1788 became totally insane. He recovered his reason at a later period, but had frequent attacks of insanity, which rendered him dependent upon his ministers.

In 1789 the Revolution began in France. England watched the events of that great contest with a deep interest, but without

republicans. Upon the receipt of the news of the execution of Louis XVI., the French envoy in London was ordered to quit England within eight days. On the 1st of February, 1793, the convention declared war against England. A British fleet was sent to Toulon to enable the royalists to



LORD NELSON.

seeking to interfere, as Pitt was anxious to leave the French to manage their own affairs in peace. The horrors which occurred in France aroused a feeling of deep indignation in England, and the upper and middle classes were outspoken in their denunciations of the excesses of the French

hold that city, but was forced to withdraw, as has been related. On the 1st of June, 1794, Admiral Earl Howe inflicted a severe defeat upon the French fleet in the channel. The land operations of the English have been related elsewhere. They were for the most part failures. Some of the allies of

Great Britain having withdrawn from the struggle, Pitt earnestly sought to make peace with France, but without success. The people were greatly discontented with the expenses of the war, which were increasing the public debt at a fearful rate, though the war itself was popular. Pitt had earnestly desired to avoid a war with France, as opposed to the best interests of England, but had not been able to resist the overwhelming desire of the aristocracy to punish the French republicans. The results of the

hopes. On the 14th of February, 1797, Sir John Jervis, with fifteen ships of the line, defeated a Spanish fleet of twenty-five ships of the line off Cape St. Vincent. On this occasion Commodore Horatio Nelson boarded and captured two of the enemy's ships. A little later, the English channel fleet, being ordered to put to sea, mutinied. The grievances of the sailors were enough to drive them to this act. The sailors demanded that an increase of pay should be secured to them by act of parliament, and



BOMBAY.

struggle justified his views. The repeated failures of the English threw the government and the nation into a fever of alarm, and even Pitt gave his consent to a series of harsh and arbitrary measures by which the government hoped to put down the popular discontent. The expenses of the war were felt on all sides, and in February, 1797, the Bank of England suspended specie payments.

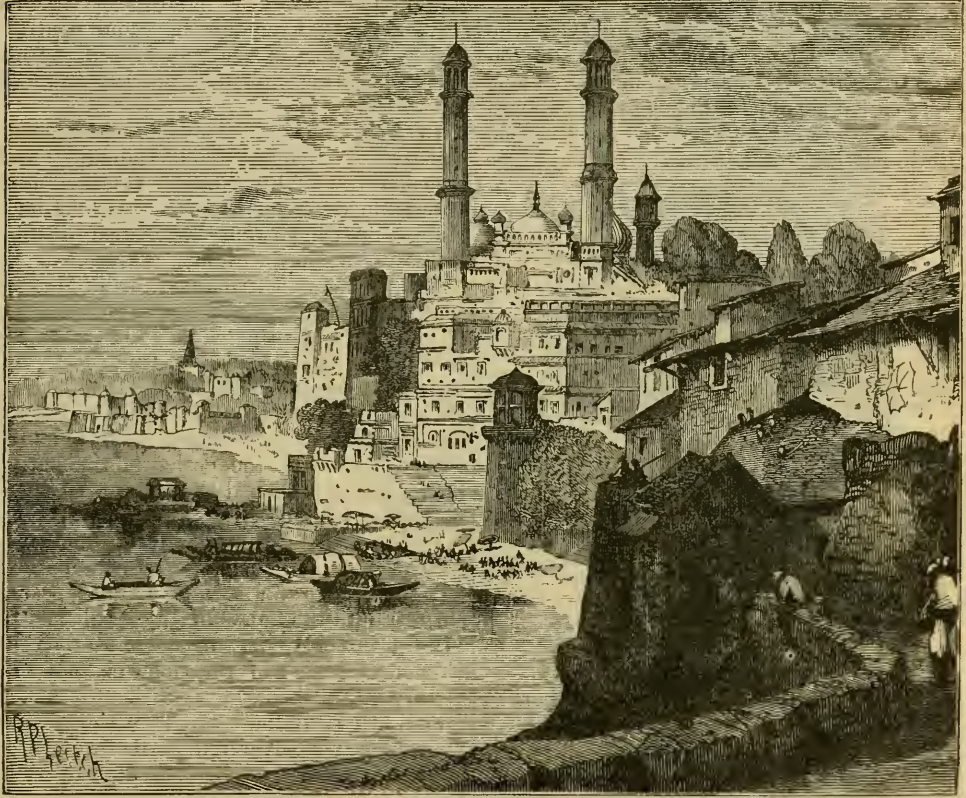
A change for the better in the fortunes of the war now roused the English to new

that they should receive a full pardon for their mutiny. Their demands were complied with, and on the 17th of May the fleet put to sea. On the 11th of October the sailors atoned for their mutiny by their gallant conduct in a great naval battle fought off Camperdown, between the English fleet, under Admiral Duncan, and the Dutch fleet, under Admiral Van Winter. The Dutch fleet was almost annihilated, after a most obstinate struggle. On the 1st of August, 1798, Admiral Nelson, the

greatest sailor of England, destroyed the French fleet in the great battle of the Nile, as has been related elsewhere. In the same year a small English force under Sir Sidney Smith held the town of Acre, in Syria, against the determined efforts of Napoleon Bonaparte to capture it.

During the last two centuries England had been building up an empire in the East. On the 31st of December, 1600, a charter of privileges was granted by parliament to a company of English merchants

three presidencies were organized, viz.: Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta. The principal of these was Calcutta, which was presented to the company by Aurungzebe. It was then a petty village, but under the rule of the East India Company grew to be a splendid city, and ultimately became the capital of the British possessions in India. The success of the English encouraged the French to attempt to obtain a footing in India, and they were able to establish two presidencies—Pondicherry and the Isle of



THE CITY OF BENARES, INDIA.

trading to the East Indies, and known as the East India Company. It obtained valuable privileges from the native sovereigns of India, and succeeded in building up an enormous and highly profitable trade between that country and England. For a century it confined itself to legitimate acts of commerce, and was satisfied to obtain merely sites for its forts and warehouses, which it defended against the hostile Mahrattas by small bodies of troops. By the close of the seventeenth century the territory of the company had grown so that

France. The Dutch also had two posts on the mainland of India, and had exclusive possession of the better part of Ceylon, and of the Spice Islands, Java, Celebes, Sumatra, and Malacca. They had also an agricultural colony at the Cape of Good Hope, in Africa, the possession of which was highly important to the retention of their possessions in India. By degrees the English managed to absorb the Indian possessions of the Dutch and the Portuguese, and were thus left with France as their only European rival in the East.

Having grown strong and great, the East India Company became ambitious of extending its dominions, and began to take part in the quarrels of the Mogul empire. The ruling race of this empire was Moham-medan; but the mass of the people held fast the ancient Hindu faith. This difference was the cause of unending troubles between the native chiefs, who sought the alliance of the English and French, who thus became involved in the Indian quarrels on opposite sides. Both parties were anxious to turn these alliances to their advantage, and the French conceived the idea of conquering India by means of native troops under European officers. These were called Sipahis, or Sepoys. The system was subsequently adopted by the English. Both parties were forced to employ these



SURAJAH DOWLAH.

troops, as it was impossible to transport to India, or maintain there, a sufficient force of Europeans. For a considerable period the hostility between the English and French in India exhibited itself in many petty acts, but it was not until the outbreak of the Seven Years' War in Europe that it assumed the character of a struggle for the sole possession of India. In 1746 the Governor of the Isle of France captured Madras; and Dupleix, the Governor of Pondicherry, captured the city of Arcot from the Prince of the Deccan, who was one of the native allies of the English. So rapid was the success of the French that it seemed they were about to become supreme masters of the peninsula. The tide of the English reverses was checked by the exertions of Robert Clive, a young officer in the service

of the company. He had come out to India as a clerk in one of the company's warehouses, but had believed himself worthy of better things. He was without military training, but he proved himself in his subsequent career not only a general of the highest merit, but a great statesman. With a force of 500 men he recaptured Arcot from the French, and held it against an army of 10,000 natives until relieved by the Mahrattas. For his gallant conduct he was rewarded with a lieutenant-colonel's commission. With a handful of recruits Clive kept the French at bay, and neutralized every effort of Dupleix to recover his losses, defeating him and his Indian allies in two engagements.

In 1757 Surajah Dowlah, the native Viceroy of Bengal, took Calcutta, and crowded 150 of his English prisoners into a terrible dungeon known as the "Black Hole." All but twenty-three died of suffocation in a single night. As soon as he heard the news Clive sailed from Madras with 1,000 Englishmen and 2,000 Sepoys. He retook Calcutta, carried Hooghly by storm, and on the 23d of June, 1757, defeated the army of Surajah Dowlah, consisting of 50,000 foot and 14,000 horse, in the decisive battle of Plassey. This victory completely broke the power of the native prince and established that of the English. So lasting were its effects that Clive is generally regarded as the founder of the British empire in India. The French dominion fell to pieces rapidly, and Bengal passed entirely into the hands of the English. In 1760 Colonel Coote defeated Lally, the French Governor of Pondicherry, and this victory established the British supremacy over southern India. The East India Company placed a sovereign of its own choice upon the throne of Bengal, and in 1765 Lord Clive was appointed Viceroy of India by the King of England. His policy was to confirm the English power in India at any cost, and, though his reign was marked by tyranny and oppression, it was a vast improvement upon that of the native princes, and was on the whole beneficial to India.

In 1773 the East India Company was re-organized, and Warren Hastings was appointed Governor-General of India. He continued the policy of Clive. During his rule Hyder Ali, the Sultan of Mysore, the most determined enemy of the English, was reduced to submission. Clive and Hastings



BATTLE OF PLASSEY.

were both charged with misgovernment by their enemies in India and England, and were tried before parliament, but were acquitted in view of their great and brilliant services.

In 1784 William Pitt procured the passage of an act of parliament changing the mode of governing India. Until then the company had had exclusive control of Indian affairs. A board of control, appointed by Great Britain, was now established, and charged with the government of India, in order that Indian affairs might be brought

to give up two of his sons as hostages. In 1799 he renewed the war with the English, and was killed in the defence of Seringapatam, his capital. During the latter years of the eighteenth century, under the governorships of the Marquis of Wellesley and the Marquis of Hastings, the English possessions in India were considerably extended and the English power strengthened.

The return of Napoleon from Egypt to France enabled England to complete the work of expelling the French from the East. On the 21st of March, 1801, after



HYDER ALI.

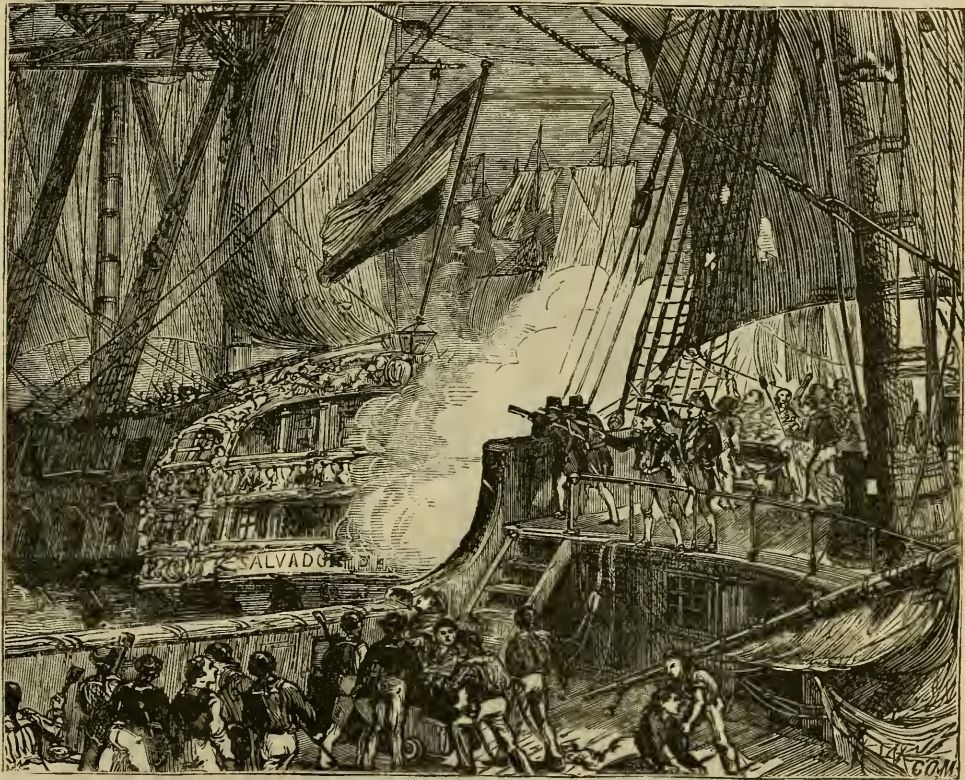
more directly under the management of the British parliament. Under the new system a more liberal and humane policy towards the natives began to prevail in the Indian government. Tippoo Saib, who succeeded to his father's crown of Mysore, and to his hatred of the English, kept up the war against them for a long time. The French, who hoped to recover their footing in India, lent him their aid. Lord Cornwallis, who became governor-general in 1786, waged a successful war against him; and in 1792 the sultan was forced to beg for peace, and

the death of Kleber, Sir Ralph Abercrombie inflicted a crushing defeat upon the French before Alexandria and compelled them to evacuate Egypt. By this success England secured her possessions in India, and prevented Turkey from becoming a dependency of France. Malta had already been wrested from the French, and England was now supreme in the Mediterranean. Her danger was very great, however. The treaty of Luneville had left her alone in the struggle with France, and a league of the northern powers, with Russia at its head, was determined to compel her to abandon her claim to the right to seize neutral vessels carrying contraband of war. In April, 1801, England struck a terrible blow at this coalition. A British fleet attacked Copenhagen, and after a desperate struggle silenced the Danish forts and captured the

larger part of the Danish fleet. Denmark was forced to withdraw from the northern coalition, and the league was soon broken up by the death of the Czar of Russia. All parties were now anxious for a cessation of hostilities, and in March, 1802, the peace of Amiens was concluded. By this treaty France agreed to withdraw from Italy and leave the newly established republics of that country to work out their own destiny. England, on her part, agreed to give up all her conquests except Ceylon, and to restore Malta to the Knights of St. John. This

treaty was not satisfactory to England, and would not have been made under the Pitt cabinet; but that great minister had withdrawn from the government in February, 1801, and had been succeeded by Mr. Addington, the speaker of the house of commons, a very dull man. No one believed it possible for the peace to be of long continuance, and as we have seen in our account of the French history of this period, to which the reader is referred for the causes of the struggle, war broke out again in May, 1803.

greatly broken in health, and the obstinacy of the king prevented him from receiving the co-operation of Fox, Lord Grenville, Wyndham, or Dundas, whom he was more than anxious to include in his cabinet. Still he addressed himself to the task before him with his old courage. In 1805 Napoleon, who had in the meantime become Emperor of the French, determined to begin the invasion of England, and conceived a skilful plan for dividing the British fleet and concentrating the entire French navy in the channel. By his alliance with Spain



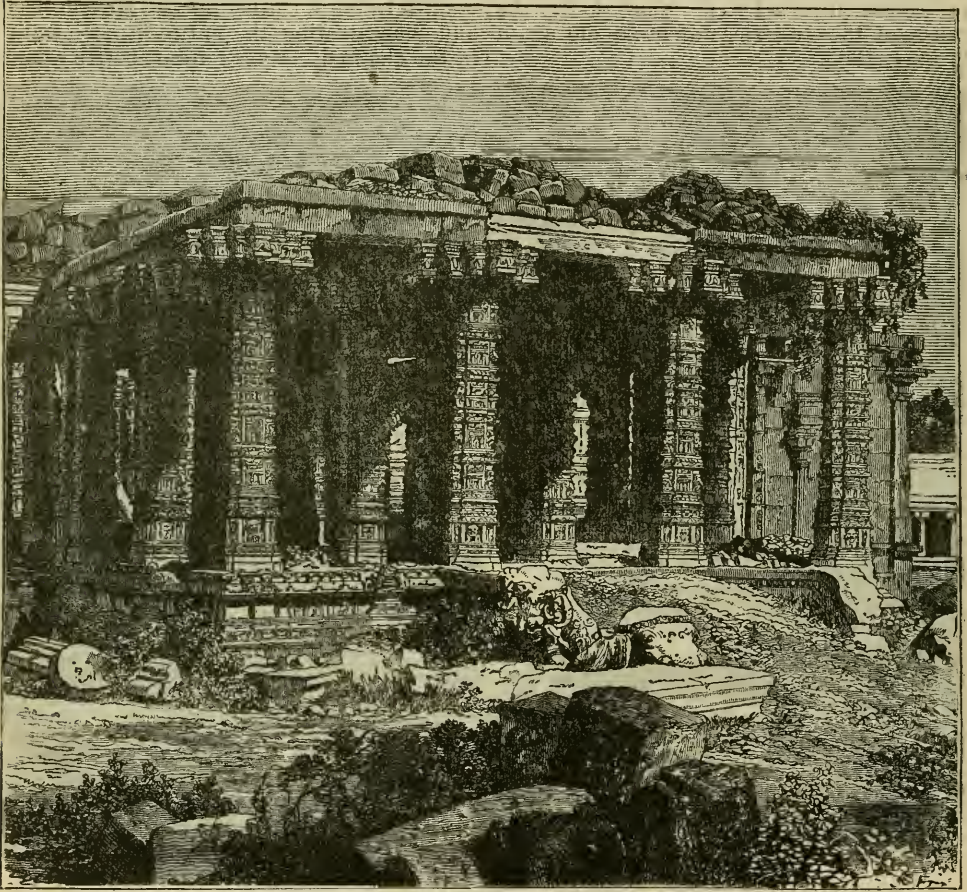
BATTLE OF CAPE TRAFALGAR.

Napoleon seized Hanover and collected a large army and a fleet of transports and boats at Boulogne for the invasion of England. The British government prepared to meet the threatened invasion, and at the same time sought to organize a new coalition against France on the continent. Nearly 400,000 volunteers enrolled themselves for the defence of England. In 1804 the Addington ministry resigned, and the peril of the country forced the king to recall William Pitt to power. He was

he had obtained the services of the Spanish fleet, and with this powerful armament he felt sure of protecting the passage of the channel by his army. The French fleet, under Admiral Villeneuve, sailed from Toulon, and effected a junction with the Spanish fleet at Corunna. Villeneuve then sailed to the westward, as if going to the West Indies, followed by the English fleet under Lord Nelson. Then suddenly putting about, he eluded the English and sailed for Brest, intending to unite with the

French squadron at that port and crush the English channel fleet. Nelson, upon the disappearance of the French, returned to the coast of Spain and encountered the combined French and Spanish fleets off Cape Trafalgar, on the 21st of October, 1805. He at once attacked them, signalling to the fleet his memorable order of the day, "England expects every man to do his duty." At the moment of victory

Russian army in the East. Breaking up his camp at Boulogne, he moved his army swiftly across France into Germany, and entered upon the memorable campaign of Ulm and Austerlitz, the events of which have been related in the French history of this period. The shock of Austerlitz was fatal to Pitt, who had long been failing in health. He died on the 23d of January, 1806, at the early age of forty-seven, a vic-



RUINS OF AN ANCIENT INDIAN TEMPLE.

he was shot down by a rifleman, and died soon after. The sacrifice of England's greatest sailor was not in vain; the French and Spanish fleets were annihilated.

Before this great victory had rendered the execution of his attempt upon England impossible, Napoleon had been forced to abandon his plan of invasion by the formation of the coalition of Austria, Russia, and England, and the gathering of the Austro-

tim to his extraordinary labors. His loss was felt to be irreparable.

The policy of Pitt, to save Europe from the ambition of France, was vigorously carried out by Mr. Fox, his successor. All internal questions were subordinated to this great end, and for a while all parties united in supporting the government in its efforts to accomplish it. In September, 1806, Fox followed Pitt to the grave, and on the 14th of October the decisive victory of

Jena laid Prussia and all north Germany at Napoleon's feet. This might have been prevented had England been prompt to assist Prussia in her unequal struggle with France.

England now ventured upon a step which was to draw upon her the condemnation of the world. The Grenville ministry, which succeeded the cabinet of Fox, declared the whole coast of Europe occupied by France and her allies, from Dantzic to Trieste, to be in a state of blockade. It was not possible for even "the mistress of the seas" to maintain such a gigantic blockade. Napoleon retaliated by an act equally indefensible. He issued decrees excluding all British commerce from the continent of Europe, hoping that this exclusion would involve British manufactures in ruin and so end the war. These decrees, dated from Berlin and Milan, ordered that all British exports should be seized wherever found, and that this seizure and confiscation should extend to all neutral vessels that had touched at British ports. In this way he hoped to strip England of her carrying trade, which would then pass into the hands of neutrals. To prevent this, orders in council were issued by the English government in January, 1807, requiring neutral vessels bound for any port of Europe subject to the blockade to touch first at some British port, under penalty of seizure. These decrees and orders in council were simply so many outrages upon the rights of neutral nations, and were destined to involve England ere long in a new war.

In February, 1807, the Grenville ministry procured the abolition of the slave trade by act of parliament, and England ceased to take part in that infamous traffic. This great work was accomplished in the face of a fierce opposition from the tory party and the merchants of Liverpool, the latter of whom were unwilling to give up the profits connected with the trade in human flesh and blood. Encouraged by this success, the ministers endeavored to remove the civil disabilities of Roman Catholic citizens, but upon the first intimation of their scheme were dismissed by the king.

A new ministry was formed under the Duke of Portland. Its leading spirit was the young foreign secretary, George Canning, an able and devoted disciple of Pitt. He came into office at a critical time. Napoleon, after the conquest of Prussia,

had marched into Poland, and though checked by his reverse at Eylau, had won the decisive victory of Friedland, by which Russia was forced to consent to the treaty of Tilsit. The Emperor Alexander now began to court the friendship of Napoleon in the hope of obtaining the assistance of France in the conquest of Turkey. Russia closed her ports to British commerce, and compelled Sweden to do likewise, and to renounce the English alliance. Russia and Sweden hoped to add Denmark to their league, and so obtain the services of the Danish fleet in their effort to destroy the maritime supremacy of England. Canning prevented the success of this scheme by secretly equipping a fleet in the summer of 1807, and despatching it to Copenhagen with a demand for the surrender of the Danish fleet into the hands of England, which power guaranteed its safe return at the close of the war. Denmark returned a spirited refusal to this demand, and Copenhagen was subjected to a terrible bombardment and forced to surrender. The whole Danish fleet, with an immense quantity of naval stores, was carried into English ports.

In spite of England's success at sea, however, Napoleon was supreme on the land, and carried out his designs on the continent without hindrance. He held Prussia down by force; changed Holland into a monarchy, and bestowed its crown upon his brother Louis; erected the electorates of Hanover and Hesse Cassel into the kingdom of Westphalia, which he gave to his brother Jerome; made his brother Joseph King of Naples, and annexed the remainder of Italy, even including Rome, to the French empire. Emboldened by this success, he now sought, as we have seen, to make himself master of the Spanish peninsula, and in his attempt to execute this design met his first great check. Spain was soon overrun, and Portugal would have shared its fate had not Great Britain come to her assistance with a small but excellent army under Sir Arthur Wellesley and Sir John Moore. The events of the peninsular war have been related in our history of Napoleon's campaigns, and we shall not repeat them here. After the death of Sir John Moore the chief command of the British forces in the peninsula passed to Sir Arthur Wellesley, whose able conduct of the war soon showed him to be one of the first soldiers of modern times. The French were driven out of Portugal, but Moore's unhappy fate gave them an additional

advantage in Spain. While Napoleon was occupied with his struggle against Austria, Wellesley successfully held his own against the French in Spain, and won for himself a peerage as Lord Wellington.

In July, 1809, a force of 40,000 English soldiers was sent to capture Antwerp, but the expedition failed, fully half of the English troops perishing in the marshes of Walcheren. This disaster brought about the fall of the Portland ministry. It was succeeded by a new cabinet under the guidance of Spencer Perceval, a man of no ability, but who, with his colleagues, was resolved to continue the war. The struggle in the peninsula was prosecuted with vigor, and if the English won their way slowly, they advanced steadily, as we have seen, toward the French frontier. The necessities and disasters of the Russian campaign greatly weakened the French army in Spain, and simplified the task of Lord Wellington accordingly. During the greater part of 1811 Wellington remained comparatively inactive, as the unsettled state of affairs at home prevented him from receiving the vigorous support he needed. In 1813 he drove the French out of Spain, and crossed the Pyrenees after them. On the 10th of April, 1814, he fought the battle of Toulouse with Marshal Soult, and brought the war to a close.

In the meantime George III. had been seized with a return of his insanity in the early part of 1811, and the Prince of Wales had been declared regent by act of parliament. The prince regent was strongly inclined to the whig party, and was anxious to replace the Perceval cabinet with a ministry of that party. In March, 1812, Mr. Perceval was assassinated by a lunatic named Bellingham, and the prince regent sought to recall the whigs to power. He was defeated in this attempt, and the old ministry, with Lord Liverpool at its head, was restored to office.

During the latter part of the European war England had been drawn into another struggle. The decrees of Napoleon and the orders in council of Great Britain had nearly ruined the commerce of America, and, after vainly endeavoring to obtain a revocation of them, the United States, on the 3d of June, 1812, declared war against Great Britain. We shall relate the events of this war in the American history of this century. It was closed in December, 1814.

The return of Napoleon from Elba induced the allies to make extraordinary

efforts for his destruction. An English army was sent to the frontier of the Netherlands to unite with the Prussian army under Marshal Blucher, which was advancing on the lower Rhine, and England furnished a subsidy of eleven millions of pounds to defray the cost of the war. As we have seen, the decisive blow was struck by the English under the Duke of Wellington, to whose exertions and skill the overthrow of Napoleon at Waterloo was due. In the final settlement of the affairs of Europe England played a prominent part—an influence to which the great sacrifices and tremendous efforts she had made to defeat Napoleon fully entitled her. The conquests which she retained at the end of the war were the Cape of Good Hope; the Dutch possessions in Ceylon; Berbice and the other Dutch settlements in Guiana; the islands of Mauritius and the Seychelles, which were captured from the French; the islands of Malta and Heligoland, the latter of which had been wrested from Denmark, and some West India islands which had been taken from France and Spain.

The peace of 1815 left Great Britain feverish and exhausted. The national debt had increased to about \$4,000,000,000, and the heavy taxation to which the country had been subjected had produced general distress. The long years of strife that had ensued since the accession of Napoleon to power had impoverished the continent also, and had destroyed the market for English manufactures. An excess of production in the last years of the war had crowded the English manufactories with unsalable goods, and had put a stop to the demand for skilled labor. A series of bad harvests produced great scarcity, and this evil was greatly increased by the selfish legislation of the landowners in parliament, who procured the passage of an act prohibiting the importation of foreign corn until wheat had reached famine prices. The sudden return of the large body of men employed in the army and navy to the pursuits of peace added greatly to the existing troubles, which in 1816 reached their highest point. The *Luddites*, a society of workmen organized in 1812 to resist the introduction of machinery into the mills, now broke out into a series of outrages and riots which gave the government great trouble. In the midst of these dissensions George III., old, blind, and insane, died at Windsor Castle on the 29th of January, 1820.

One of the chief events of the reign of George III. was the union of Ireland with Great Britain, the relation of which we have deferred until now in order not to interrupt of Irish affairs was controlled by a selfish clique, who oppressed the remainder of the people so grievously that the country sank rapidly into poverty. Pitt made vain en-



THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

the history of other events. In 1782 Ireland obtained the independence of its parliament. It thus ceased to be dependent upon Great Britain, though remaining subject to the same king. The administration deavors to break down this clique and do justice to Ireland, but was defeated. At length an association of "United Irishmen" took up the wrongs of the country, opened a correspondence with France, and finally

rose in insurrection in 1796 and 1797, being goaded to this step by the lawless cruelty of the Orange yeomanry and the English

1st of January, 1801, Ireland was formally united to Great Britain. From this time the Irish parliament was discontinued, and



CHARGE OF THE ENGLISH CAVALRY AT WATERLOO.

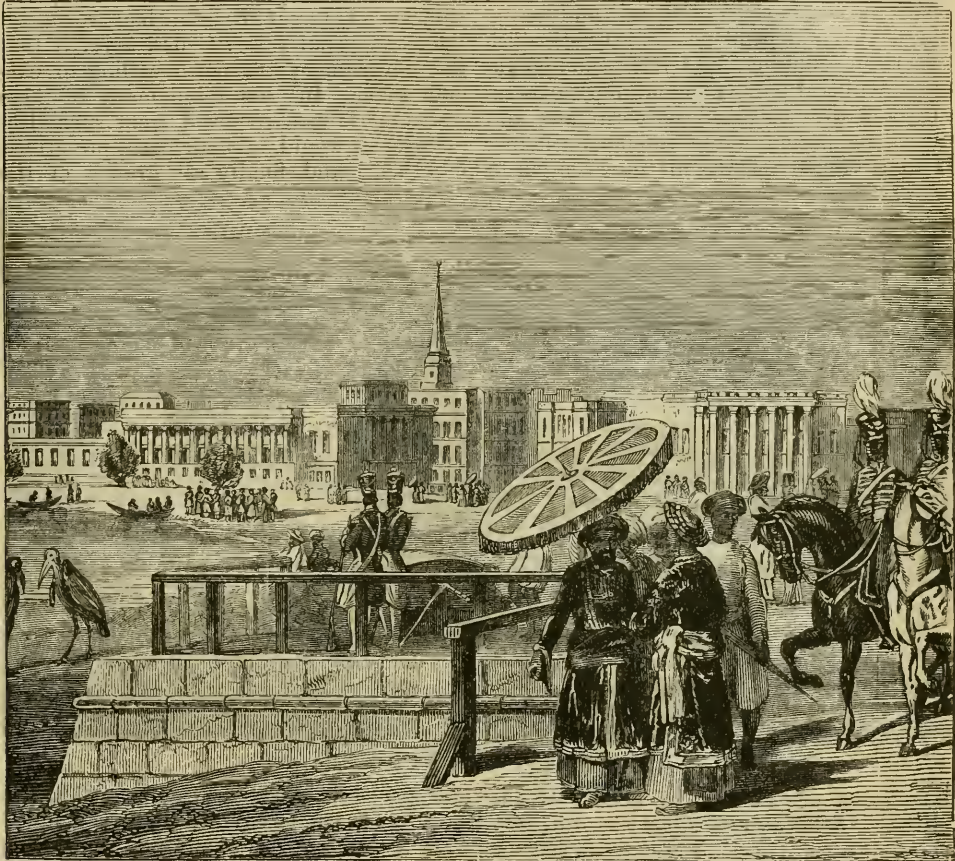
troops. Several expeditions were sent to their assistance from France, as we have already seen. They were finally defeated; the insurrection was put down, and on the

the Irish representatives were sent to the British parliament.

Upon the death of George III., his son, the prince regent, ascended the throne as

George IV. He was exceedingly unpopular, and, as he had been at the head of the government for the last ten years, his accession to the crown gave no hope of a change of affairs. Within a month after his accession a plot was discovered by the police, known as the Cato street conspiracy, which had been formed by a number of desperate men, with Arthur Thistle-

into parliament by the ministry to divorce and degrade Queen Caroline on charges of misconduct. The queen was as popular with the people as her husband was odious to them, and their bitter resentment of the attack upon her forced the house of lords to abandon the bill. The king, less sensitive to public opinion, resolved to oppose her coronation as his wife, and in this step



VIEW IN CALCUTTA.

wood at their head, for the assassination of the whole ministry. Thistlewood and four of his accomplices were hanged.

George IV., when still Prince of Wales, had been induced by his father to marry his cousin Caroline, Princess of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel. The marriage took place in 1795. The prince soon separated from his wife, and charged her with infidelity to him. His first act after becoming king was to renew this charge in the most public manner, and to cause a bill to be brought

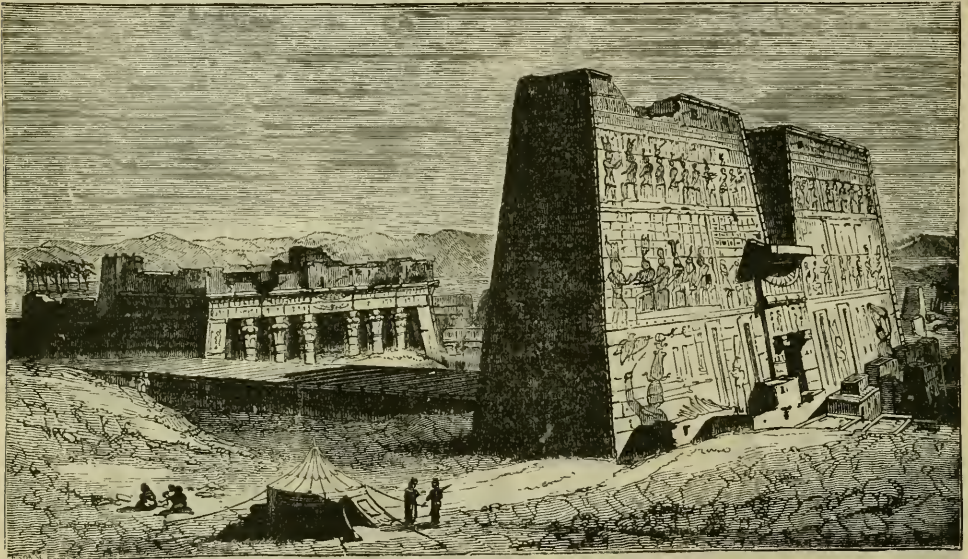
was supported by the privy council. The queen was equally determined to maintain her rights, and on the morning of the day appointed for the coronation presented herself at the doors of Westminster Abbey, but was refused admission. This humiliation was fatal to her; she was taken ill, and died August 7th, 1821.

In 1822 Lord Castlereagh, who had become Marquis of Londonderry, and who had for some time directed the foreign policy of Great Britain, committed suicide, and his place was filled by Mr. Canning.

Under this able leader England pursued a more independent course than had marked her policy since the downfall of Napoleon. His first act was to withdraw the support of England from the Holy Alliance, and to assert the principle of the right of each nation to manage its affairs without foreign interference. In accordance with this doctrine Canning aided Portugal in 1826 to resist the aggressions of Spain, and recognized the independence of the Spanish American republics. At home he inaugurated a liberal policy, which afterwards resulted in the repeal of the corn laws and the emancipation of the Roman Catholics. His last official act was his intervention in

Lord Goderich, which had succeeded Canning's cabinet. It was forced to resign in 1828, and was succeeded by a purely tory ministry under the Duke of Wellington.

The new ministry reaped the honor of inaugurating an important measure of reform which was the outgrowth of the work begun by Pitt and Canning. Until the reign of George III. the Roman Catholic subjects of Great Britain had remained liable to penal laws of such severity that the government was never willing to execute them. In that reign many of these restrictions were removed from such Romanists as would take an oath prescribed for them, and finally all grades of the



HINDOO TEMPLE AT REMISERAM.

the affairs of Turkey in behalf of the Greeks. A treaty was signed for this purpose by Great Britain, France, and Russia. Canning hoped that this formidable alliance would induce Turkey to desist from the cruelties she had been practising upon the helpless Greeks, and that the revolt would be quieted without further bloodshed. His hope was not realized. After his death in 1827 the Egyptian fleet was ordered by Turkey to devastate the Morea and carry off the inhabitants as slaves. This fleet was encountered on this mission by the allied English, French and Russian fleet, under Admiral Codrington, in the bay of Navarino, on the 20th of October, 1827, and was utterly annihilated. This blow at Turkey was not popular with the English people, and was fatal to the ministry of

military and naval service were thrown open to them. They were still excluded from both houses of parliament and from certain civil offices and privileges by the oath of supremacy and the declarations required of them against the doctrine of transubstantiation, the sacrifice of the mass, and the invocation of the saints. Pitt, as we have seen, attempted to remove these disabilities, but the king firmly refused to allow the question to be opened. Canning attempted to secure the same object, but died too soon. The accession of the ministry of the Duke of Wellington greatly dampened the hopes of the Catholics; but they were soon revived by the sudden display of strength by the Irish Catholics, who elected Daniel O'Connell, a popular politician, to a seat in parliament. O'Connell



MARRIAGE OF QUEEN VICTORIA.

was sustained by the entire Catholic population of Ireland, and demanded the removal of the disabilities of his coreligionists, threatening civil war as the alternative. The danger was very great, and the Duke of Wellington brought in a bill which he declared was the only means of averting civil war, and which admitted Romanists to parliament and to all civil and military offices under the crown, save those of regent, lord chancellor in England and Ireland, lord lieutenant of Ireland, and some others. The bill passed both houses of parliament, and received the royal assent on the 13th of April, 1829. In 1828 another reform was accomplished in favor of the Protestant dissenters by the repeal of the laws requiring all persons taking office to receive the holy communion according to the forms of the established church.

On the 26th of June, 1830, George IV., who had passed the last years of his life in seclusion at Windsor Castle, died. His only child, the Princess Charlotte, being dead, he was succeeded by his brother William Henry, Duke of Clarence, who became king as William IV. He had passed his early life in the navy, and was totally without political experience. He came to the throne at a time of great trouble. The popular discontent was very deep, and expressed itself in the burning of farm-ricks and the breaking of machinery. On all sides there was a demand for parliamentary reform. The French revolution of 1830, which drove Charles X. from the throne, gave great encouragement to the friends of reform in England. The king was personally in favor of the movement, but the Duke of Wellington refused all concession. The duke's refusal drove him from office, and a whig ministry—the first in twenty years—under Earl Grey, came into power. There was great need of reform. New towns, some of them among the wealthiest and most powerful in the kingdom, had sprung up, but were without representation in parliament; while the ancient but extinct boroughs, some of which contained but a mere handful of inhabitants, returned members to the house of commons. Such boroughs were generally the property of some large landowner, who controlled the elections to suit himself, and sold his influence openly. Most of the small towns were controlled by a clique, which could be bought and sold. William Pitt had several times attempted to reform these evils, but

without success. The aristocratic opposition to him was too strong to be overcome. In 1816 the cheap publications of William Cobbett, which advocated a total reform of this system of abuses, revived the cry for parliamentary reform, and the demand for it had steadily increased in strength until it had now become too powerful to be resisted. On the 1st of March Lord John Russell, of Earl Grey's cabinet, brought in a bill for parliamentary reform which deprived fifty-six decayed boroughs of representation, and gave the 143 members they returned to counties or large towns which as yet had no representatives in parliament, established a £10 household qualification for voters in boroughs, and extended the county franchise to leaseholders, copyholders, and tenant occupiers of premises of certain values. The bill was defeated by the opposition, and the ministers appealed to the country. Parliament was dissolved, and a new election ordered. A new house of commons was returned, overwhelmingly in favor of the reform bill. This house passed the measure and sent it up to the house of lords, by which it was rejected. The excitement which followed this rejection was general and intense throughout the country. Riots and incendiary fires occurred at Derby, Nottingham, and Bristol in the autumn of 1831. A third reform bill was introduced by the ministry and was passed by the house of commons. The lords, warned by the disturbed state of the country, withdrew their opposition, and the measure became a law on the 7th of June, 1832.

The reform parliament—the object of so many hopes and fears—met on the 29th of January, 1833. It passed several important acts, but its violence—especially that of the great Irish agitator, O'Connell—went far to justify the fears of its enemies and produce a feeling of reaction in the country. Even the king went over to the tories, dismissed the ministry, and placed Sir Robert Peel at the head of a new cabinet in November, 1834. The general election in the following spring restored the whigs to power, with Lord Melbourne as chief of the new ministry.

Although the slave trade had been abolished by Great Britain, slavery existed in the colonies until 1833. In August of that year the "Act for the Abolition of Slavery" throughout the British dominions was passed. The government paid to the

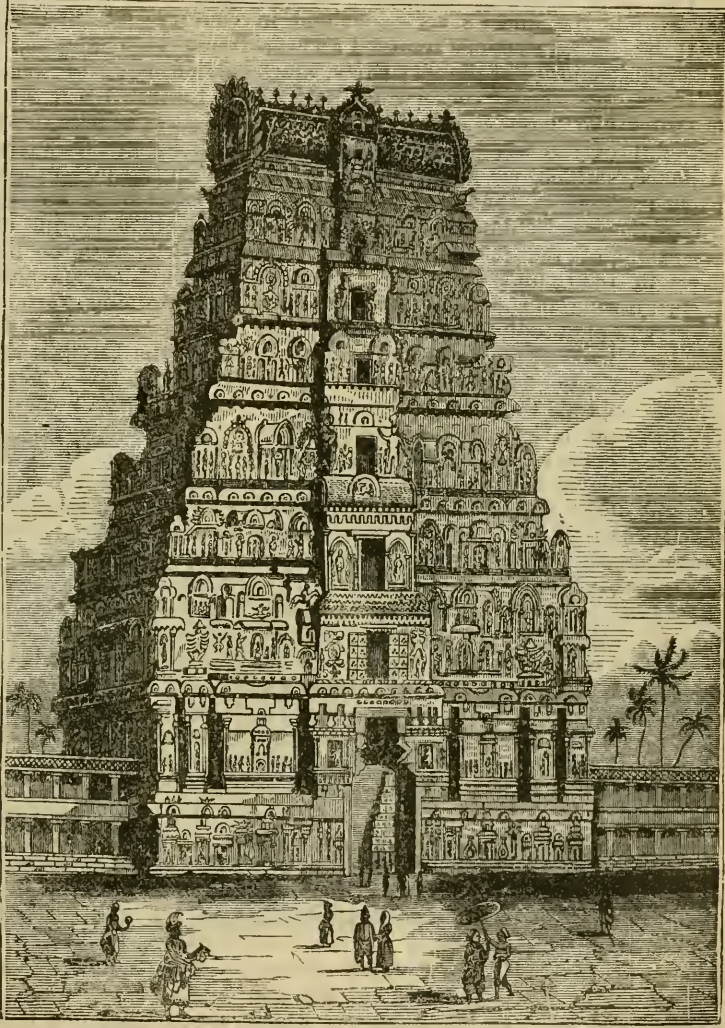
owners of the slaves thus liberated the sum of \$100,000,000 as compensation for the loss of their property. In the same year the commercial monopoly of the East India Company was abolished, and the trade of that country thrown open to the whole British nation. A new poor law was enacted in 1834 to check the growing evils of pauperism.

In 1835 the municipal corporations act was passed. This measure restored to the towns the rights of self-government, of which they were deprived in the fourteenth century. In 1836 a law was passed making marriage a civil contract, and thus removing one of the principal grievances of the dissenters. In 1834 provision was made for education by a small annual grant for the erection of schools. In 1839 this beginning was supplemented by the appointment of a committee of the privy council for educational purposes, and the regular increase of the grants for this purpose. These measures were the work of the whig party.

In the autumn of 1830 the Liverpool and Manchester railway was opened by its projector, George Stephenson. This was the beginning of the great railway system of Great Britain. The new system of transportation, being found successful, was rapidly adopted in various parts of the kingdom, and proved a powerful aid in the development of the trade and wealth of the kingdom.

On the 20th of June, 1837, William IV. died at Windsor Castle. His only children,

two daughters by his wife Adelaide, Princess of Saxe-Meiningen, had both died in infancy. His crown of Hanover passed to the next male heir, Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, the fifth son of George III., and thus became forever separated from that of England. William was succeeded



PAGODA OF CHILLENBAUM—INDIA.

on the throne of Great Britain and Ireland, in default of male heirs, by his niece, the Princess Alexandrina Victoria, the only child of his brother Edward, Duke of Kent, the present reigning sovereign.

Queen Victoria was but eighteen years old at the time of her accession to the throne, but was popular with all classes of her subjects. On the 10th of February

1840, the queen married her cousin, Albert, Prince of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, a man of many virtues, and of ability and rare good sense, qualities which won him the affection and confidence of the English people, and enabled him to retain these feelings throughout his life.

The whig ministry continued to lose favor after the queen's accession, and in 1841 the general elections returned an overwhelming majority of the tory party, which now took the name "conservative." Two measures had largely contributed to the downfall of the whigs—the "Quadruple Alliance," which we have related in the French history of this century, and which led to the bombardment of Acre and the expulsion of the Egyptian forces from Syria in 1840; and a war with China in 1839, growing out of the refusal of that country to allow opium to be smuggled into its dominions. The course of affairs in India was also greatly injurious to the whigs. In 1839 Cabul was occupied by the English, and in 1841 a general revolt of the Affghan people ensued, and a British army was annihilated in the Khyber Pass. The triumph of the conservatives brought about the downfall of the whig ministry, and a tory cabinet, with Sir Robert Peel at its head, succeeded it.

Peel set to work vigorously to remedy the evils which encompassed the country. Order was restored to the finances by the repeal of a number of iniquitous taxes and the establishment of an income tax. Ireland had been for some years on the verge of rebellion in consequence of the agitation of O'Connell, who demanded the repeal of the union. Stringent coercive acts had been found the only means of preventing an outbreak. The Peel ministry now proceeded to deal with the author of the agitation. O'Connell was arrested, tried and convicted upon a charge of sedition, and was imprisoned. He was released upon an appeal to the house of lords, but his conviction was fatal to his influence, which waned from this time. The war with China was brought to a close by a treaty which opened some of the ports of that country to the trade of the world. An expedition under General Pollock avenged the reverses in India by the capture of the capital of Cabul in 1842.

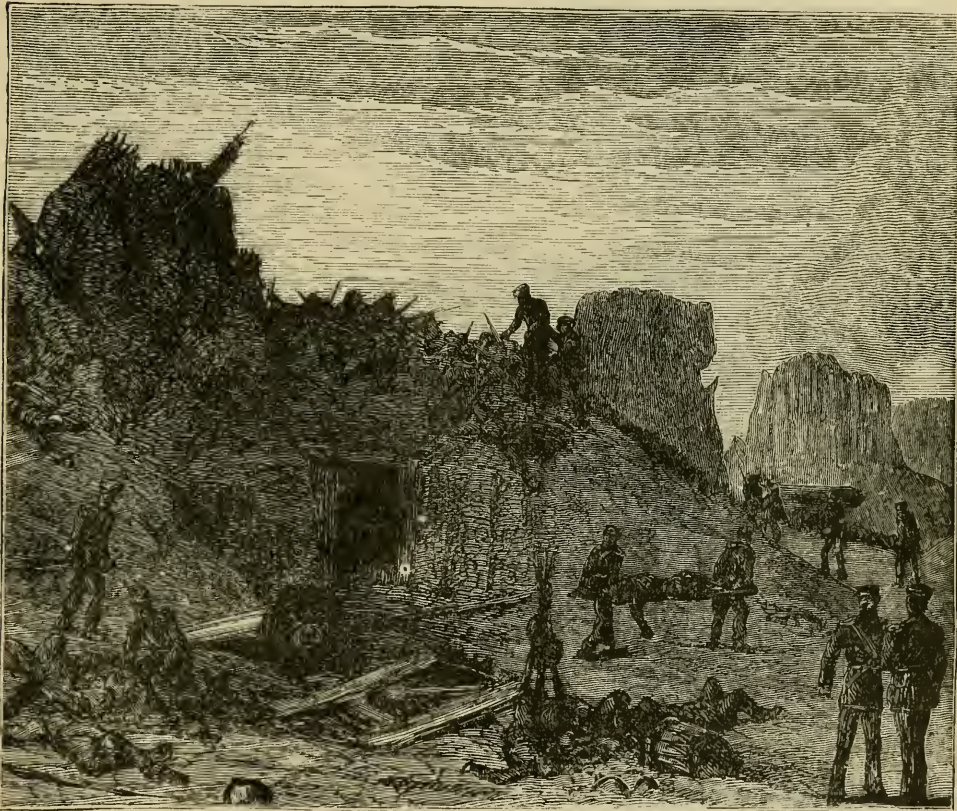
The conservative ministry found themselves called upon to face a most difficult and dangerous question. We have related

the selfish imposition of prohibitory duties by the English landowners upon foreign grain in 1815. These restrictions had continued until the time we are now considering, and were sustained by a considerable party, which declared that English agriculture ought to be protected and the English people forced to depend upon their own country for breadstuffs by maintaining these high duties. The majority of the nation, however, was in favor of free trade, and asserted that the operation of the corn laws was to give the landowners an unjust monopoly of the bread of the people and to set an artificial limit to the wealth and population of the country. In 1839 an association known as the *Anti-Corn-Law League* was formed, and devoted itself to the task of spreading its principles by speeches and various publications. The association succeeded in gradually enlightening the English mind as to the effect of protective laws. Sir Robert Peel, who had entered office pledged to continue the protective system, became convinced of its inexpediency. In 1846 the failure of the potato crop in Ireland threatened that country with a terrible famine; and at the same time the harvest in England failed. This emergency compelled the triumph of the free trade cause, and Sir Robert Peel was forced to introduce bills abolishing or reducing to a nominal figure the duties on foreign corn, cattle, and other articles of food. The bills were passed, but the resentment of the conservatives was bitter, and drove Peel from office. He was succeeded by a whig ministry, under Lord John Russell, which continued in office until 1852. The complete operation of the free trade measures was not secured until 1849. The credit of the victory is due to Richard Cobden, the leader of the free trade party, and one of the wisest political economists England has ever produced.

The agitation which convulsed continental Europe in 1848 affected England also, though in a milder form. The chartists—a party which took its name from its endeavors to secure the adoption of the "People's Charter," the document in which they embodied their demands—kept the kingdom in a state of uncertainty from 1839 to 1848. This party consisted chiefly of workingmen, who hoped to better their condition by means of a reform of the political system. They demanded universal suffrage, vote by ballot, annual parliaments,

the division of the country into equal electoral districts, the abolition of the property qualification of members, and the payment of members of parliament for their services. Encouraged by the Revolution in France, they made a demonstration of their strength on the 10th of April, 1848, in London, for the purpose of offering a petition embodying their "Charter" to parliament. Preparations were made by the government to prevent an outbreak, and the affair passed off quietly. From this time the chartists disappeared from English politics. Since

under Lord Derby. In 1853, however, a union of the whigs and free traders ousted the tories, and the whig ministry of Lord Aberdeen succeeded to the direction of the government. The designs of Russia upon Turkey now induced England to take a decisive stand against the former power. An alliance was effected with France for this purpose in 1854, and was followed by the Crimean war, the causes, events, and results of which we have related in the French history of this period. The sufferings of the English army through the neglect of



THE REDAN AFTER ITS CAPTURE BY THE ENGLISH.

then, however, parliament has abolished the property qualification, granted a suffrage which is almost universal, and established the vote by ballot—three of the principal reforms demanded by the chartists. In Ireland Smith O'Brien and a few others attempted to bring on a revolution in 1848, but the movement was easily suppressed.

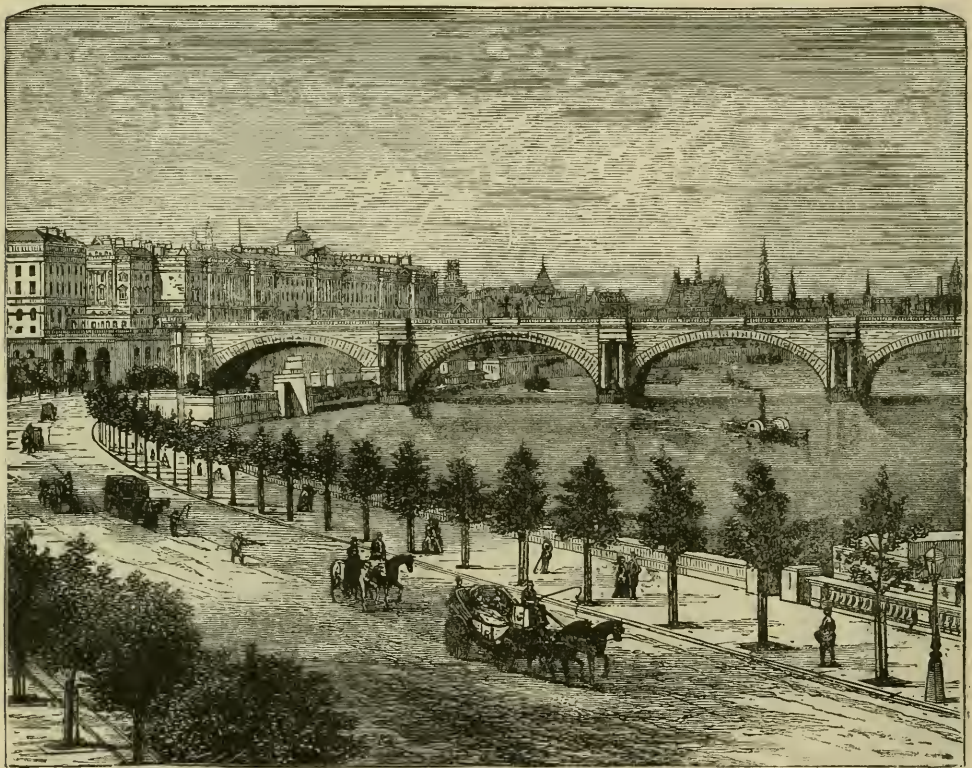
In 1852 the conservatives returned to power, and the ministry of Lord John Russell was replaced by a conservative ministry

the government in the winter of 1854–55 aroused a storm of indignation at home, which drove the Aberdeen ministry from power early in 1855. A new ministry was formed under Lord Palmerston, and devoted itself with energy to the prosecution of the war.

In 1858 a conspiracy to assassinate the Emperor Napoleon III. came near succeeding, and as it was believed to have originated among the foreign refugees in England, Lord Palmerston introduced a bill

into parliament for the alteration of the law respecting conspiracies, with a view to enable the government to prevent the repetition of such plots. The excited language of the French army and press induced the belief that the bill had been presented by the government in compliance with the demands of France, and it was rejected by the house of commons. Lord Palmerston's credit suffered considerably in consequence of this belief. It seemed for a while that the amicable relations of the two countries would give place to war, and a force of vol-

and he refrained from interfering with this happy state of affairs. His foreign policy consisted in keeping England neutral in the war between France and Italy and Austria in 1859; the civil war in America in 1861; the Polish insurrection in 1863; the war between France and Mexico in 1864; and the attack of Prussia upon Denmark in 1864. This policy of non-interference cost England some of her prestige, and in the case of the civil war in America was not fairly adhered to. A number of confederate cruisers, built, equipped, and manned



THE THAMES EMBANKMENT—LONDON.

unteers, 150,000 strong, was raised in England. The common sense of both nations came to the rescue, however, and the danger was averted. The excitement caused the fall of the Palmerston ministry, and Lord Derby again became prime minister for a few months. The elections of 1859 restored Lord Palmerston to power, however, and he continued at the head of the government from this time until his death in 1865. His internal policy was one of inaction. England was prosperous in a marked degree, and was increasing in wealth every year,

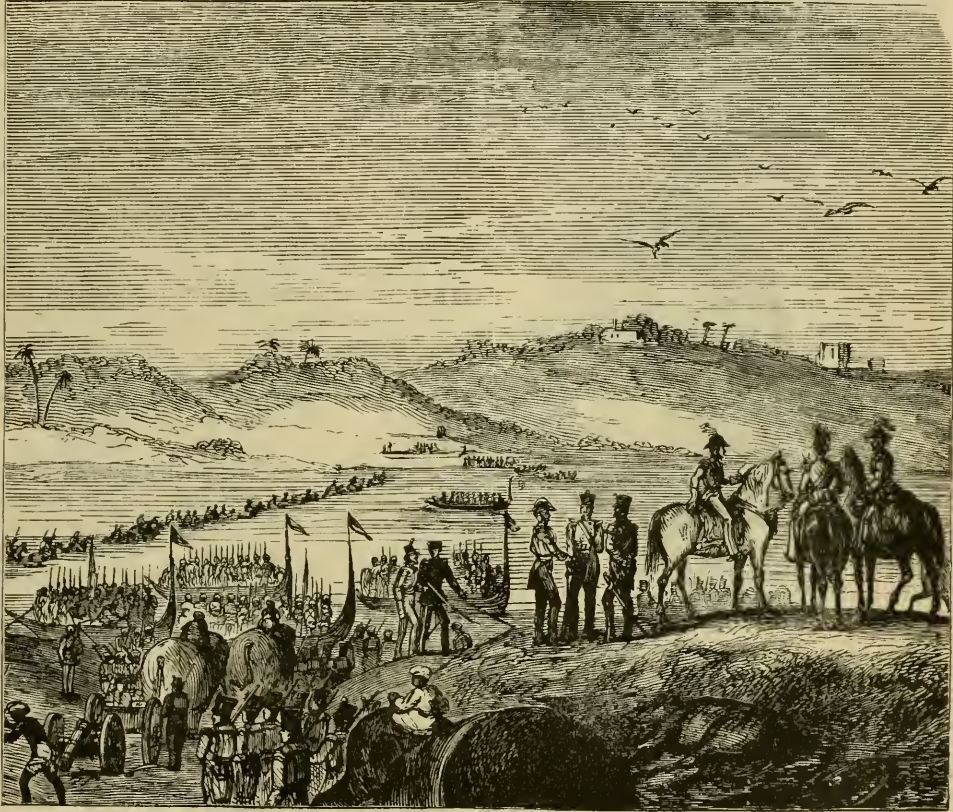
in British ports, were suffered to go to sea, and nearly swept the American commerce from the seas. The United States were thus given a valid cause of irritation against Great Britain. The American war caused great distress in Lancashire by interrupting the supply of cotton.

Lord Palmerston's death in 1865 placed Lord John Russell at the head of the ministry. He continued his predecessor's neutral policy, and took no part in the war between Prussia and Austria in 1866. Lord Russell did not imitate his prede-

cessor in his internal policy, however. In 1866 he introduced a bill for the further reform of parliament. The measure was defeated by the house of commons, and he resigned his office. Lord Derby succeeded him, and in 1867 found himself obliged to introduce a reform bill far more sweeping in its provisions than Lord Russell's unfortunate measure. The bill was passed in August, 1867. It extended the borough franchise to all rate-payers and lodgers occupying rooms to the annual value of £10. The county franchise was reduced to

ment of the result, and a liberal ministry, with Mr. Gladstone at its head, came into power.

The new government addressed itself with vigor to some of the most difficult questions of the day. An effort was made to remove the chronic discontent of Ireland by the disestablishment and disendowment of the Protestant Church in 1869. This measure put an end to the compulsory payment by the Irish of taxes for the support of a church with which the vast majority of them had no sympathy. In 1870 a land



BRITISH ARMY CROSSING THE SUTLEJ.

£12. Thirty-three members were withdrawn from the English boroughs, and of these twenty-five were distributed among the English counties; the rest were assigned to Scotland and Ireland. This measure added large numbers of workingmen to the voting class, and when the elections of 1868 were held, a liberal parliament was returned by overwhelming majorities. Mr. Disraeli, who had succeeded Lord Derby as premier, withdrew from office upon the announce-

ment of the result, and a liberal ministry, with Mr. Gladstone at its head, came into power. The new government addressed itself with vigor to some of the most difficult questions of the day. An effort was made to remove the chronic discontent of Ireland by the disestablishment and disendowment of the Protestant Church in 1869. This measure put an end to the compulsory payment by the Irish of taxes for the support of a church with which the vast majority of them had no sympathy. In 1870 a land bill was passed, which established a sort of tenant-right in all parts of Ireland. In 1868 the non-conformists were relieved of the compulsory payment of church rates; and in 1871 still further justice was done them by the abolition of all religious tests for admission to offices or degrees in the universities. The army and navy were subjected to important reforms, and in the former the system of promotion by purchase was abolished. In 1871 a bill was passed

by parliament establishing school-boards in every district, and levying local rates for their support. In 1871 a radical step towards parliamentary reform was taken in the passage of an act establishing the practice of voting by the ballot. The magnitude and extent of Mr. Gladstone's reforms, however, alarmed the country, and in 1874 a bill introduced by him for the organization of university education in Ireland was defeated. The ministers appealed to the country, and were answered by the election of a strongly conservative parliament. Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues thereupon resigned their offices, and were succeeded by a conservative ministry, with Mr. Disraeli as premier.

The power of Great Britain in India con-



THE QUEEN OF OUDE.

tinued to increase through the early part of the century. In 1815 the whole of Ceylon was brought under English rule, and in 1819 an English colony was founded at Singapore, near the southern extremity of the Malay peninsula, and became one of the principal markets of the India trade. In 1833 the charter of the East India Company expired. The company was given by the British parliament the government of Hindustan for twenty years, but its monopoly of the Eastern trade was not renewed; and the commerce of India was made free to all the subjects of Great Britain.

One of the principal results of the establishment of the colony at Singapore was the sudden development of the opium trade with China. The Chinese government had previously tolerated this traffic, but now,

becoming alarmed by the fearful evils which the use of opium was fastening upon the Chinese nation, endeavored to put a stop to it. An imperial edict prohibited the importation of opium, but the traffic was carried on by the English and Chinese merchants in defiance of the law. The trade was very profitable, and the connivance of the officials could be purchased by large bribes. The imperial government then ordered the British merchants to be blockaded in their warehouses at Canton until they surrendered all the opium in their possession, amounting in value, it is said, to ten millions of dollars. The British government resented this attempt of China to protect her people at the expense of English profits, and a war of two years ensued. Canton was taken by the English, but was ransomed for six millions of dollars, and several other places were bombarded. The Chinese were at length compelled to make peace, and a treaty was signed at Nankin in August, 1842, by which the island of Hong Kong was ceded to the British, and the ports of Canton, Amoy, Foochoo, Ningpo, and Shanghai were thrown open to the trade of the world, and were made the official residences of European consuls. China was also compelled to pay to Great Britain an indemnity of \$21,000,000.

In 1838 Great Britain became involved in a war with the Affghans, for the purpose of restoring to his throne Shah Sujah, the ruler of Cabul, who had been deposed by his people. He proved himself such an execrable tyrant that he was murdered by his subjects. A general revolt of the Affghans followed in 1842, and the British army, forced to retreat from Cabul, was cut off almost to a man in the Khyber mountain pass. An expedition under General Pollock avenged this disaster, and captured Cabul in 1842. The war, however, greatly encouraged the natives in their efforts against the English, and in 1843 a war with the Ameers of Scinde broke out. It resulted in the conquest of that country by Sir Charles Napier, in 1843, who was appointed Governor of Scinde, and who ruled his province with firmness and success. In 1845 and in 1848 there was war between the British and the Sikhs of the Punjab. On the 21st of February, 1849, Lord Gough won the decisive victory of Goojerat, and this was followed by the close of the war, and the annexation of the Punjab to the British dominions. A little later Sir Henry

Lawrence was appointed to the government of the Punjaub, which, since the days of Alexander the Great, had been the scene of constant rapine and strife. His rule was so just and kind that the Sikhs were completely won over to the English authority. In five years' time order was restored, and prosperity returned to the long distracted country. The warlike chiefs submitted willingly to the English rule, and sent their sons to the English schools to fit them for

the most despicable of the native tyrants, and whose cruelties had driven his people almost to desperation, had been repeatedly threatened by the British authorities with the loss of his throne for the violation of his treaties with them and his treatment of his subjects. These threats had no effect, and in 1856 he was removed from his throne, and his kingdom was added to the British dominions.

The dominion of Great Britain in India



STORMING OF DELHI.

positions under the new government. So firmly was the English power established by the wisdom and justice of Lawrence that during the terrible scenes of 1857 the Sikhs remained faithful to Great Britain, and the Punjaub formed the very stronghold of the English power. It is not too much to say that had this section proved unfaithful, the English empire in India would have been overthrown.

The King of Oude, who was one of

extended over hundreds of millions of people, and had been won and was maintained by a mere handful of British troops. The great mass of the troops employed by the English were natives, and were known as Sepoys. They were generally contented, and obeyed their English officers with readiness and confidence. In 1856 a supply of Enfield rifles was received for them from England. The cartridges of these rifles were supposed to contain beef-tallow, and

as the use of this article, which is sacred to the Hindus, is forbidden to any devout native, several regiments objected to using the cartridges, and their wishes were respected by the government, which suppressed the cartridges. The discontent did not subside, however, but continued to spread, and early in 1857 a formidable mutiny broke out among the native troops in Bengal, Oude, and the province of Delhi. Wherever they had the power, the insurgents massacred all the English they could lay hands on, sparing neither age nor sex. The middle and lower classes of the population joined the insurgents, but the chiefs and large landholders as a rule remained faithful to the government. The insurgents established their capital at Delhi, and proclaimed its nominal king Emperor of Hindustan. Cawnpore was besieged by the Sepoys, and surrendered after a siege of 200 days. The promise of safety made to the garrison was violated, and they were treacherously massacred. Delhi was taken by the English in September, 1857, and the insurgents severely punished. Its emperor was transported to Burmah, and his two sons were put to death. The English made heroic efforts to re-establish their authority, and defeated the greatly superior forces of the Sepoys over and over again. Cawnpore was taken by General Havelock, who then united his small army with that of Sir James Outram, and together they succeeded in relieving the besieged garrison of Lucknow, the capital of Oude, which had held out heroically against an overwhelming force of Sepoys. In this siege Sir Henry Lawrence was killed. The insurgents did not abandon their attempt upon Lucknow after the arrival of Havelock and Outram, but held on until March, 1858, nearly five months after the first investment, when the arrival of an English army under Sir Colin Campbell forced them to retreat after a severe defeat. The relief of Lucknow virtually ended the war. The fighting continued through the summer of 1858, but the insurrection was crushed, and its leaders were put to death, or punished with great severity. The British power was firmly re-established throughout India, and no further outbreak has occurred since this triumph.

On the 2d of August, 1858, parliament passed an act transferring the government of India from the East India Company to the British crown. This change has been followed by excellent results. The govern-

ment is administered by a viceroy or governor-general, appointed by the queen. His official residence is at Calcutta. English influence is becoming stronger and the civilization of the West is becoming more general every year in India. The upper classes are being educated, and common schools are established for the instruction of the lower orders. Railways, telegraphs, newspapers, and the other appliances of civilization are rapidly changing the character and increasing the prosperity of this ancient land.

In 1856, and again in 1860, England became involved in a war with China. In the latter year the contest was waged in alliance with France. The English and French forces captured Peking, and destroyed the magnificent palace of the emperor. In 1867 a successful expedition was undertaken by Great Britain, under the command of Sir Robert Napier, for the release of some English captives held in prison by King Theodore of Abyssinia.

In addition to her possessions in India, Great Britain during the present century has built up a flourishing empire in the southern Pacific. It is larger in extent, and may yet be of greater importance than India. The vast island of Australia, which really merits the title of a continent, was made known to Europeans in the early part of the seventeenth century by the Dutch. In 1788 Great Britain resolved to make it a penal colony for the transportation of her criminal population, and a colony of 1,000 convicts was sent out to Sydney in the eastern part of the island. This colony was subjected to severe hardships at first, but succeeded in establishing itself. The convicts were then set to work to clear the wilderness, to construct roads, bridges, and other needed public works. They were joined by others from time to time, and the work was carried on with vigor and success, and the difficulties in the way of free settlers greatly simplified. In 1810 Governor Macquarie was appointed to the control of affairs. He remained in office for eleven years, and exerted all his powers to reform the convicts. Under his wise and humane rule the colony prospered, many of the convicts embraced the opportunity held out to them, amended their lives, and became useful citizens; some of them rising to positions of trust in the colony. For the next thirty years following 1811, free settlers flocked to Australia in great numbers, and

new towns were founded. The practice of transporting convicts to Australia and to Van Dieman's Land was discontinued. Wool became the great staple of the colony, and was exported in large quantities. The original colony of New South Wales was divided: the northern part was named Queensland, the southern Victoria. At a later period west Australia was organized as a distinct government.

In 1851 gold was discovered in the south-eastern provinces of Australia, and imme-

Wales, is also a flourishing city. The population of the country is increasing rapidly, and railroads, telegraphs, and other institutions of the West are adding to the wealth and prosperity of Australia, which must eventually become the seat of a great English-speaking nation. Australia and Tasmania, formerly called Van Dieman's Land, are connected with London by a submarine telegraphic cable.

Tasmania is also a thriving colony. In New Zealand, the three islands of which

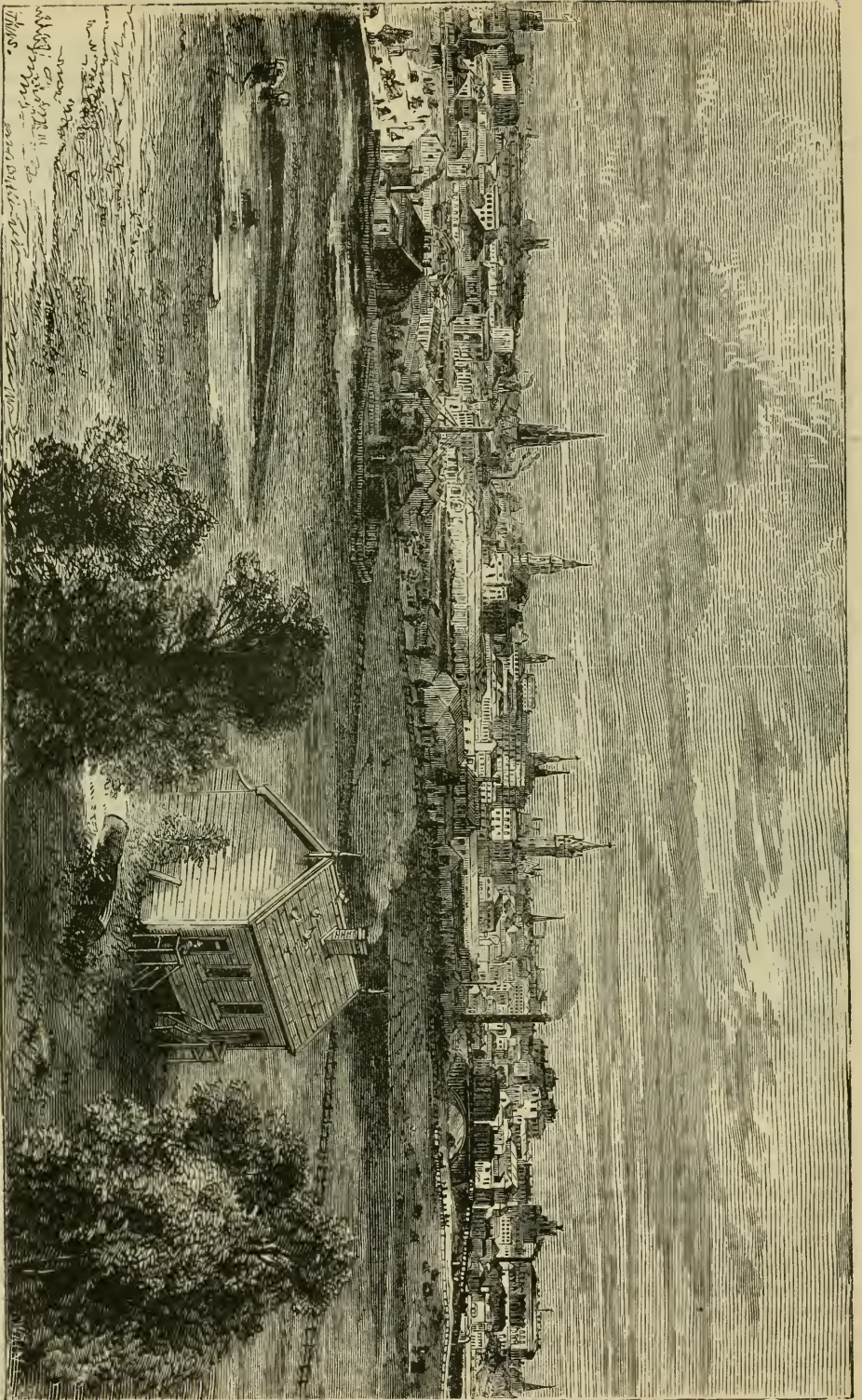


ENGLISH TROOPS ON THE MARCH IN INDIA.

diately all kinds of industry were abandoned for a search for the precious metal. This delirium was followed by a period of sharp distress, and the ordinary avocations of the community were resumed. The country took a new start, and has grown with remarkable rapidity ever since. Melbourne, the capital of Victoria, and the largest city in Australia, contains a population of about 200,000, and is a handsome and flourishing city. It was founded in 1837. Sydney, the old capital of New South

comprise an area larger than Great Britain and Ireland, eight prosperous English colonies have been established, and the people are being gradually won to Christianity and civilization. The majority of the natives can read and write, and newspapers are published in the Maori language.

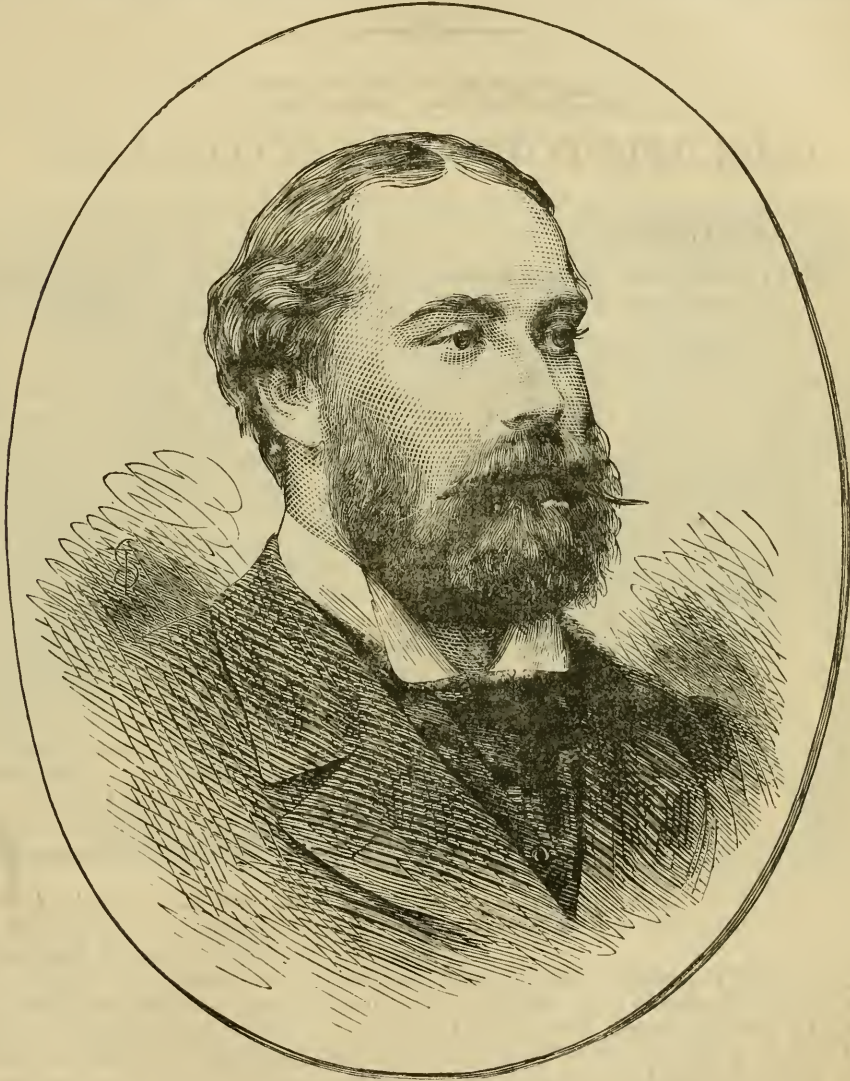
In 1873 a quarrel broke out between the English and the King of Ashantee, in western Africa, with respect to a stipend formerly allowed by the Dutch to the king. England had been formally in possession



VIEW OF MELBOURNE, AUSTRALIA.

of the Gold Coast and the old Dutch colonies since 1872, when she acquired them by treaty with the Dutch. The colonial authorities now demanded that the King of Ashantee should withdraw his warriors from their territory, but so far from complying with this demand, the sable poten-

erable resistance, and lost many of his men in consequence of the unhealthiness of the country, but steadily drove the natives before him. About the 1st of February he defeated the Ashantee forces in a pitched battle in the neighborhood of Coomassie, their capital, and on the 5th entered Co-



ALBERT EDWARD, PRINCE OF WALES.

tate proceeded to levy war upon the English possessions. Late in 1873 the British government despatched a force under Sir Garnett Wolseley to the Gold Coast. He arrived on the coast about the close of the year, and at once advanced into the Ashantee territory. He met with consid-

erable resistance, and lost many of his men in consequence of the unhealthiness of the country, but steadily drove the natives before him. About the 1st of February he defeated the Ashantee forces in a pitched battle in the neighborhood of Coomassie, their capital, and on the 5th entered Co-

During the years 1873, 1874, 1875, and

1876, a terrible famine visited a large portion of India, causing great suffering and loss of life. The vice-regal government made great efforts to relieve the distress, but it was so wide-spread and overwhelming, that the exertions to check it were only partially successful.

In 1875 the Prince of Wales made a visit to India, and was everywhere received with great cordiality and imposing demonstrations.

On the 2d of May, 1876, Queen Victoria was formally proclaimed, in addition to her other titles, *Empress of India*.

BOOK XXI.

THE HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE DEATH OF ROBERT BRUCE.

Geographical Position of Scotland—Natural Divisions—The Earliest Inhabitants—Invasion of the Romans—The Walls—Invasion of the Angles—Settlement of the Scots—Introduction of Christianity—St. Colomba—Reign of Kenneth I.—His Successors—Macbeth—Reign of Malcolm Canmore—Does Homage to William I. of England—Reign of Edgar—The Danish Raids—Alexander I.—His Able Reign—David I. King—Takes Part in the English Civil Wars—Battle of the Standard—Wise Measures of David—William the Lion—The Long Reign—Re-establishes the Independence of Scotland—Alexander II.—Relations with England—Alexander III.—Edward I. Demands Homage of the Scottish King—Death of Alexander—Progress of Scotland—Margaret, the Maiden of Norway—Her Death—John Balliol King—He Does Homage to Edward I. of England for his Crown—English Interference in Scottish Affairs—War with England—Edward Subdues Scotland—John Deposed—Scotland Held by the English—Revolt of William Wallace—His Successes—Battle of Stirling—Wallace Made Guardian of Scotland—Battle of Falkirk—Death of Wallace—Robert Bruce—Stabs John Comyn—Raises the Standard of Revolt—Is Crowned King of Scotland—His Struggles—Bruce and the Spider—Battle of Bannockburn—The Independence of Scotland Re-established—The Treaty of Northampton—Acts of the Scottish Parliament—Rise of the Third Estate—Death of King Robert.

SCOTLAND comprises the northern part of the island of Great Britain. Its greatest length, from north to south, is about 280 miles, and its greatest breadth, from east to west, about 170 miles. The Friths of Forth and Clyde reduce the width of the country to such a narrow neck as to make the northern part of Scotland almost a separate island. The northern peninsula, thus formed, is divided by a range of mountains into highlands and lowlands, the western part being almost entirely highland

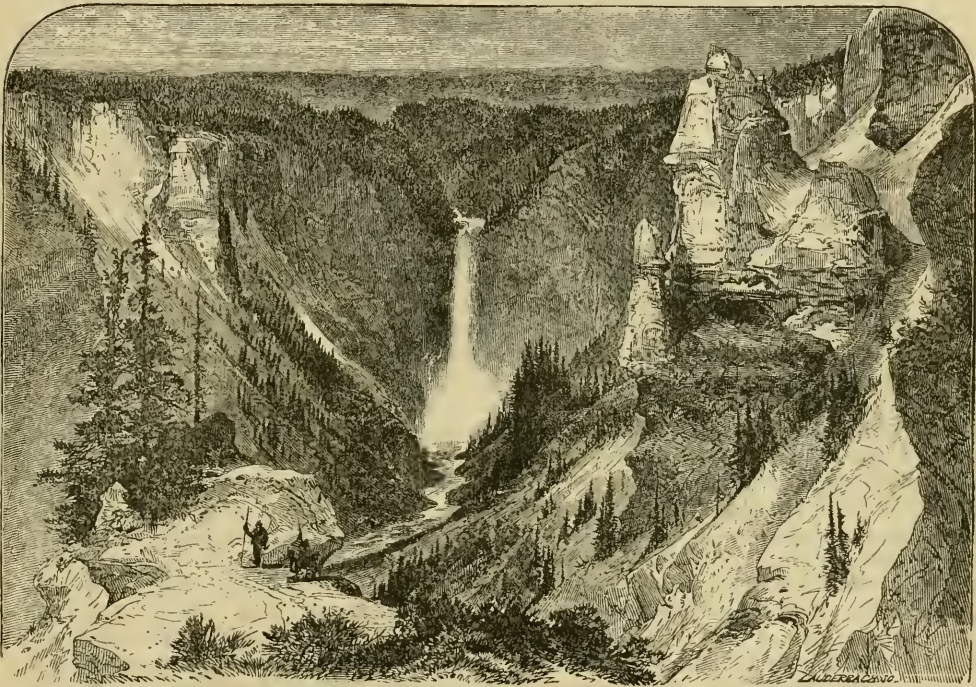
and the eastern lowland. The country south of the Friths of Forth and Clyde is lowland. The lowlands are fertile and well watered, but the highlands are made up of lakes, moors, and barren hills, and constitute a sterile and difficult region in which agriculture is almost impossible, and which affords but scanty pasturage. The western coast is cut up into a multitude of small islands, "and the coast line is constantly broken by steep, jagged promontories jutting out seaward, or cut by long lochs, up which the sea runs far into the land between hills rising almost as bare and straight as walls on either side." These differences between the eastern and western parts of the country exercised a marked influence upon the inhabitants. The people of the lowlands were always peaceable and industrious, readily engaged in trade, and at an early day founded thriving towns. The highlanders, on the contrary, having no inducement to engage in industrial pursuits, were a fierce, hardy people, and lived mainly by pillaging the lands of the more thrifty lowlanders.

The country was known to the Romans, who called it Caledonia. They never succeeded in making it a part of their empire, and, as we have seen, built a wall across the neck between the Friths of Forth and Solway to keep the northern barbarians from invading their dominions in southern Britain. At this time the country was occupied by a number of Celtic tribes, the principal of which were the Picts and Scots. The latter had originally settled in Ireland, from which they had crossed over to the western coast of Britain. They finally gave their name to the entire country north of the Solway. The Picts and Scots were an exceedingly brave and hardy race; their

religion was druidical; they practised polygamy, and were warlike in their habits. Their arms were short spears, daggers and shields; their habitations were wretched huts, and they disdained the use of clothes.

In A. D. 80, the Romans having become masters of southern Britain, Julius Agricola led an army into Caledonia, but, though he defeated the Picts in a great battle at the foot of the highlands, the resistance which he encountered was so fierce that he abandoned the idea of conquest, and retreated south of the Friths of Forth and Clyde. Across the isthmus between the

commander. They pressed so heavily upon the legions that the Emperor Severus, though old and infirm, came to Britain, and assumed the personal command of his army. He invaded Caledonia, and cut his way to the northern extremity of the island. He lost a large part of his army, but accomplished nothing. He repaired and strengthened the wall of Hadrian, and gave up all the country north of it to the barbarians. The Picts continued their efforts, and about A. D. 368 broke through the second wall, and advanced as far south as London. They were routed by Theodosius, the father



SCENE IN THE HIGHLANDS OF SCOTLAND.

two he built a line of forts joined by a rampart of earth, the whole work being about thirty miles in length. In A. D. 120 the Emperor Hadrian built a second rampart across the isthmus between the Tyne and the Solway, and abandoned the entire district between this rampart and Agricola's wall to the Picts. About A. D. 140 Lollius Urbicus, a general of the Emperor Antoninus Pius, recovered this abandoned district, and repaired the works of Agricola. The Picts stubbornly resisted this advance of the Roman boundary, and towards the close of the century burst through the Roman defences and killed the Roman

of the emperor of the same name, and were driven back into the highlands. Theodosius recovered the district between the two Roman walls, erected it into a Roman province, and named it Valentia, in honor of Valentinian, the reigning emperor. This region was occupied by five tribes, who adopted in a large degree the civilization and customs of the Romans. The withdrawal of the Roman troops at the period of the fall of the empire left Valentia exposed to the fury of the Picts, who harassed the region without cessation.

In the sixth century the eastern coast of Valentia was settled by the Angles, who

drove the Britons, or Welshmen, as they called them, back to the hills on the west side of the island. Valentia was then divided into two kingdoms. The first of these, the English kingdom of Northumberland, comprised the entire eastern portion of Valentia, from the Frith of Forth to the river Tyne. The western side was taken up by the Welsh or British kingdom of Strathclyde, and extended from the Frith of Clyde to the river Dee on the south.

While the English were settling Valentia, the migration of the Scots from Ireland to the west coast of Scotland was steadily proceeding. The exact date of the commencement of this migration is unknown, but it is certain that early in the sixth century the Scots settled in large numbers in Caledonia. They were led by Fergus MacErc, and Lorn, of the family of the Dalriads. They settled in what is now Argyle, and there founded the kingdom of Dalriada.

Ireland had been converted to Christianity before this, and the new-comers were Christians, and brought their faith with them. Shortly after the formation of the kingdom of Dalriada, Columba, Abbot of Durrow, in Ireland, who had been driven from his country, arrived in Scotland with twelve monks. He was welcomed by Conal, King of Dalriada, who gave him the island of Iona, which lies west of the island of Mull. There Columba and his companions established themselves, and, after erecting a church and a few simple dwellings, began a series of missionary labors among the native tribes of Caledonia. Their principal work was the conversion of the Picts, which was effected chiefly by Columba himself. Iona became one of the primitive strongholds of the Christian faith. A school of theology was established there, in which the word of God was studied, and from which missionaries, full of zeal, were sent out to Britain and to the continent. These zealous preachers penetrated into the Low Countries, into Gaul, Switzerland, Germany, and even into Italy. "The free church of the Scots and Britons," says D'Aubigné, "did more for the conversion of central Europe than the half-enslaved Church of Rome." "The sages of Iona," says the same writer, "knew nothing of transubstantiation, or of the withdrawal of the cup in the Lord's supper, or of auricular confession, or of prayers for the dead, or tapers, or incense; they celebrated Easter on a different day from Rome; synodal assem-

blies regulated the affairs of the church, and the papal supremacy was unknown." In the seventh century the English of Northumberland were converted to Christianity.

Oswald, King of Northumberland, is said to have extended his conquests beyond the firths, and his son Oswin is believed to have made the Picts and Scots pay him tribute. In the next reign the English were routed, their king slain, and the Picts and Scots regained their freedom. In A. D. 843 Kenneth MacAlpin, King of the Scots, extended his rule over the English north of the wall of Hadrian. He was also King of the Picts, and from this time the Picts and Scots appear as one people.

Kenneth was succeeded in turn by his brother Donald and his son Constantine. Their reigns were passed in constant conflicts with the Northmen, who ravaged the coasts of Scotland. Several of the Norse chiefs or Vikings founded settlements in Ireland, from which they led their expeditions against the shores of Great Britain. Others settled in the Orkneys and the Hebrides, and proved very troublesome to Scotland. One of these chieftains, named Cyric or Grig, seized the Scottish throne, and reigned for eighteen years.

Constantine II., the great-grandson of Kenneth, came to the Scottish throne in A. D. 900, and reigned until 943. He placed his kingdom under the protection of Edward the Elder, King of England, but soon repented of his submission, and in 937, together with the Welsh of Strathclyde, joined the Danes in an effort to recover Northumberland, from which they had been driven by Athelstane. The effort was unsuccessful, and the allies were defeated in the bloody battle of Brunanburh. In A. D. 943 Constantine resigned his crown, and became a monk in the monastery of St. Andrews.

Constantine was succeeded by his relative Malcolm I. The English king granted to Malcolm the kingdom of Strathclyde as a territorial fief, to be held on condition of his doing military service by land and sea whenever required by the King of England. Malcolm died in 954. Six kings followed him in the order named. They were Induff—in whose reign Edinburgh, which had been founded by Edwin of Northumberland, passed into the hands of the Scots—Duff, Colin, Kenneth II., Constantine III., and Kenneth III. Their reigns were unevent-

ful, and were passed in wars with the Welsh or with their own rebellious subjects, and all died in battle. The line of Kenneth MacAlpin ended with Malcolm II., the grandson of Malcolm I. In 1018 he wrested Lothian from the Earl of Northumberland, and made it a part of his kingdom. In 1031 Malcolm acknowledged Canute, King of England, Denmark, and Norway as his suzerain. In 1034 Malcolm died, leaving his crown to his grandson, Duncan. It is said that in order to secure the succession of Duncan, Malcolm caused the grandson of Kenneth III., the true heir to the throne, to be murdered.

Gruach, the sister of the murdered prince, was the wife of Macbeth, the Thane or Earl of Moray, one of the most powerful of the Scottish chiefs. Some of the northern chiefs having rebelled, Duncan marched against them. Macbeth, who bitterly resented the murder of his brother-in-law, seized the occasion offered by the presence of the king in his province, attacked him, and defeated him in a battle, and subsequently slew him, A. D. 1040. Macbeth then seized the throne, and held it for seventeen years. He governed Scotland with a firm hand and with great wisdom, and his reign was a period of great national prosperity. He and his queen were liberal friends of the poor, and sent alms to the poor at Rome. The peace of the kingdom was broken by Crinan, Abbot of Dunkeld, the father of Duncan, who succeeded in inducing Siward, Earl of Northumberland, to take up the cause of Malcolm and Donald, the sons of Duncan. Macbeth was driven from his throne, but recovered it immediately after the withdrawal of Siward. Some years afterward Siward again invaded Scotland in behalf of the sons of Duncan, and a struggle of four years ensued, which was ended by the defeat and death of Macbeth, in the battle of Lumphanan, in Aberdeen, A. D. 1057.

Malcolm, surnamed Canmore, or "the great head," now mounted the throne of Scotland. During this reign England was conquered by William of Normandy. Large numbers of Englishmen, who refused to yield to the conqueror, took refuge at the court of Scotland, where they were kindly received by Malcolm. Among these were Edgar Atheling, his mother, and his two sisters, Margaret and Christina. Immediately after the conquest Malcolm had sent in his nominal homage to William. He

now espoused the cause of Edgar Atheling, who was the heir of the West Saxon kings, and made a bloody raid into the districts of Cleveland and Durham. Soon after this he married Margaret, the sister of Edgar. In 1072 William invaded Scotland with a fleet and army to punish Malcolm for his raid into England. He advanced to Abernethy on the Tay, where Malcolm met him, and did homage to him as his vassal, and placed his son Duncan (the child of his first wife) in William's hands as a hostage for his good conduct. A few years later, William being absent in Normandy, Malcolm made a new raid into England, and harried it as far as the Tync. Robert, William's eldest son, marched towards the Scottish border to avenge this invasion, but the matter was settled by negotiation between Malcolm and himself. In 1092, in the reign of William Rufus, Malcolm again invaded England. The English king thereupon advanced into Lothian, and Malcolm averted his anger by renewing his homage to him. William failed to perform his part of the agreement, and Malcolm in 1093 invaded England once more at the head of a powerful army. He was defeated and slain in a battle on the banks of the Alne, and his army driven back in confusion. His son Edward, who had been recognized as the heir to the crown, also perished in this battle. When the news of the disaster reached Scotland, Queen Margaret died of grief. She had used her influence over her husband to reform many abuses in the kingdom, and had introduced a greater degree of refinement and civilization into the country than the Scots had ever known before.

Donald Bane, the brother of Malcolm, was elected by the Scottish chiefs to the vacant throne. Duncan, the eldest son of Malcolm, who had been kept as a hostage in England, induced the English king to assist him with an army to recover the throne of his father, which he promised to hold as a vassal of the crown of England. With this assistance he drove Donald from the throne and reigned for a few months. Donald, aided by Edmund, the eldest surviving son of Malcolm by his marriage with Margaret, renewed the struggle, defeated Duncan, and put him to death, and exiled the other members of the family. Donald then reigned for three years, at the end of which time he was defeated by Edgar Atheling at the head of an English army.

The Atheling placed his nephew Edgar upon the throne, and put out Donald's eyes, and threw him into prison. Edmund took refuge in an English monastery, where he died.

Edgar, the son of Malcolm and Margaret, carried on the reforms begun by his mother, and during his reign the civilization of the Saxons was generally adopted by the people of the southern part of Scotland, and the old Celtic customs disappeared. This revolution in the manners and customs of the people of the south widely separated them from the true Scots of the north, who from this time came to be regarded as the natural enemies of law and order, and the perpetual disturbers of the peace and prosperity of the kingdom.

Edgar reigned from A. D. 1097 to 1107. In the early part of this reign Magnus Barefoot, King of Norway, seized the Orkneys and the Scandinavian earldom on the mainland, and placed his son Sigurd over them. He then made a descent upon the Hebrides, and ravaged them. At his death the islands reverted to their former owners. The Lords of the Isles, as these chieftains were called, from this time had a convenient way of declaring themselves vassals of Norway whenever they wished to evade their obligations to their own sovereigns. Friendly relations were cultivated with England during the reign of Edgar, and his sister Edith was married to Henry I., the youngest son of William the Conqueror. She took the Norman name of Matilda, and was greatly beloved by her husband and the English people. On his death-bed Edgar separated Strathclyde from the rest of the Scottish kingdom, and bestowed it upon his brother David.

Edgar was succeeded by his brother Alexander I., who came to the throne in A. D. 1107. He was a man of great energy and strong, unyielding will. His efforts to govern his unruly subjects involved him in constant trouble with them. In the early part of his reign a formidable insurrection was begun by the men of Merne and Moray. Alexander promptly marched against the rebels and defeated them in a battle on the northern shore of the Moray Frith. He took a bloody vengeance upon the rebels, and to commemorate his victory founded the Abbey of Scone. Alexander vigorously maintained the independence of the Scottish Church against the Archbishop of York, who claimed the whole country as his eccle-

siastical province. He refused to permit any appeal to the pope, and would not for a moment listen to the claim of the English prelate to authority in Scotland. Alexander died in 1124, and, as he left no children, was succeeded by his brother David. Thus Strathclyde once more became a part of the Scottish kingdom.

In the first part of the reign of David I., a rebellion broke out in Moray. It was suppressed by the king with the aid of some Norman knights whom he had gathered about him when Prince of Strathclyde. Moray was declared forfeited, and was divided among the Norman knights.

David took part in the civil war in England between Matilda and Stephen, in behalf of the former, who was his niece. He was obliged by Stephen to withdraw from the contest. He would not break his oath of fealty to Matilda, but evaded it by investing his son Henry with the Honor of Huntingdon, an English barony which he had previously held. Carlisle and Doncaster were also conferred upon Henry by the English king. Henry went to London with Stephen, and at his court took precedence of the English barons. Jealous of this honor to a foreign prince, the barons left the court in a body. David resented this insult by recalling his son to Scotland, and prepared to invade England. In 1138 his army ravaged the northern counties, but a little later he sustained a severe defeat at the hands of the English in the battle of the Standard near Northallerton. Peace was made the next year at Durham. David's son Henry was invested with the earldom of Northumberland, in England. Two years later, 1141, David again took up arms in behalf of Matilda, and narrowly escaped capture when her forces were defeated in the battle of Winchester.

David was one of Scotland's greatest, as well as one of her best kings. He labored to promote the welfare of his people at home, and abroad firmly upheld the honor and renown of his kingdom. He steadily promoted the civilization of the country, introduced many foreign manners and customs, and induced a large number of Norman barons to settle in Scotland, and gave them lands. He was a warm friend to the commons, and promoted the growth of the towns, upon which he bestowed many important privileges. He was always accessible to the poorest of his subjects, and would listen to their complaints with patience, and

promptly redressed their grievances. He founded a number of abbeys and the bishoprics of Dunblane, Brechin, Aberdeen, Ross, Caithness, and Glasgow; and made many important reforms in the government of the church. During his reign the country made great progress in civilization, wealth, and fertility. His last years were clouded by the death of his only son Prince Henry, who was greatly beloved by the nation. David died in 1153, after a reign of twenty-nine years.

Malcolm IV., the eldest son of Prince Henry, succeeded his grandfather. He was not quite twelve years old at the time, but the principle of hereditary succession had made such progress in Scotland, that his accession was generally acquiesced in. When he was nineteen years old a rebellion broke out in Galloway, but was put down, and that district was reduced to direct dependence on the Scottish crown. A few years later the Lord of Argyle rose in revolt against the king. He was slain by treachery, and his possessions were added to the royal dominions. On the other hand, Malcolm was obliged by Henry II. to relinquish the sovereignty of the northern counties of England, which had been held by David. He was then invested with the Honor of Huntingdon, as a fief of the English crown.

William, surnamed the Lion, came to the throne at the death of his brother Malcolm, in 1165. His reign is the longest in Scottish history, and lasted until 1214, a period of nearly fifty years. At the outset of his reign he demanded of Henry II. of England, the earldom of Northumberland, which his father had held and his brother had lost. Henry refused to grant it, and William invaded England while Henry was absent in France, and overran a large part of the northern counties. Rashly exposing himself, he was captured with several of his principal nobles near Alnwick Castle in the summer of 1174, and was sent as a prisoner to the Castle of Falaise in Normandy. At the close of the year William regained his liberty by agreeing to hold his crown as the vassal of the King of England, and requiring his nobles and clergy to do homage to Henry. The principal strongholds of Scotland were garrisoned with English troops, and William and his nobles and clergy did homage to Henry at York as their feudal lord. This degrading treaty continued in force until the death of Henry

II. in 1189. His successor, Richard I., being in want of money, released William from his obligations and restored the Scottish castles upon the payment of the sum of 10,000 marks. He refused, however, to bestow upon William the earldom of Northumberland. Upon the accession of John to the English crown, William did him such homage as the Scottish kings had formerly paid the King of England for their fiefs in that country. The two kings thoroughly distrusted each other, and for several years of his reign William was obliged to keep a considerable force on the border to protect Berwick, the largest trading town of Scotland, from the efforts of John to ruin its commerce.

In 1176 the Archbishop of York once more claimed Scotland as a part of his province. The Scottish clergy appealed to the pope, and Clement III., in 1188, confirmed their claim of independence, and declared Scotland subject in religious matters only to the Holy See. During William's captivity a formidable revolt broke out in Galloway, but was put down by William's nephew Roland, who was confirmed in possession of the district. In 1214 William died at Stirling.

Alexander II., the only son of William, now became King of Scotland. He took part in the war between the English barons and King John, fighting on the side of the barons, in the hope of regaining Northumberland. He received the homage of the northern barons, and joining his forces with theirs, marched to Dover to welcome and do homage to Prince Louis of France, who had been invited by the barons to come over and take the English crown. The death of John and the acceptance of his son Henry III. by the English put an end to the struggle. In 1217 Alexander did homage to Henry, and was invested with the Honor of Huntingdon. In 1221 the Scottish king married the Princess Joanna, the sister of Henry of England. This marriage was followed by a peace of nearly a century with England. Alexander agreed to exchange his claim to the earldom of Northumberland for a grant of the lands of Penrith and Tynedale. So cordial were the relations between the two kings that when Henry went to France he left the border under the protection of Alexander. In 1222 the two kings appointed a joint commission to determine the border between England and Scotland. Their labors re-

sulted in fixing the line which still divides the two countries. A wide district on either side was left as a neutral ground. Alexander died in 1249, while engaged in an expedition against the Western Isles.

Alexander III. was but eight years old when he succeeded his father. He was solemnly crowned at Scone, and on Christmas day, 1251, was married at York to the Princess Margaret, the daughter of Henry III. On this occasion he did homage to Henry for the lands he held in England. Henry demanded that he should do homage for Scotland also, but Alexander evaded this, by declaring that in a matter of such grave moment he must first consult the lords of Scotland. In 1278 Alexander went to Westminster to do homage to Edward I., the new king of England. Edward renewed the claim of his father to the homage of Scotland, but Alexander refused to acknowledge it. For the time Edward forebore to enforce his claim. In 1262, Hakon, King of Norway, attacked the Orkneys and Hebrides with a powerful fleet, and then crossed to the western coast of Scotland, along which he committed great ravages. The Northmen gained no permanent advantage in this expedition, but in 1281 Margaret, the oldest daughter of the Scottish king, was married to Eric, the heir to the crown of Norway. She died two years later, leaving a daughter named Margaret. A few months later Alexander, the only son of the Scottish king, died, and the infant Margaret became the heir to the crown of Scotland. In 1286 Alexander III. was killed by a fall from his horse.

The death of Alexander closed what may be termed the second period of Scottish history. "It had begun with the dethronement of Donald Bane, the last Celtic king, nearly two hundred years before, and during that time the boundary of Scotland had been extended by the annexation of Argyle and of the Isles, while the two dependencies of Lothian and Galloway had been more closely drawn to her, though they still remained separate and distinct. Throughout this period the influence of England, though peaceable, had been stronger than it was ever to be again. English laws and English customs had been brought in, and had, in many cases, taken the place of the old Celtic usages. The Celtic *Maers* had been removed to make way for the sheriffs of the crown. But, as Scotland was not divided like England into

shires, the sheriffs were not, as in England, the reeves of the already existing shires, but officers who were placed by the king over certain districts. These districts or sheriffdoms became the counties of later times. Feudalism after the Norman model, with all its burthensome exactions and oppressions, had been brought in and had taken firmer root in Scotland than it ever did in England. The native chiefs had been displaced by foreign nobles, so that a purely Norman baronage held the lands, whether peopled by a Celtic or a Saxon peasantry. In some cases the new owners founded families afterwards known under Celtic names; for, while the Celts gave their own names to the lands on which they settled, the Normans took the names of the lands conferred upon them and bore them as their own. The long peace with England, which had lasted unbroken for nearly a century, had been marked by great social progress. The large proportion of land that was now under the plough proves that during this untroubled time husbandry must have thriven, roads and bridges were many and in good repair, and the trading towns had made great advances in riches and power. Hitherto no one town had distinctly taken its place as the capital. St. John's Town, or Perth, had, from its connection with Scone, some claim to the first place, but the king held his court or his assize indifferently at any of the royal burghs. These burghs were of great importance in the state, and, as the burgesses of the royal burghs were all vassals holding direct from the crown, they acted in some sort as a check on the growing power of the nobles. The burghers had the right of governing themselves by their own laws, and were divided into two groups. Those north of the Scots' Water, or Frith of Forth, were bound together by a league like the great continental Hansa, and known by the same name; while those in Lothian, represented by the four principal among them—Roxburgh, Stirling, Edinburgh, and Berwick—held their 'court of the four burghs,' which is still represented by the 'convention of royal burghs' which meets once a year in Edinburgh. Nor were the Scottish towns of this period in any way behind the cities of the continent. Berwick, the richest and the greatest, was said by a writer of the time to rival London. Inverness had a great reputation for shipbuilding. A ship which was built there called forth the envy

and wonder of the French nobles of that time. But this happy state of affairs was brought to an end by the death of the king, and the long years of war and misery that followed went far to sweep away all traces of the high state of civilization and prosperity that had been reached by the country in this, the golden age of Scottish history."

Within the month following the death of Alexander III., the estates of Scotland met at Scone, and appointed a council of six regents to govern the kingdom for Margaret, the Maiden of Norway, who was then but three years old, and who had succeeded to her grandfather's crown. Robert Bruce, a Norman baron, whose ancestors had settled in Annandale in the twelfth century, attempted to seize the crown by force. He was the son of Isabella, the second daughter of David, Earl of Huntingdon, the brother of William the Lion. He appealed to Edward I. of England, as liege lord of Scotland, to sustain his claim. The estates opposed him, and a treaty was negotiated with Edward for the marriage of Margaret with the son and heir of the English king. It was stipulated that Scotland should remain a distinct and separate kingdom, and that her independence should be respected by England after the union of the two crowns by the proposed marriage. The arrangement was broken off by the death of Margaret, in 1290, when on her way to Scotland.

With Margaret the direct line of William the Lion ended. Several claimants of the crown now appeared, who based their claims upon their descent from David, Earl of Huntingdon. The principal of these were Robert Bruce and John Balliol, the grandson of David's daughter Margaret. Both appealed to Edward I. of England, to decide the matter. Edward decided in favor of Balliol, who towards the close of the year 1292 was crowned King of Scotland, as John I., at Scone. As the price of his decision Edward required John to do homage to him for his crown. It was the ardent wish of the English king to unite the whole of Britain under the rule of England. He had just added Wales to his kingdom, and he determined to rule Scotland by making John his vassal.

Immediately after his coronation, John summoned the estates to meet at Scone. This assembly was now termed for the first time a parliament. John was a weak and incompetent ruler, and was generally re-

garded by his people as a mere tool of the English king. Roger Bartholomew, a burgess of Berwick, being dissatisfied with an unfavorable decision of one of the Scottish courts, appealed to King Edward, who ordered a hearing of his case before a council at Newcastle. This was a direct violation of Edward's treaty with Scotland, but he compelled John to submit to it. A few months later Macduff, the granduncle of the Earl of Fife, appealed to Edward from a decision of the estates concerning the lands of the houses of Bruce and Douglas. Edward summoned John to appear before the English parliament, but even the submissive king revolted from so abject a surrender of his country's liberties. He was thereupon declared a contumacious vassal, and was ordered by Edward to surrender into his hands three of his principal fortresses until he should give satisfaction. John's reply to this was the formation of an alliance with the Kings of Norway and France against England. In this measure he was heartily supported by the nobles and people of Scotland. From this time until the Reformation France could always count upon Scotland as a faithful ally. Immediately upon the conclusion of the alliance, the Scottish army crossed the border and ravaged the northern counties of England.

Edward had now the pretext for the subjugation of Scotland for which he had been so long watching, and he at once availed himself of it. He immediately marched northward with a large army, and laid siege to Berwick, which he captured in spite of the determined resistance of the citizens. He took a stern vengeance upon the people of Berwick, and reduced the city to the rank of an ordinary market town, A. D. 1294. He then advanced to Dunbar, defeated the Scottish army near that place, and took the Castle of Dunbar. Continuing his march to Edinburgh he established his head-quarters at Holyrood, and laid siege to the castle, which he captured. He seized the crown jewels of Scotland, which were kept in Edinburgh castle, and then pressed on to Stirling and Perth, both of which places fell into his hands. He took the Stone of Destiny from Scone and sent it to Westminster Abbey, where it is still kept. All the old kings of Scotland had been crowned on this stone, and the Scots universally believed that the stone was in some mysterious way linked with the destiny of

their country. They therefore regarded its capture as a national misfortune. Edward advanced as far north as Elgin, and in 1296 returned to Berwick. Scotland was completely subdued. John was deprived of his crown, and sent as a prisoner to England. He was subsequently permitted to retire to his estate in Picardy, in France, where he died in 1315. The Scottish nobles were compelled to swear fealty to Edward, who treated Scotland as a fief forfeited by the treason of the vassal who had held it. All the castles were garrisoned with English troops; the Scots were not permitted to hold any office of importance, and were treated with great severity; and Scotland was administered by English officials as an integral part of the English kingdom. The Earl of Warrene and Surrey was appointed guardian of Scotland, and governed it in the name of King Edward. The highlanders, who had not been directly molested by Edward, paid no attention to the change in the government, and the Norman nobles quietly accepted it. The tyranny of the English, however, soon drove a portion of the Scottish nation into resistance.

William Wallace, a gentleman of Clydesdale, having suffered a grievous injury at the hands of an English officer, killed him. He escaped to the woods, and called upon his countrymen to aid him in freeing Scotland from foreign rule, A. D. 1297. "He was endowed with gigantic force of body, with heroic courage of mind, with disinterested magnanimity, with incredible patience, and ability to bear hunger, fatigue, and all the severities of the seasons." By degrees he collected about him a band of devoted followers, and soon found himself able to attempt the work to which he had devoted his life. He surprised and cut to pieces the English garrison at Lanark, and slew Haselrig, the newly appointed sheriff of Ayr. This success was followed by several others, and, his forces growing stronger, he attacked Scone, in which Ormesby, the justiciary to whom Warrene had deputed the government, was holding his court. Ormesby escaped, but many prisoners and much booty fell into Wallace's hands. He next attacked Glasgow, and compelled Anthony Beck, the Bishop of Durham, to take flight to England. All the English officials, save those in the fortified places, now abandoned their posts and fled into their own country. Wallace, whose suc-

cesses had aroused the spirit of Scotland once more, was now joined by Lord William Douglas and Robert Bruce, Earl of Carrick, and soon found himself at the head of a considerable force. The nobles, however, looked coldly upon the movement, and when, in the summer of 1297, an English army under Lord Percy advanced into Scotland, they renewed their allegiance to Edward. Believing that the outbreak was over, Lord Percy soon withdrew his forces into England. Wallace immediately took the field again, and was joined by large numbers of lowlanders. By a series of rapid movements he soon made himself master of the fortresses north of the Tay. Earl Warrene assembled an army of 40,000 men, and advanced against him. On the 11th of September, 1297, he attacked Wallace in the plain of Stirling, and was utterly routed. Among the slain was Cressingham, the English treasurer of Scotland, who had made himself odious to the Scots by his rapacity. They flayed his dead body, and made saddles and girths of his skin. Warrene retreated into England, and Wallace, following him, ravaged the northern counties with great cruelty, and returned to Scotland laden with plunder. All the strongholds south of the Forth passed into the hands of the Scots, and Wallace was made guardian of the kingdom.

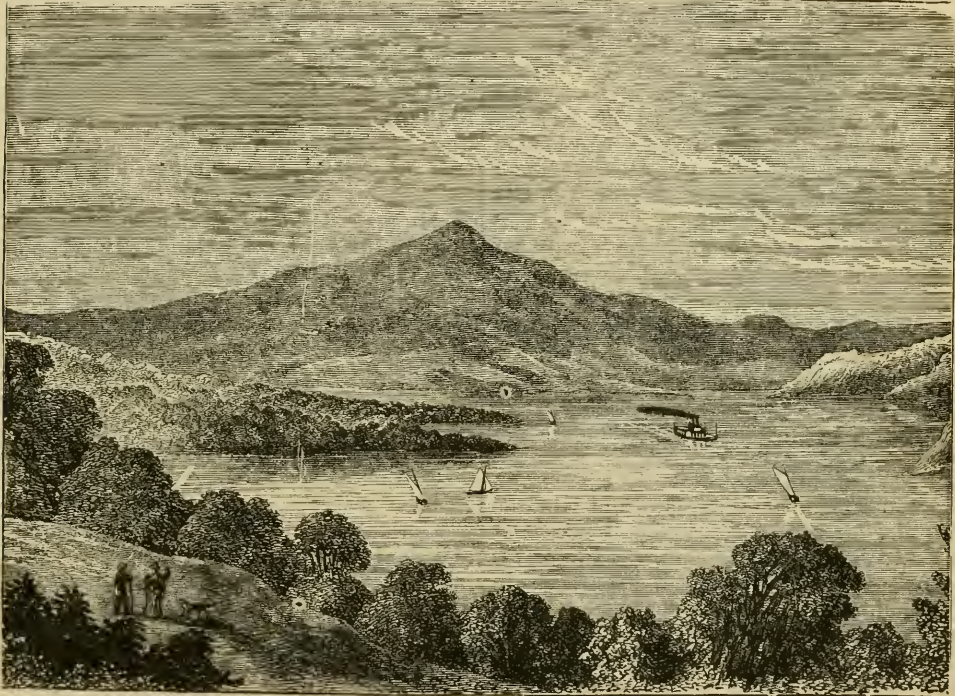
Edward had been absent in Flanders during this campaign. He now returned to England, and assembling an army of nearly 100,000 men, marched into Scotland. He attacked the Scottish army under Wallace at Falkirk (1298), and inflicted a decisive defeat upon it. Wallace resigned the guardianship of the kingdom, and Edward returned to Carlisle. Though he held the southern lowlands, the northern lowlands maintained their resistance until 1303, when they too were compelled to submit to England. Edward granted an amnesty to all the Scottish leaders with the exception of Wallace, who was required to submit unconditionally to the clemency of the king. Since the battle of Falkirk Wallace had been absent on the continent. He now returned to Scotland, and was soon after betrayed into the hands of the English by Sir John Menteith, his trusted friend. He was sent to London, and was executed as a traitor. The Scots have always honored him as a martyr to the cause of his country, and to this day his memory is cherished as the greatest of the Scottish heroes.

The English were now supreme in Scotland. The kingdom was governed by a lieutenant of the King of England, aided by a council of barons and bishops. It was given a representation of ten deputies in the English parliament, and English officials were appointed in every department of the government. Edward endeavored by just treatment of the Scots to win their favor, but he could not succeed in suppressing the natural longings of the nation for independence.

The discontents of the Scots soon brought on another revolt. Robert Bruce, Earl of

who was despatched by Sir Roger Kirkpatrick, one of Bruce's followers. By this act, which combined murder and sacrilege, Bruce drew upon himself the vengeance of Edward and of the church. It made him the legitimate heir to the throne, however, and so won for him the sympathy and support of his countrymen, who were very impatient under the English yoke. Bruce at once advanced his claims to the throne, and on the 27th of March, 1306, was solemnly crowned King of Scotland at Scone.

Edward prepared to crush this new outbreak with vigor. Aymer de Valence was



LOCH LOMOND.

Carrick, who had been concerned in Wallace's wars, had been pardoned by Edward and received into favor by him. He meant to renew the effort to regain the freedom of his country, and his plotting for that purpose being discovered by Edward, he was obliged to fly from the English court. He hastened to Dumfries, where he had an interview in the Grey Friars Church with John Comyn of Badenoch, called the Red Comyn, who was, next to Balliol and his sons, the heir to the Scottish throne. What passed between them is unknown, but the interview ended in Bruce's stabbing Comyn,

made Governor of Scotland. Bruce was declared a traitor and was excommunicated by a special bull from the pope, and all who had aided him were punished with great severity as fast as they fell into the hands of the English. Nigel Bruce, the brother of Robert; Christopher Seton, his brother-in-law, and three other nobles were executed. The shedding of the blood of these men did much to alienate the Scottish nobility from England, and to induce them to make common cause with the people. Edward assembled a powerful army and marched northward. He died at Burgh-

on-the-Sands, on the 30th of July, 1306, and with his dying breath enjoined his son and successor to prosecute the war with vigor. Edward II., however, soon abandoned the struggle, and Scotland was given several years more in which to prepare for the decisive contest with her old enemy.

King Robert was not acknowledged by the entire Scottish nation, and for several years his prospects were so desperate that he was a wanderer and an outlaw. During this time he maintained an irregular warfare with the English, in which he greatly increased his reputation for good generalship and personal daring. His chief enemies were the Earl of Buchan and Macdougall of Lorn, who had been won over to the English interests. At length Bruce was forced to take refuge in the island of Rachrin, off the north coast of Ireland. According to the tradition, he had almost decided to give up the struggle in Scotland and to join the crusade. As he lay in bed one morning in the hut in which he had taken shelter, he saw a spider vainly attempting to throw its web across from beam to beam in the roof above him. Six times the insect made the effort and failed. "Six times," said Bruce to himself, "have I failed in my efforts against the English." He watched with renewed interest to see if the spider would repeat the attempt. "If it does," he said, "I will take it as an encouragement to try again." To his delight, the spider made another effort and was successful. Greatly encouraged, Bruce went back to Scotland, and joining some of his followers in the isle of Arran, passed over to the mainland. His force was small, and he had to encounter many perils. He bore his trials manfully, and infused his patience and hopefulness into his followers, whose numbers increased slowly, and at last he defeated his old enemy, the Earl of Buchan, in a battle near Inverary. He followed up this success by ravaging the lands of Buchan with fire and sword. His cause gained ground steadily, and soon the Scottish clergy acknowledged him as their king, thus virtually relieving him of the ban of excommunication. This was a great gain for him. One by one the Scottish strongholds fell into his hands, until at last only Stirling remained to the English. It was so hard pressed that the governor agreed to surrender it if not relieved by the Feast of St. John the Baptist, 1314. Edward II. assembled an army of 100,000

men, and marched rapidly to the relief of Stirling. He was routed by the Scottish army under Bruce, at Bannockburn, within sight of Stirling, on the 24th of June, 1314. The English fled into their own country, and Edward never drew rein until he reached Dunbar, from which he took ship for Berwick.

During this period Lord James Douglas, the son of the Douglas who had sustained Wallace, won so many successes over the English that his name became a terror to them. He was called the "Black Douglas," from his swarthy skin and black hair.

The battle of Bannockburn undid all the work of Edward I., and established the independence of Scotland. England refused to acknowledge this independence, and the struggle went on, causing great suffering to the borders of both kingdoms. England was also attacked in her dependency of Ireland, as we have seen. Edward Bruce, the brother of King Robert, invaded that island, and with the aid of Robert won for himself the crown of Ireland. Robert was obliged to return to Scotland, and soon afterwards Edward was defeated and slain. Meanwhile the war on the English border went on. The Scots won back Berwick, and held it against all the efforts of the English to retake it. In 1328 the long struggle was brought to a close by the treaty of Northampton, between Robert I. of Scotland and Edward II. of England. Edward acknowledged the independence of Scotland and bound himself to respect it, and the two kings pledged themselves to be faithful allies and to refrain from stirring up trouble among their respective subjects. Edward's sister Joan was betrothed to Robert's infant son. By this treaty all the former submissions to England were done away with, and Lothian and Strathclyde became entirely independent of England and integral parts of Scotland. The struggle for independence produced another happy effect. It knit together in one compact people all the hitherto divided elements of the Scottish nation. Another result, not so fortunate, was the deep-rooted hatred of England and everything English that had grown up among all classes of the Scottish people. This feeling drove the Scots into an alliance with France, which shaped the future destiny of their country. King Robert entered into a treaty with France by which he bound himself to invade England whenever France should declare war

against that country. In 1318 the Scottish parliament settled the succession to the crown: first, on the direct male heirs, in the order of seniority; next on the direct female heirs; and, in the event of the failure of both of these, on the next of kin. This parliament also forbade the holders of Scottish estates residing in England from carrying the produce or revenues of those lands out of the kingdom. This was done to compel the landholders of Scotland to be Scotch alone. The parliament of 1326 admitted representatives from the burghs, and acknowledged the Third Estate as an essential part of the Scottish parliament. Robert died at Cardross in 1329, leaving one son. He was greatly mourned by the Scots.

CHAPTER II.

FROM DAVID II. TO JAMES VI.

David II. King—The Regency—Revolt of the Nobles—Edward Balliol Made King—Robert the Steward Drives out the English—David Regains the Throne—Invades England—Is Defeated and Captured—His Release and Death—Robert II.—The Stuarts—War with England—Battle of Otterburn—Robert III.—Anarchy in Scotland—James I. Proclaimed King—Regency of the Duke of Albany—James Released by the English—Mounts the Throne—His Vigorous Measures—Attempts to Break the Power of the Highlanders—Murder of the King—Reforms of this Reign—James II.—Fall of the Black Douglasses—James Takes Part in the English Civil Wars—James III.—His Efforts to Curb the Power of the Nobles—The Affair of the Bridge of Lauder—Murder of the King—James IV.—Efforts to Strengthen the Authority of the Crown—Relations with England—Conquers the Lord of the Isles—War with England—Battle of Flooden—Death of James—Advance of Civilization in Scotland—James V.—The Regency—Feuds Between the Nobles—The “Erection of the King”—Fall of the Red Douglasses—James Puts Down the Borderers—The Reformation Begun—Death of James—Mary Proclaimed Queen—The Earl of Arran Regent—War with England—The Queen Sent to France—The English Driven from Scotland—Spread of the Reformation—Murder of Cardinal Beaton—The Queen—Mother Becomes Regent—The French Influence Obnoxious to the Scots—Rapid Increase of the Power of the Reformers—The First Covenant—The Lords of the Congregation—They Demand of the Regent a Reform in Matters of Religion—Traucherous Conduct of the Regent—Religious Riots—The Regent Deposed—England Aids the Reformers—Treaty of Edinburgh—Death of the Regent—The Roman Catholic Religion Overthrown—Presbyterianism Established—Return of Queen Mary—John Knox—His Treatment of the Queen—Arrogance of the Reformed Clergy—Revolt of the Earl of Huntly—The Queen Marries Darnley—Murder of Rizzio—Birth of James VI.—Bothwell Secures the Queen’s Favor—Murder of Darnley—Marriage of the Queen to Bothwell—Civil War—The Queen a Prisoner—Abdicates her Throne.

DAVID II. was but eight years old at the time of his father’s death. He was crowned at Scone, and was also anointed. The latter ceremony had never before been performed in Scotland, as it was regarded as the exclusive right of independent sovereigns. The kingdom was governed by Lord Randolph as regent. In the early part of his reign the English barons who had been dispossessed of their estates in Scotland by the law of the last reign, which we have mentioned, invaded Scotland with the avowed purpose of making Edward, the son of John Balliol, king. At this juncture Randolph, the regent, died. He was succeeded by Donald, Earl of Mar, who, like Randolph, was a nephew of Robert Bruce. The invaders landed on the coast of Fife, and defeated the Scottish army under the regent, who was killed. The victors then occupied Perth, and on the 24th of September, 1332, crowned Edward Balliol king at Scone. Edward acknowledged himself the vassal of the King of England. The Scots, irritated by this invasion of their country, made war on the English border counties, and so gave Edward III. a pretext for invading Scotland. In the spring of 1333 he laid siege to Berwick. The regent, Archibald Douglas, marched to relieve it, but was defeated at Halidon Hill, and Berwick was obliged to capitulate. Edward Balliol ceded the town to the English, and surrendered to them all the fortified places south of the Forth. The war was continued along the border for three years with varying success. At length, Edward III. being occupied with his contest with France, the national party of Scotland, under Robert, the high steward of the kingdom, who became regent in 1338, won back the fortresses, and in 1341 drove Edward Balliol out of the country. David and his wife, Joan of England, who had been sent to France to insure their safety, were at once brought back to Scotland, and the king assumed the government of his kingdom. A truce was entered into with England, and a period of five years of peace ensued, broken only by raids along the border. In 1346 Edward III. being engaged in the siege of Calais, David broke the truce in the interest of France, and invaded England. He was defeated and made prisoner in the battle of Neville’s Cross. He remained a captive for eleven years, during which time Scot-

land was governed by the former regent, Robert the Steward. The Scots retook Berwick, but lost it again. Edward, upon his return from France, advanced into Scotland as far as the Forth, but the Scots retired before him, devastating their country as they retreated. In 1347 David was released on payment of a ransom of 100,000 marks. The remainder of his reign was

land having expired, Robert renewed the war. The King of France sent a force of 2,000 men, and arms and money, to his Scottish ally. Richard II. invaded Scotland, but the principal damage he inflicted was the destruction of Melrose Abbey. The Scots and French in the meantime ravaged the northern counties of England with fire and sword. Upon Richard's



PALACE OF HOLYROOD.

uneventful. He died in 1370, and left no children.

Robert the Steward, the son of David's sister, now mounted the throne as Robert II. The office of steward was hereditary, and had descended from Walter Fitz-Alan, upon whom David I. had bestowed it. From it the family took the name of Stewart or Stuart, by which it is known in Scottish history. Robert's accession was undisputed. In 1385, the truce with Eng-

land having expired, Robert renewed the war. The French returned to their own country. A few years later war broke out again upon the border. In this contest the Earl of Douglas was slain in the hard-fought battle of Otterburn, in August, 1388. The next year peace was made between England and Scotland, and in 1390 Robert died.

Robert was succeeded by his eldest son, John, who ascended the throne as Robert III. He was weak in both body and mind,

and the government of the kingdom fell into the hands of his brothers, Robert, Duke of Albany, and Alexander, Earl of Buchan. Albany was the real ruler. The country was in a state of anarchy, and lawless violence prevailed in every part of it. The nobles and chieftains fought out their quarrels, some of their conflicts assuming the proportions of battles, and robbed and maltreated the peasants and burghers. A border war broke out with England in 1400 in consequence of the revival by Henry IV. of the English claim to the crown of Scotland. Peace was made a year or two later. In 1405 the English captured James, Earl of Carrick, the eldest son of King Robert, and the heir to the throne of Scotland, while on his way to France. Though taken in a time of peace, he was held as a prisoner. In 1406 Robert died.

The Regent Albany at once proclaimed James I. King of Scotland, though he was still in captivity, and administered the government in his name. Peace was nominally maintained with England, but the border war went on, and many of the frontier fortresses were recovered by the Scots. Jedburgh was retaken, and was destroyed as the best means of preventing its occupation by the English in future invasions. In 1411 the highlanders, led by Donald, Lord of the Isles, burst into the lowlands north of the Forth with the intention of ravaging it. They were defeated by the lowlanders, under Alexander Stewart, Earl of Mar, at Harlow, in Aberdeenshire, on the 24th of July, and Scotland was thus delivered from a terrible danger. The Duke of Albany died in 1419, and was succeeded in the regency and in his dukedom by his son. The country was so full of anarchy, however, that the power of the regent was chiefly nominal. The true remedy for the disorders was the placing of the king on his throne. His release was secured by Douglas and some of the other

nobles, and in 1424 he returned to Scotland. The Scots were required to pay to England the sum of forty thousand pounds, to defray the cost of his maintenance and education during his eighteen years of captivity.

James I. had married during his captivity Joan, the daughter of the Earl of Somerset, and she came with him to Scotland. James was aware that the Regent Albany and his supporters had endeavored to prevent his release, as they were un-



JAMES I. ORDERS THE ARREST OF THE DUKE OF ALBANY.

willing to relinquish the government, but he let eight months pass by without showing any sign of displeasure. He then arrested Albany, his two sons, and twenty-six other noblemen during the session of the parliament at Perth. Albany and his sons were tried before a jury of twenty-one peers, presided over by the king. They were found guilty of treason, and were executed at Stirling. James then summoned the chiefs of the highland clans and the Western Isles to a parliament at Inverness in 1427. They were arrested immediately upon their ar-

rival, and were thrown into prison. Three of them were hanged at once, and several others at a later date. Others were kept in prison, and a mere handful only allowed to return to their estates. James had hoped to strike terror to these barbarous chiefs by his stern measures, but failed to accomplish his object. Alexander, Lord of the Isles, was one of those who were suffered to return home. He immediately rallied his followers, and marching to Inverness, destroyed the town. James hastened northward, and defeated him in Lochaber. Alexander surrendered unconditionally to the king, and was confined in Tantallon Castle. His kinsman, Donald Balloch, raised the clans in arms and defeated the royal forces. James thereupon assembled a powerful army and marched into the highlands, determined to crush the power of the clans once and forever. Seeing that the king was too strong for them, the chiefs submitted and did homage to him. James next proceeded to deprive some of the most powerful and dangerous nobles of their lands, and to bestow them upon others. This drew upon him the vengeance of the nobles; a conspiracy was formed against him, and he was treacherously murdered as he was keeping Christmas in the Monastery of the Black Friars at Perth, 1436.

The reign of James I. is one of the most noted in Scottish history. Many laws were enacted by his parliaments for the advancement of the best interests of the people. The king caused a collection of the statutes of the kingdom to be made, in which he set aside all laws that were obsolete and retained only those that were then in force. He established a definite standard of weights and measures, and caused the coinage of the kingdom to be regulated upon a scale which made it equal in weight and fineness to the money of England. He created the office of treasurer; caused the acts of parliament to be published in the language of the people; and instituted schools of archery in order that the Scottish bowmen might be as well trained as those of England. He was a well-educated man himself and was a patron of learning. He was also a poet. Some of his poems still exist, and show him to have been possessed of real genius.

James II. was but eight years old at the time of his father's murder. He was proclaimed king, and a struggle ensued for the wardship of his person between the queen-

mother, William Crichton, the Chancellor, and Governor of Edinburgh Castle, and Archibald Livingstone, Governor of Stirling Castle. It was ended by the withdrawal of the queen-mother, and an agreement between Crichton and Livingstone to share between them the power which the possession of the king's person brought with it.

The most powerful noble of Scotland at this time was Archibald, Earl of Douglas. He held Galloway, Annandale, and other estates in Scotland, and the duchy of Touraine in France. He had been made lieutenant-governor of the kingdom, and could easily have gotten all the power into his hands had he tried to do so. He died in 1439, and was succeeded in his possessions by his son William, a youth of seventeen. The new earl maintained an almost royal state, and was accused of many acts of violence and oppression. The king's guardians determined to get rid of him, and invited Douglas and his brother David to visit James at Edinburgh. Upon their arrival there, they were seized, and after a mock trial were beheaded in the castle yard. The estates of the Douglas family were divided, a part going with the title to James, the grand-uncle of William and David, the male heir, while Galloway was given to their sister Margaret. At the death of Earl James his son William married his cousin Margaret of Galloway, and thus reunited the estates. Earl William then repaired to court, where he managed to get most of the power of the government into his hands. He openly defied the king's commands, and as he could put in the field a force of 5,000 of his own retainers, the king did not dare to punish him. Upon one occasion when James ordered him to release a prisoner whom he unlawfully held, Douglas had the man beheaded and then sent word to the king that he could have the body.

When James II. assumed the government, upon coming of age, he did so with the determination to get rid of Douglas. He invited the earl to Stirling and received him cordially. He then urged Douglas to break off his "bonds," or alliances with the highland chiefs, which threatened the power of the crown. Douglas refused, and James stabbed him. The wounded earl fell, and was despatched with a pole-axe by Sir Patrick Gray, one of the king's attendants. James Douglas, the brother and heir of the

murdered earl, threw off his allegiance to the king, and took up arms against him. He was joined by the Earls of Ross and Crawford. Too weak to defeat the rebels in the field, James undertook to break up their union by diplomacy. He succeeded so well that he not only defeated Douglas in the battle of Arkinholm in 1454, but compelled him to take refuge in England. An act of forfeiture was passed against him, and Galloway and certain other estates of the banished earl were declared the inalienable possessions of the crown. The better part of the remainder of the Douglas estates was conferred upon the Earl of Angus, the head of the Red Douglases, a rival branch of the family. Some of the former possessions of the Black Douglases were bestowed upon Sir James Hamilton. These vigorous measures not only humbled the proud house of Douglas, but firmly established the power of the king. James took part in the civil wars of England on the side of Henry VI., and endeavored to take advantage of the occasion to win back the towns in Scotland still held by the English. He laid siege to Roxburgh, and while directing the operations was killed by the bursting of a cannon, A. D. 1460. After his death Roxburgh was taken and destroyed. This was the first siege in which the Scots used artillery.

James III. was but eight years old at the death of his father. For six years the Bishop of St. Andrews governed the kingdom as regent. At his death Lord Boyd got possession of the king's person and the regency. In 1469 James was married to Margaret, daughter of King Christian of Norway. As security for her dowry the Orkney and Shetland Isles were placed by Norway in the keeping of Scotland. As the dowry was never paid, the islands remained in the possession of the Scots and became a part of the kingdom. James now turned upon the Boyds, and punished their seizure of his person by the execution of the younger son of the regent and the confiscation of the family estates, which were now declared the inalienable possessions of the crown. Lord Boyd and his oldest son, the Earl of Arran, escaped to England. The Duke of Albany, the king's brother, being suspected of plotting against James, was arrested and imprisoned in Edinburgh Castle. He escaped to France, from which he passed to England. Edward IV. agreed to help him to dethrone James, and the Douglases and the Lords of the Isles pledged

him their support. James declared war against England, placed himself at the head of a large army, and advanced as far as the Lauder. There the nobles, under the leadership of the Earl of Angus, determined to rid themselves of certain favorites of the king, who had become obnoxious to them. They seized them, and in spite of the entreaties of the king hanged them over Lauder bridge. This put a stop to the expedition, and the nobles returned to Edinburgh, with the king virtually a prisoner in their hands, A. D. 1482. The Duke of Albany returned to Scotland soon after this, and procured the release of his brother. For a short while he and the king lived together amicably, but at length Albany went back to England. Before his departure from Scotland he gave proof of his treasonable purposes by placing Dunbar Castle in the hands of the English. The unpopularity of the king continued to increase, and a conspiracy against him was formed by the southern nobles, who took the field with a large army and proclaimed James, the Prince of Scotland, king in the place of his father. The king was defeated in the battle of Sauchieburn, and fled from the field. He was thrown from his horse during his flight, and was carried to a mill on the Bannock Burn, where he was murdered by some unknown person, A. D. 1488.

The death of James III. threw the government into the hands of the rebellious nobles, and the Prince of Scotland became king as James IV. He was sixteen years old at the time, and for the next three or four years the kingdom was governed for him by the successful nobles. When he came of age and assumed the government, he soon showed himself an able and vigorous sovereign. He maintained a splendid court, and promoted the civilization of his country. His constant effort was to curb the power of the nobles and the highland chiefs, and to increase the authority of the crown. This drew upon him the animosity of some of the nobles, and schemes were set on foot for his capture. Henry VII. of England, being prevented by the state of affairs in his kingdom from making open war upon Scotland, secretly encouraged the plots against the king. James, upon discovering this, retaliated by espousing the cause of Perkin Warbeck, whom he received at his court as Richard, Duke of York, the son of King Edward. He gave Warbeck his kinswoman, Lady Catharine

Gordon, as a wife, and invaded England in his behalf. He got tired of him at last, and sent him off to Ireland, and in 1497 renewed the truce with Henry. In 1502 James married Margaret, the eldest daughter of Henry VII. As a means of curbing the power of the highlanders and the island chiefs James placed royal garrisons in the castles and fortresses of that region and built others. He was not able to carry this plan as far as he wished, and so resorted to the policy of using the feuds of the chieftains as a means of destroying them. The Earl of Huntly, the head of the house of Gordon, was made Sheriff of Inverness, Ross, and Caithness, and as a condition of this appointment the king required him to build and maintain a castle at Inverness. The Earl of Argyle, the head of the Campbells, was given the task of keeping order in the west. The king also endeavored to divide the islands into sheriffdoms, and to compel the highlanders to submit to the same laws as the lowlanders. The clans rallied under Donald Dhu, an illegitimate descendant of the last Lord of the Isles, to resist these measures. A three years' struggle with the king ensued, but in the end Donald was taken prisoner and brought to Edinburgh. His Lordship of the Isles was taken from him, and his dominions were confiscated to the crown, 1504.

In 1513 James unwisely renewed the old alliance between Scotland and France, and declared war against Henry VIII. He entered England at the head of a splendid army, but committed so many blunders that he entirely destroyed his prospect of success. On the 9th of September, 1513, he was defeated and slain in the battle of Flodden. The flower of the Scottish nobility fell with him, and the whole kingdom was plunged into mourning. James IV. was one of the most popular of the Scottish kings, and his reign was one of the most prosperous the country had ever known. Trade grew rapidly, and the exports of Scotland to foreign countries were greatly increased. In this reign the doctrines of the Reformation were introduced into Scotland. The clergy attempted to root them out by persecutions, but as usual without success. The art of printing was also brought into the kingdom, and the first press was set up by Walter Chapman, under the patronage of the king.

James V. was an infant of two years when his father's death made him king.

The news of the disaster at Flodden threw Scotland into the profoundest grief and alarm. Edinburgh was fortified with a wall, and preparations were made to resist the advance of the English. They were not needed, however, as Henry VIII. generously declined to press his advantage against his widowed sister, and, his own kingdom being safe, disbanded his army. The Scottish parliament met at Perth and appointed Queen Margaret regent, but within the year she married the Earl of Angus, and the parliament made John, Duke of Albany, high admiral of France and nephew of James III. of Scotland, regent in her place. Peace was made with England. Albany was very unpopular at first because of the great number of Frenchmen whom he brought with him. The queen mother at first refused to give up the young king to him, but was besieged in Stirling Castle and compelled to yield. The Hamiltons, at whose head was the Earl of Arran, and the Douglasses, whose chief was the Earl of Angus, kept up a constant warfare against each other, to the great detriment of the country. The Regent Albany, with the help of the French, put a stop to this strife. He seized Angus and sent him to France, from which country he soon escaped to England and joined his wife, who had fled to that country. Lord Home and his brother, two of the most powerful of the Douglas faction, were seized and beheaded after a mock trial. About a year after his appointment as regent the Duke of Albany went back to France, and left a Frenchman, named Anthony de la Bastie, as his representative in Scotland. He also placed the fortresses in charge of French garrisons. This increased the Scotch hatred of the French to a still greater degree. Anthony de la Bastie was killed by the Homes in revenge for the death of Lord Home. The feud between the Hamiltons and the Douglasses now broke out more violently than ever, and the rival factions fought their battles in the very streets of Edinburgh. The Douglasses were in the main successful, and the Earl of Angus drove the Hamiltons from Edinburgh and held the city with an armed force. Five years passed away, and Albany still remained in France. By threatenings and entreaties the Scottish parliament at length induced him to return to his post, A. D. 1520.

In 1522 Henry VIII. of England began

to interfere in the affairs of Scotland, and demanded that Albany should be dismissed from the regency and the alliance with France broken off. The estates refused this demand and prepared for war. A desultory warfare followed along the border. In 1524 Albany, who had greatly disgusted the nation with his mismanagement, abandoned the regency and sailed for France.

Upon Albany's departure from Scotland Henry VIII. endeavored to make the Scots break off the French connection. His strongest ally was his sister Margaret, the queen mother. Cardinal Beaton, Archbishop of St. Andrews, was the head of the French party in Scotland, and exerted himself to check the designs of Henry. The English influence was the stronger for the time, however, and in accordance with Henry's advice James V., now twelve years old, assumed the government in his own name, August, 1524. This act was called the "erection of the king." The capture of Francis I. at Pavia awakened great sympathy in Scotland, and turned the current of popular feeling once more in favor of France. In 1526 the king, who was fourteen years old, chose as his guardians the Earls of Errol, Argyle and Angus. Angus was the first to enter upon his duties, but at the end of his term refused to give up the king's person, and for two years held him in his power, and tyrannized over him in a manner that won him James' cordial hatred. In 1528 James escaped by night from Falkland, and rode, disguised as a groom, to Stirling Castle. He at once set to work to crush the Douglasses, and succeeded so well that Angus was obliged to fly to England. He was deprived of his possessions, and the ruin of his branch of the Douglas family was complete. The king next turned his attention to the borderers, who had become nearly as lawless and as troublesome as the highlanders. He punished them severely, and hanged John Armstrong, their most noted leader, as a common thief. It was the steady policy of James V. to break the power of the nobles and increase the authority of the crown. He made important reforms in the administration of justice, and in every way protected and befriended his people against the violence and extortions of the nobles. This won him their enthusiastic devotion, and gained for him the affectionate title of "king of the commons." He was a faith-

ful follower of the Roman Catholic Church, but during his reign Protestantism made great progress in Scotland, though cruelly persecuted by the primate, Cardinal Beaton. In 1542 Scotland became involved in a war with England, and an army was sent to invade that country. It reached the border, but was there surprised and shamefully routed by the English at Solway Moss, on the 6th of December. The news was brought to King James at Caerlaverock Castle, and at the same time he was told that a daughter had been born to him. The failure of a male heir and the shameful defeat of his army proved too much for the king, and on the 14th of December, 1542, he died of grief and disappointment.

James Hamilton, Earl of Arran, was chosen regent for the infant Queen Mary, who was left in the care of her mother, Mary of Lorraine, the second wife of James V. All Scotland was greatly depressed by the disaster at Solway Moss, and Henry VIII. took advantage of this despondency to compel the Scots to enter into a treaty for the marriage of the young Queen Mary to his son Edward, Prince of Wales. In this way he hoped to unite the crowns of England and Scotland. When the Scots recovered from their depression the estates repudiated the treaty, and on the 1st of May, 1544, Henry declared war against Scotland. The Earl of Hertford, the commander of the English army, made a savage raid into Scotland, but, though he sacked and burned Leith, and set fire to Edinburgh, he was defeated and driven across the border. The next year Hertford returned and ravaged the southern part of Scotland with fearful cruelty. Between two and three hundred villages, and a number of towns, churches and manors were burned by the English. Hertford effected no permanent conquest, however, and withdrew into his own country. In 1547 Hertford, now Duke of Somerset, and Protector of England during the minority of Edward IV., invaded Scotland a third time, and defeated the Scottish army at Pinkie on the 10th of September, 1547. Somerset then returned to England, taking the bulk of his army with him, but, as the southern fortresses were all in the hands of the English, the regent deemed it best to send the young Queen of Scotland to France, that she might be out of the reach of the English. By extraordinary exertions and with the aid of a French force of 6,000

men the regent succeeded in driving out the English, and in 1550 peace was made between Scotland and England.

During all this time the principles of the Reformation had been taking deep root and spreading rapidly in Scotland. The persecutions with which the Romish clergy sought to check the change greatly exasperated the Scots and added numerous converts to the reformers. When Henry VIII. of England suppressed the monasteries and confiscated their revenues, a large party in Scotland applauded his course, and advocated the adoption of the same measures in that country. In 1545 George Wishart was burned for preaching the reformed doctrines. The chief mover in this and the other persecutions of the time was the primate, Cardinal Beaton. Sixteen of Wishart's followers obtained admission to the Castle of St. Andrew's, Beaton's stronghold, and murdered him in revenge for the death of their teacher. They held the castle for fourteen months against the efforts of the regent to retake it, but were compelled at length to submit, and were sent to the French galleys. One of their number was John Knox, afterwards the great leader of the Scottish Reformation. The regent made his brother John Archbishop of St. Andrews in the place of the murdered Beaton.

In 1554 the Earl of Arran, being created Duke of Chatelheraut by the French king, resigned the regency and went to France. Mary of Lorraine, the mother of the young queen, succeeded him as regent, and a little later secured the marriage of her daughter with the Dauphin Francis, the heir to the crown of France. In 1559 Francis became King of France, and, by virtue of his marriage, King of Scotland. Frenchmen were placed by the regent in many of the offices of the kingdom, and were put in charge of the fortresses. Their airs of superiority soon drew upon them the cordial detestation of the Scots, who were impatient to see them out of the country.

The Reformation had made great progress in Scotland since the reign of James V. The bloody persecutions of the English Protestants by Queen Mary of England caused many of them to fly the kingdom and take refuge in Scotland. They were kindly received by the Scottish people, who sympathized warmly with their sufferings and came to abhor the church that had caused so much misery. The growing zeal

of the Scots for Protestantism overcame the national hatred which they had felt for the English but a few years before; and it may be safely asserted that the cruelties of Mary struck a death-blow to Romanism in Scotland as well as in her own kingdom. The movement took a different form in Scotland, and instead of following in the steps of the English reformers, the Scots formed the worship and government of their reformed church upon the standard of the French Calvinists. The Romish clergy in Scotland, like their brethren in other lands, had lost their influence over the common people by their dissolute mode of life and their irreligion, and had disgusted the nation by their rapacity and their gross abuse of their spiritual powers. Many of the nobles were sincerely in sympathy with the reformers, and many others sided with them because of their hope of obtaining some of the fertile and well-tilled lands of the Romish Church at its downfall.

The strength of the reformers grew silently but rapidly, and they soon became a powerful party. In 1557 they bound themselves by a bond or covenant, to stand by each other in procuring the downfall of the Roman Catholic Church in Scotland, and to exert all their powers in spreading the reformed faith and worship. This document, which was signed by the principal reformers, is known as the "First Covenant." It renounced the authority of the pope, and enjoined upon the reformed the use of the English Bible and the prayer-book of Edward VI. The nobles who signed the covenant were from that time known as the "Lords of the Congregation." In 1558 Walter Mill, an aged priest of pure life, was burned as a heretic at St. Andrews. This cruel act roused a storm of indignation in Scotland, and the lords of the congregation demanded of the regent a reformation of religion according to the principles set forth in their covenant. The regent, who was the daughter of the Duke of Guise, the mortal foe of the French Protestants, answered by summoning some of the reformed preachers to appear before the privy council. They prepared to obey her summons, and a strong body of their followers assembled at Perth to accompany and protect them. Alarmed by this display of strength, the regent entreated the reformers to disperse, and promised to withdraw her summons. So far from doing this, however, she outlawed the preachers for not

appearing before the council. Angered by this breach of faith, the reformers attacked the churches and religious houses in Perth on the 11th of May, 1559, and sacked them. Similar outbreaks took place in other towns. The lords of the congregation assembled their followers at Perth, and prepared for war. The regent marched against them with a force of French troops, but a conflict was prevented by negotiation. It was agreed that all the questions at issue between the government and the reformers should be settled by the Scottish parliament, and that in the meantime both parties should disarm, and that the French garrison should be withdrawn from Perth. With the duplicity characteristic of her family, the regent withdrew the French from Perth, but at once occupied it with a garrison of Scottish troops hired with French money. The reformers immediately took up arms again and occupied St. Andrews and Edinburgh. They declared the regent deposed, but proclaimed their loyalty to the king and queen. They were not strong enough to maintain their position, however, and were obliged to look to Elizabeth, who was now Queen of England, for support. Elizabeth, however, would not treat with the Scottish reformers at first, but in 1560 entered into a treaty with them at Berwick, by which she agreed to assist them with her troops against the French who were sent to help the regent to maintain her authority. An English contingent was promptly sent to the aid of the reformers, and several encounters took place between the allies and the regent's French forces. Before the close of the year the French were recalled to their own country, and the regent was forced to enter into the treaty of Edinburgh, which stipulated that in future no foreigners should be employed by the government without the consent of the estates. That body agreed, on behalf of the King and Queen of Scotland, to acknowledge Elizabeth as lawful Queen of England, and to relinquish all pretensions to her crown, 1560.

Soon after the conclusion of the treaty of Edinburgh the regent died. The estates then formally abjured the authority of the pope, forbade the saying of mass, or being present at it, under severe penalties, and declared the Geneva confession of faith the standard of the Church of Scotland. There was still a strong Catholic party in Scotland, and the old faith could not be entirely

destroyed by act of parliament. It died out by degrees, and in the course of a long series of future years.

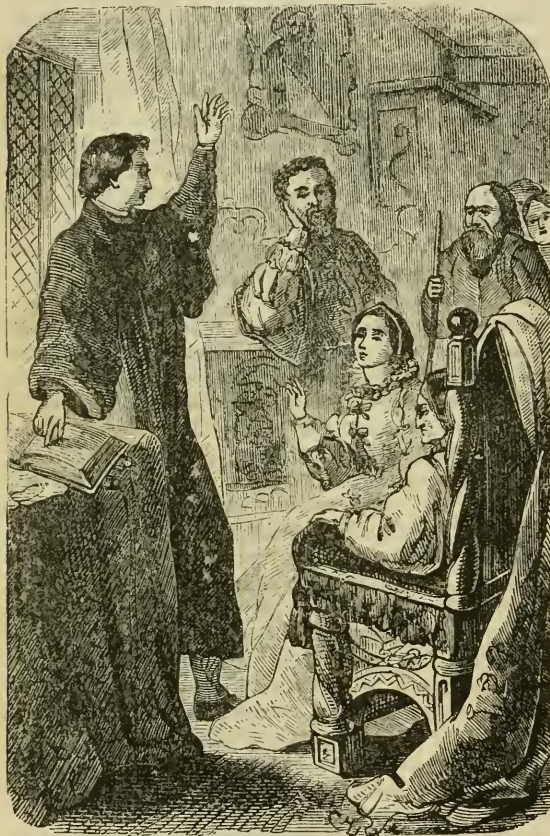
Francis II. being dead, his widow, Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland, determined to return to her own country. Eluding the vigilance of the English cruisers sent to intercept her, she landed at Leith on the 19th of August, 1561. She was received with rejoicings by all classes of her subjects, who were freed by the death of Francis of their fear that Scotland would be made a province of France. Mary was in her nineteenth year, and was in the bloom of her youth and beauty. She was highly accomplished, and her manners were graceful and captivating. She had been educated abroad, and she was a Scotswoman only in name and blood. In all things else she was French, and a stranger to her country and people. She was in no way fitted to rule so turbulent a nation at such a critical period, and being a zealous Romanist was the natural antagonist of the great movement that was sweeping over Scotland. Her first measures were calculated to reassure her people. She bestowed her confidence entirely upon the leaders of the reformed party, who she saw were alone capable of supporting her government, and issued a proclamation enjoining all of her subjects to conform to the established religion. For herself, however, she adhered to her own faith, and with difficulty obtained permission to have mass celebrated in her private chapel. This gave great offence to the reformed preachers, who could not "be reconciled to a person polluted with so great an abomination." John Knox and his colleagues undertook to remonstrate with the queen, and finding her firm in her religious views, broke out into coarse and brutal insults even in her presence. "The ringleader in these insults on the queen," says Hume, "was John Knox, who possessed an uncontrolled authority in the church, and even in the civil affairs of the nation, and who triumphed in the contumelious usage of his sovereign. His usual appellation of the queen was Jezebel; and though she endeavored, by the most gracious condescension, to win his favor, all her insinuations could make no impression on his obdurate heart. Mary, whose age, condition, and education invited her to liberty and cheerfulness, was curbed in all amusements by the absurd severity of those reformers; and she found every moment

reason to regret her leaving that country from whose manners she had in her early youth received her first impressions."

The reformed ministers were not a whit behind the deposed Romish clergy in their notions of ecclesiastical authority. They claimed that the confiscated church-lands belonged of right to them, and asserted their right to dictate to the nation in public as well as in private matters. They drew up a "First Book of Discipline" for the

of Huntly, who refused to obey the laws concerning the new religion. He was attacked and defeated by the royal forces, and was slain, in 1562. His son was beheaded at Aberdeen, and the power of the Gordons, as well as of the Catholics, was broken.

All parties were anxious for the queen to marry. Various matches were suggested to her, but she settled the matter by bestowing her hand upon her cousin, Henry Stewart, Lord Darnley, the son of the Earl of Lennox and Margaret Douglas, July 29, 1565. Darnley was created Earl of Ross and Duke of Albany. The Earl of Murray, the illegitimate brother of the queen, took up arms to oppose the marriage, and was joined by some of the other nobles. They were defeated and compelled to take refuge in England. Darnley proved weak and contemptible, and Mary soon grew tired of him. Like her father and grandfather, she had a weakness for making favorites, and as little discretion in the choice of them. She now took into favor her secretary, David Rizzio, an Italian, whose rare accomplishments in music enabled him to maintain his influence with her. He rendered himself obnoxious to the nobles by promoting the severities with which the queen treated the banished lords. They determined to get rid of him, and won Darnley over to their side by arousing his jealousy of the Italian. The plot was quickly matured. One evening as Mary was sitting at supper in Holyrood, Darnley and the conspirators, who had secured the gates of the palace, burst into the room, and in spite of the efforts of the queen to save him, dragged Rizzio into an outer room and killed him, March 9, 1566. When informed



JOHN KNOX PREACHING TO QUEEN MARY.

guidance of the church, and required its adoption. The nobles firmly refused to admit these claims or to accept as law the book of discipline. The lands had been generally distributed, and the privy council refused to interfere with the settlement. Of what was left, one-third was taken to pay the salaries of the clergy, while the rest went, under certain conditions, to the crown.

The Roman Catholics were still strong in the north. Their leader was the Earl

of his fate, Mary dissembled her feelings, and though determined upon revenge, appeared to be reconciled to her husband and promised to pardon the banished lords. They appeared before her the next day, and she received Murray with affection. She was resolved to secure a greater degree of freedom, however, and the next night fled with Darnley to Dunbar. The Earl of Bothwell rapidly assembled a force for her protection, and before the end of the month she was enabled to return to Edinburgh.

She at once cited the murderers of Rizzio to appear and answer for their crime. They failed to do so, and were outlawed. On the 19th of June the queen was delivered of a son in the Castle of Edinburgh.

Rizzio was succeeded in the queen's favor by the Earl of Bothwell, who had rendered her such good service by his prompt support of her at Dunbar. He was made lord high admiral and warden of the

Bothwell had committed the murder, and that Mary was privy to it. She gave color to this suspicion by failing to make any effort to discover the murderer, and by allowing Bothwell to browbeat the father of Darnley and frighten him from his efforts to bring the suspected parties, of whom Bothwell was one, to trial. Worse than all, on the 15th of May, 1567, the queen was married to Bothwell, who procured a



MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

borders, and was given the estates of Melrose and Haddington. Darnley was hated by his wife for his share in the murder of Rizzio, and by the nobles for his desertion of them after that event. He fell ill of the small-pox, and was removed to a house called the Kirk-o' Field, in the suburbs of Edinburgh. On the night of the 9th of February, 1567, this house was blown up by gunpowder, and Darnley was killed. It was the general belief at the time that

divorce from his wife in order to enter into this union. The nobles sternly resented the queen's conduct, and took up arms against her. She was compelled to surrender to them on the 15th of June, 1567. Bothwell escaped to Denmark, where he died in 1577. The queen was carried back to Edinburgh as a prisoner, and was received by the people with the most insulting demonstrations. A little later she was sent to Lochleven Castle, and a few days afterwards a number

of letters were produced by her enemies purporting to have been written by her to Bothwell. These letters, if genuine, prove her to have been an accomplice in the murder of Darnley; but their genuineness has been seriously called in question. They were accepted as authentic at the time, and the queen was compelled to sign an abdication of her crown in favor of her infant son James, 1567.

CHAPTER III.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF JAMES VI. TO THE UNION WITH ENGLAND.

James VI. Crowned King—Murray Regent—Escape of Queen Mary—Battle of Langside—Flight of Mary to England—Her Captivity there—Her Party in Scotland—Murder of Murray—The Earl of Lennox made Regent—Surrender of Dumbarton Castle—Death of Lennox—The Earl of Mar Regent—Is Succeeded by Morton—James Assumes the Government—Fall of Morton—The Ruthven Lords—The King a Prisoner—He Escapes—Execution of Mary—Conduct of James—Marriage of the King to Anne of Denmark—Episcopacy Abolished—Submission of the Earl of Huntly—Troubles of James with the Reformed Ministers—James Becomes King of England—The Union of the Crowns—James Becomes an Episcopalian—Episcopacy Re-established in Scotland—The Bishops—The Five Articles—Charles I.—His Attempts Against the Liberties of the Scottish Church—Visits Scotland—Archbishop Laud—Attempt to Use the Liturgy—Riots—The Solemn League and Covenant—Charles Summons an Assembly—It Deposes the Bishops—The King Defied—Montrose Subdues the North for the Covenant—Pacification of Berwick—The War Breaks Out Again—Success of the Scots—The King Yields to the Nation—The Civil War in England—The Scots Side with the Parliament—Montrose Espouses the King's Cause—His Successes—Charles Surrenders to the Scottish Army—He is Sold to the English Parliament—Efforts in his Behalf—The Westminster Confession Adopted by the Scots—Execution of the King—Charles II. Proclaimed in Scotland—Cromwell Conquers Scotland—The Restoration—Efforts to Re-establish Episcopacy—Persecution of the Covenanters—Murder of Archbishop Sharp—Claverhouse—Battle of Bothwell Bridge—James VII. King—The Persecution Becomes More Severe—The Scottish Martyrs—The Indulgences—Overthrow of James—William and Mary—Presbyterianism Re-established in Scotland—The Jacobites—Revolt of Dundee—Battle of Killiecrankie—Death of Dundee—Massacre of Glencoe—Queen Anne—Union of Scotland with England.

JAMES VI. was crowned and anointed at Stirling. His sponsor, the Earl of Morton, took an oath in his behalf to uphold the reformed church and root out its enemies. The Earl of Murray was recalled from France, to which country he had fled at the death of Darnley, and was

made regent for his nephew, at the request of Queen Mary. A large party of nobles, led by the Hamiltons, refused to support the new government, and opened negotiations with the captive queen. A few months later Mary escaped from Lochleven Castle and fled to Hamilton, where she was enthusiastically received by the discontented nobles, who renewed their allegiance to her. She at once sent a demand to Murray to resign the regency and submit to her as his sovereign. Murray replied by collecting an army to defend the authority of King James. A battle was fought at Langside, on the 13th of May, 1568, and Mary's forces were defeated. The queen rode with all speed for the border, and entering England, threw herself upon the generosity of Elizabeth. The English queen, however, as we have seen, kept her a prisoner. The reasons for this treatment of Mary, and the events of her captivity, have been related in the *History of England*, to which the reader is referred.

The captivity of Mary did not destroy her party in Scotland. Her chief supporters were the Hamiltons and the Earl of Huntly. The Duke of Chatelherault, one of the Hamiltons, was, in case James should die before his mother, the next heir to the crown after Mary. The queen's party hated Murray, and the Hamiltons resolved upon his death. On the 23d of February, 1570, Murray was shot and killed by James Hamilton, of Bothwellhaugh, as he was riding through that town on his way from Stirling to Edinburgh. His death was a great blow to Scotland, for he had ruled the country firmly and well. The people gratefully remembered him as the "Good Regent."

For a while the kingdom was without a ruler, and anarchy prevailed. A border war with England broke out, and the southern counties were wasted as far as the Clyde. At length the Earl of Lennox, the grandfather of the young king, was chosen regent. His selection was opposed by a large part of the people, as he was regarded as too much of an Englishman to be mindful of the true welfare of Scotland, and a civil war ensued. Grange, who had been placed in charge of Edinburgh Castle by Murray, declared for the queen, whose party also held Dumbarton Castle, the strongest fortress in Scotland. On the 2d of April, 1571, Crawford of Jordanhill, an officer of the regent, surprised and took

Dumbarton Castle with a handful of men. In September, 1571, the regent summoned a parliament to meet at Stirling, where the king was residing. On the 4th of September a body of 400 of the queen's troops from Edinburgh Castle made a dash into Stirling and captured the regent. He was immediately rescued, but was mortally wounded in the struggle, and died a few hours later.

The Earl of Mar, Governor of Stirling, now became regent. He attempted to take Edinburgh Castle, but without success, and on the 1st of August, 1572, a truce of two months was agreed upon. Much blood had been shed during the war, and neither party had accomplished anything decisive. During this truce the queen's party received a severe blow in the general horror excited in Scotland by the news of the massacre of St. Bartholomew, in France. The Earl of Mar died in November, 1572, and on the 24th of that month the Earl of Morton was made regent. On the same day John Knox, the great leader of the Scottish Reformation, died. With all his faults, Knox was a great man, and his most conspicuous quality was his fearlessness in speaking what he believed to be the truth.

At the opening of 1573 the war began again. In August Edinburgh Castle surrendered to the regent, who stained his victory by hanging Grange, its brave defender. Morton's power was greatly strengthened by this success, but he made enemies of some of the most powerful nobles by compelling them to restore the crown property which they had seized. The young king, under the influence of his favorite, Esmé Stewart, Lord of Aubigny, the nephew of the late Regent Lennox, also turned against Morton. At length

James Stewart of Ochiltree, another favorite, accused Morton before the council of having been concerned in the murder of Daruley, and upon this charge he was condemned and beheaded at Edinburgh. James now took the government into his own hands, but was ruled in his turn by his favorites—Ochiltree, whom he made Earl of Arran, and Aubigny, whom he made Duke of Lennox and Governor of Dum-



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barton Castle. The favor which these men enjoyed aroused the jealousy of the older nobles, who, under the leadership of the Earl of Gowrie, seized the person of the king and held him a prisoner in the Castle of Ruthven. They made him banish Lennox from the country, and administered the government in his name. He was also forced to declare that he acted in these measures of his own free will and without restraint. James remained in the power of

the Ruthven lords nearly a year, but at length escaped to St. Andrews, where his partisans rallied to his aid in such numbers that the Ruthven lords were obliged to yield. James acted with moderation at first, but at length the Earl of Arran, who had returned to power, caused the arrest and execution of the Earl of Gowrie on a charge of plotting against the king. Somewhat later Arran himself was accused of provoking an affray on the border, in which Lord Russell, an Englishman, was slain, and was ordered to withdraw from court. The nobles, who were jealous of him, now appeared at Stirling, where the king was residing, with a force of 8,000 men, and compelled James to summon a parliament, which restored to Gowrie's children the lands and honors forfeited by his treason, deprived the Earl of Arran of all his possessions and dignities, and made an alliance with England, 1585.

On the 8th of February, 1587, Queen Mary was beheaded at Fotheringhay Castle, in England, by order of Elizabeth, as has been related. James made a slight show of grief and anger, but allowed the death of his mother to pass by without any further resentment. In 1589 James was married to Anne, daughter of Frederick II. of Denmark. The new queen received the Orkney and Shetland isles as her dowry.

The sailing of the Spanish armada for the invasion of England, in 1588, caused great alarm in Scotland, and measures were taken to prevent the re-establishment of the Romish faith in that country in the event of the conquest of England by the Spaniards. The covenant was renewed, and was signed by the nobles and gentry throughout the kingdom. In 1592, while still under the influence of the feelings excited by the armada, the Scottish parliament passed an act abolishing episcopacy in Scotland, and substituting for it the Presbyterian form of church government. The church was to be ruled in future by presbyteries and synods, over which was a general assembly, composed of ministers and lay elders from the several presbyteries. This assembly was to meet once a year at Edinburgh, and was to be presided over by the king or his commissioner. In the same year a plot of the Catholic nobles was detected. They proposed to invite the King of Spain to re-establish the Catholic faith in Scotland, and promised to aid him with all their resources. The Marquis of Ar-

gyle was ordered to make war in the king's name upon the Earl of Huntly, one of the leaders of the conspiracy. A warfare of several years followed, and in 1597 Huntly and Errol, the two most prominent leaders, made their peace by publicly abjuring Romanism, and embracing the reformed faith.

James had considerable trouble with the reformed ministers, who arrogantly claimed the right to dictate even to the king. This contest brought on a severe riot in Edinburgh, which compelled the king to fly to Linlithgow. He then threatened to remove the courts of justice from Edinburgh, and thus brought the people of that city to their senses. They submitted, and the court returned to the capital. The ministers who had caused the trouble fled into England.

On the 24th of March, 1603, Queen Elizabeth of England died, and James VI. of Scotland was declared her successor. He at once set out for England, and on the 6th of May, 1603, made his formal entry into London. The change from the poor and weak kingdom of Scotland to rich and powerful England was great indeed, and might have turned a stronger head than James'. It also freed him from his dependence upon the turbulent Scotch peers, and enabled him to govern them with a firmer hand, since he could command the resources of England to assist him in maintaining his authority in Scotland. The union of the two crowns brought peace to the border, which had for centuries been torn by the most savage warfare. The border laws on each side were repealed, and it was agreed that all subjects of either country born after the union should be citizens of the other as well, and have the right to inherit and hold property in either. A lord high commissioner was made the king's representative in Scotland. In all things else the two countries were independent of each other, and each had its own parliament.

In Scotland James had been a very good Presbyterian, but he was no sooner seated on the English throne than he became a zealous Episcopalian, and from this time the great aim of his life was to bring the Church of Scotland into conformity with that of England. In 1606 he obtained the passage of a law by the estates re-establishing episcopacy in the Scottish Church. It was enacted that no measures in church government should be valid without the

consent of the bishops, and the powers of the general assembly were very much curtailed, though its existence was continued. A bishop was thereupon consecrated in London for each of the sees of Glasgow, Brechin, and Galloway. These measures aroused great discontent in Scotland; the bishops were coldly received, and found it difficult to collect the revenues assigned them. The king's measures for enforcing law and order in the highlands were more successful. The chiefs who could not show written titles were deprived of their lands, and colonies of lowlanders were settled upon them. The chiefs who were permitted to retain their lands were required to give sureties for the good order of their clans, to rent their lands at fixed rates in money, and to send their children to school in the lowlands. By these measures the danger of united action by the clans was largely removed, and the royal authority strengthened. James paid only one visit to Scotland after his accession to the English crown, and on this occasion the general assembly at Perth passed the "Five Articles," which permitted the private administration of the sacraments, and required all persons to kneel in receiving the holy communion, to bring their children to the bishops for confirmation, and to observe the five great festivals of the Christian Church as holidays. The Presbyterians of Scotland were greatly incensed by the measures, and universally disregarded them. On the 27th of March, 1625, King James died in England.

Charles I. succeeded his father as King of England and Scotland. As we have seen, his ideas of the royal prerogative were even more extravagant than those of his father. He came to the throne firmly resolved to carry out his father's plan of making the Scottish Church conform to the English standard, and at once issued a proclamation reclaiming all the former church lands which were in the hands of laymen, whether they had received them from the crown or not. The holders protested against this unjust course of the king, and at length a compromise was effected, by which they agreed to give up a part of their lands, and the king consented to make good their title to the rest.

In 1633 Charles visited Scotland, and was crowned with imposing ceremonies in the Abbey Church of Holyrood. The clergy on this occasion wore the vestments

of the Church of England, and by so doing gave great offence to the Scots. Charles increased this ill feeling by issuing an order to the Scottish clergy to wear surplices, and commanding the Scottish bishops to wear rochets and sleeves instead of the Geneva cloak as formerly. A change was made in the manner of choosing the lords of the articles, or the committee which directed the legislation of the estates, which threw the choice entirely into the hands of the bishops. This was done at the direct instance of the king, and a remonstrance was addressed to him by the members of the estates opposed to the measure. He treated the remonstrance as a political offence, and threw Lord Balmerinoch, who presented it, into prison. He subsequently liberated him, but the Scots generally regarded this act as the result of fear, and not as a mark of the king's good will toward them. In 1637 Charles brought the discontents of the Scots to a head. He caused a book of canons to be prepared for the government of the Scottish Church, and on his own authority, and without the ratification of it by the estates, commanded the Scots to use it in place of their Book of Discipline. A little later a liturgy was prepared by Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, and the Scottish clergy were commanded by the king to use it in the churches instead of the Book of Common Order, which was then in general use. On the 16th of July, 1637, the Dean of Edinburgh attempted to use the liturgy in St. Giles' Church. A riot at once ensued, and the Dean and Bishop of Edinburgh were driven from the church. Further riots followed this one. The king issued a proclamation calling upon the people to disperse to their homes, and refused to listen to the petitions which poured in upon him from all parts of Scotland. His stubbornness increased the popular discontent, and the bishops and other members of the privy council were mobbed in Edinburgh. At length a committee, consisting of four members from each class, nobles, lesser barons, clergy, and burgesses, known as "The Tables," was formed to represent the people in their contest with the government. They proved more troublesome than the mob, and forcing their way into the council chamber insisted on discussing their grievances there, and demanded the removal of the bishops. The king met the action of the tables with a threatening proclamation,

and that body at once renewed the covenant, which this time contained a provision for the overthrow of the bishops. The former covenants had been signed by the notables only; this one was signed by all classes of the people, rich and poor, noble and peasant, and in all parts of the kingdom. Hence the national party received the name of Covenanters, 1638. Later in the year Charles sent the Marquess of Hamilton to Scotland as his commissioner, with full power to settle the troubles. The Covenanters demanded the abolition of the high court of commission, the canons, and the liturgy, and the summoning of a free assembly and a free parliament. In accordance with his instructions, Hamilton evaded an answer to these demands, seeking to give the king time to assemble his forces and compel obedience. Suddenly the king promised to grant the demands of the Scots, and an assembly was summoned. It met at Glasgow on the 21st of November, 1638, and was presided over by Hamilton as royal commissioner. A few days later an attempt was made to bring the bishops to trial. Hamilton at once withdrew, and ordered the assembly to disperse. They refused to obey, and went on with the trials of the bishops, all of whom were deposed, and eight of them excommunicated. The canons and liturgy were abolished, and all the acts of assemblies since 1606 were repealed.

The north of Scotland was ruled by the Earl of Huntly as the king's lieutenant. The covenant had not been received there, and the tables resolved to compel its acceptance. A strong army, composed largely of veterans who had seen service on the continent in the Thirty Years' War, was raised and placed under the command of the Earl of Montrose, who, in a brief and brilliant campaign, subdued the north, and established the authority of the Covenanters. Another army under General Leslie was sent to the southern border to meet the force which the king was bringing north to subdue Scotland. Leslie took an admirable position commanding the line of march of the royal army, and the king, seeing that defeat was certain in case he attacked the Scottish general, consented to treat with him. It was agreed that the questions at issue between Charles and his Scottish subjects should be referred to a free assembly for settlement, and that in the meantime both armies should be disbanded and the

fortresses restored to the king, June 9th, 1639. This treaty, known as the "Pacification of Berwick," also closed Montrose's campaign in the north.

An assembly was summoned, and met at Edinburgh. It ratified all that the Glasgow assembly had done. The estates met on the 2d of June, 1640, and confirmed the acts of the assemblies, and ordered every one to sign the covenant on pain of severe punishment. The king adjourned the estates, but they met again in spite of him, and appealed to France for aid. Upon hearing of this Charles sent Lord Loudon, one of the Scotch commissioners, to the Tower, and prepared to invade Scotland. His arbitrary treatment of his own subjects, however, had aroused a strong sympathy in England for the Scots, who, it was seen, were fighting the cause of freedom against arbitrary power. Charles had much difficulty in raising an army, and when gotten together it was mutinous and discontented. The Scots, on the other hand, raised a strong force, and on the 20th of August, 1640, entered England. They captured Durham, Tynemouth, and Shields without striking a blow, and the Scottish army at home obtained possession of the Castles of Edinburgh and Dumbarton. Charles once more consented to treat, and the treaty of Ripon was concluded. All the Scottish demands were granted, the armies were disbanded, and the war seemed to be over. The king visited Edinburgh, and the estates were summoned. He made no effort to interfere with their action, and confirmed their right to meet once in three years, 1641.

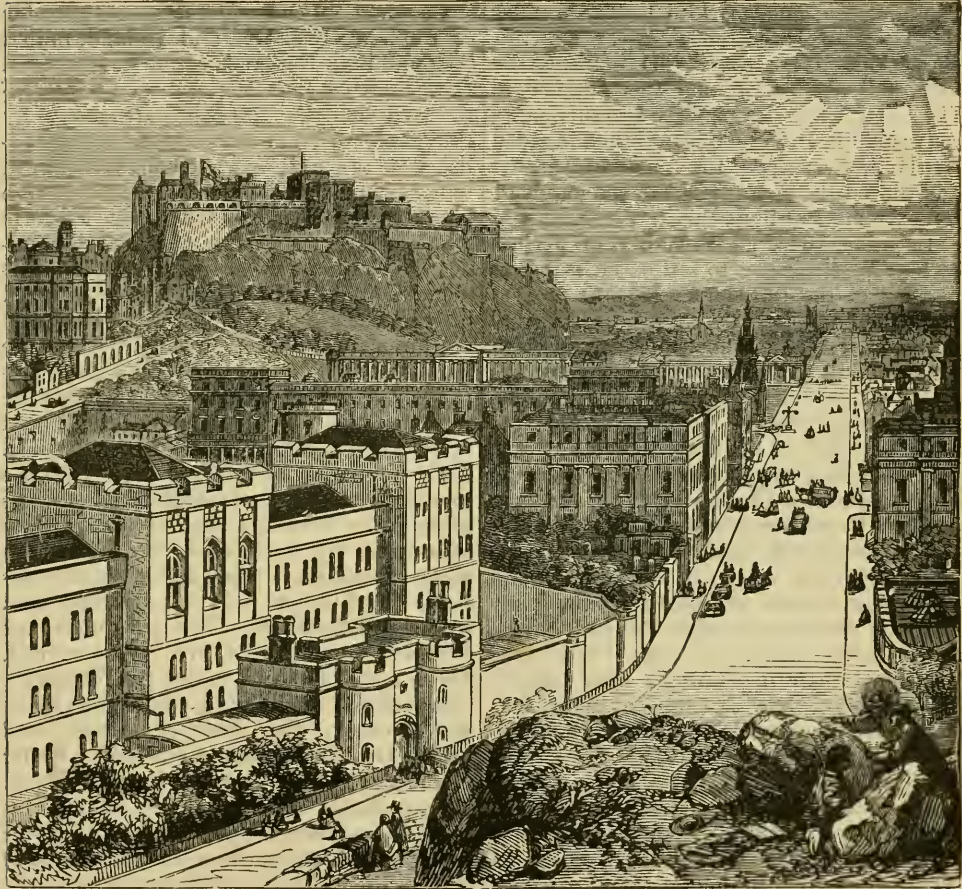
The next year the civil war in England began. The English parliament adopted the solemn league and covenant, and so induced the Scots to embrace the side of the parliament. A fine army was sent into England under Leslie, now Earl of Leven, and his nephew, David Leslie. This force crossed the border on the 19th of January, 1644. A portion was detached to lay siege to Newcastle, which was carried by storm on the 19th of October. The main body advanced into Yorkshire, joined the parliamentary army, and took part in the battle of Marston Moor, July 2d, 1644. The next important service of the Scottish army was the siege of Newark. During the progress of the siege, Charles, disheartened by his reverses, fled from Oxford, where he was besieged by the parliamentary forces, and

proceeding to the Scotch camp before Newark, placed himself under the protection of the Scottish forces, May 5th, 1646. He was treated with respect, but was held as a prisoner. Newark surrendered a few days later, and the Scots withdrew to Newcastle until they could arrange the terms upon which the king should be surrendered to the English parliament.

In the meantime the Earl of Montrose,

array when orders arrived from the king, who had thrown himself upon the protection of the Scottish army in England, to lay down his arms. Montrose obeyed and left Scotland.

The Scots made many efforts to induce Charles to turn Presbyterian and accept the solemn league and covenant. Had he done so, they would have protected him, but as he refused to change his faith, they



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who had abandoned the Covenanters for the cause of the king, had raised the royal standard in the highlands, and had won back nearly the whole north for the king. David Leslie was sent against him, and Montrose being weakened by the departure of his highlanders to their homes, was defeated at Philiphaugh, September 15th, 1645. He retreated to the highlands, and was engaged in the effort to raise a new

surrendered him to the English parliament, and returned to Scotland on the payment of £400,000 arrears of pay due them, January 30th, 1647. "Great pains were taken by the Scots (and the English complied with their pretended delicacy) to make this estimation and payment of arrears appear a quite different transaction from that for the delivery of the king's person, but common sense requires that they should

be regarded as one and the same. Thus the Scottish nation incurred the reproach of betraying their prince for money."

Some months later, during his captivity at Carisbrooke Castle, Charles made a treaty with the moderate party of Scotland, in which he agreed, if they would assist him to recover his throne, to sign the covenant and establish the Presbyterian Church in England. The committee of the estates, which administered the government of Scotland, sent an army into England under the Duke of Hamilton to carry out this agreement. This force was defeated by Cromwell at Preston, and was pursued to Uttoxeter, where it was forced to surrender, August 20th, 1648. Cromwell then invaded Scotland, overthrew the moderate party, and placed the government in the hands of the extreme Presbyterians.

In June, 1643, an assembly of divines met at Westminster to settle the religious matters of the kingdom. Several months later they adopted the solemn league and covenant. When their confession of faith was promulgated, it was adopted by the Scots in place of their books of discipline and common order.

On the 30th of January, 1649, Charles I. was beheaded at London. The Scots at once proclaimed Charles II. King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland. Negotiations were opened with him; but in the meantime, Montrose returned to Scotland and attempted to raise the north for the king. He was defeated, brought to Edinburgh, and hanged without a trial. The Scots continued their negotiations with Charles II. He agreed to sign the covenant, be a good Presbyterian, and submit to the guidance of the assembly. The Scots then called him to take his place at their head, and he landed and signed the covenant in July, 1650. Cromwell, as soon as informed of these events, marched towards Scotland. The Scots rallied to the defence of Charles, but Leslie, their commander, was outgeneralled by Cromwell, and was defeated at Dunbar on the 3d of September.

Charles, in the meantime, had found his Scottish kingdom very distasteful to him. A close watch was maintained over him, and the doctrines of the covenant were forced upon him to a degree that made them hateful to him. He escaped from Dunfermline where he was residing, in the hope of joining the northern nobles, but was captured, brought back, and solemnly

crowned at Scone. A Scottish army now advanced into England, taking the king with it. Cromwell, who was in Scotland at the time, hastened after it, and routed it at Worcester (September 3d, 1651) on the anniversary of his victory at Dunbar. Charles was obliged to fly, and at length succeeded in reaching the continent. A force under General Monk was left in Scotland by Cromwell, and reduced the country to submission.

Cromwell, upon becoming Lord Protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland, united Scotland and England in one government. It was settled that Scotland should be represented in the English parliament by thirty members, and free trade was established between the two countries. Seven judges, four of whom were English, were placed over the courts, and a line of forts strongly garrisoned was maintained throughout the country for the preservation of order. Scotland was treated as a conquered province.

The restoration of Charles II. to the English throne undid the work of the protector. The Scots rejoiced greatly over the return of the king, as they hoped he would uphold the covenant, which he had signed. They were soon undeceived. In 1660 the privilege of free trade with England was taken from Scotland, and somewhat later episcopacy was re-established. New bishops were consecrated, and James Sharp was made Archbishop of St. Andrews and primate of Scotland. The government of Scotland was intrusted to a privy council, and a body of troops, called the life-guard, was enlisted to maintain the authority of the council. The Earl of Argyle and James Guthrie, a noted divine and a leader of the extreme Covenanters, were seized and put to death, 1661. In 1662 an act was passed requiring all persons holding office to subscribe a declaration that the covenant was an illegal oath, and therefore not binding. All ministers were required to be reinstated in their livings by a bishop. Those who refused were ordered to give up their churches and remove from their parishes with their families. Three hundred and fifty ministers resigned, and were followed by their congregations into the fields, where they held religious services. Severe laws were enacted to compel the ministers to discontinue their preaching, and to force the people to attend their parish churches. The court of high commission was revived,

and a cruel warfare was begun upon all persons who refused to conform to the standard of the Church of England. The open air meetings, which were called conventicles by the Episcopalians, were attacked by the royal troops, and the Covenanters were hunted through the country and cruelly tortured or executed when captured. Neither age nor sex were spared. These cruelties led to several uprisings of the people, one of the most formidable of which was crushed in the battle of Pentland in 1666. Archbishop Sharp was generally regarded as the originator and promoter of this persecution, which entirely failed to shake the firmness of the Covenanters. On the 3d of May, 1679, Sharp was waylaid and murdered near St. Andrews, and the murderers escaped.

The persecutions continued throughout the reign of Charles II. The Covenanters' chief stronghold was the hill country between Lanark and Ayr. There they held their principal meetings, to which they came armed. They were attacked there in May, 1679, by the royal troops under John Graham of Claverhouse, and succeeded in inflicting a defeat upon their enemies. Charles now sent an army of 15,000 men against them, under the Duke of Monmouth. Monmouth defeated the army of the Covenanters at Bothwell Bridge in June, 1679, and took 1,200 prisoners. The majority of these were shipped to the colonies.

Charles II. died on the 6th of February, 1685. James II. of England and VII. of Scotland, who succeeded him, was, as we have seen, the enemy of Protestantism, and was a bitter opponent of its Presbyterian form. Under him the persecution of the Covenanters became fiercer and more active. An act was passed giving the soldiers authority to put to death at once all persons who refused to take the oath of abjuration; that is, an oath repudiating all sympathy with the declarations issued by the Covenanters in opposition to the royal authority. Many persons were put to death for their refusal to take this oath, among them two women—Margaret Maclauchlan and Margaret Wilson—who were tied to stakes in the Solway Frith and drowned by the rising tide. The royal troops treated the Covenanters with the most shocking brutality, while the latter, on their part, exhibited the most heroic courage and firmness in their trials. Early in the reign of

James an act was passed making attendance upon a conventicle a crime punishable with death. In 1685 the Marquess of Argyle landed in Scotland and attempted an insurrection, which was intended to be simultaneous with that of the Duke of Monmouth in England, and had for its object the overthrow of James and the elevation of Monmouth to the throne. The movement was badly managed, and Argyle's army dispersed without striking a blow. He was taken while trying to escape from the country, and was put to death with great indignity. The country of Argyle was wasted with fire and sword by the royal troops, and many members of his clan were transported to the plantations after having been first cruelly mutilated.

The efforts of James to introduce the Roman Catholic religion into England now alarmed the Scottish privy council, which had until this time given him a hearty support in his cruelties. The council now refused to follow the king any farther, and the Duke of Queensberry, the royal commissioner, was removed, and his place was filled with the Earl of Perth, a Roman Catholic. James next endeavored to induce the estates to pass a bill removing the penalties against the Roman Catholics, but leaving those against the Covenanters in full force. The estates refused to do this, and even the bishops opposed it. The king was then compelled to grant toleration to all creeds in order to secure it for the Catholics. He issued several indulgences, the most important of which was that of 1688, which granted toleration to every sect, to the Quakers as well as to the Covenanters. This measure came too late, however. The intentions of the king were understood, and his attack upon the liberties of the English Church had arrayed the English people against him. They invited his son-in-law, William, Prince of Orange, to come over and claim the crown. The deposition and flight of James and the accession of William and Mary to the throne have been related, and need not be repeated here.

The fall of James was a great gain for Scotland. A convention was summoned at Edinburgh, in which the deposition of James was formally declared. The crown of Scotland was offered to William and Mary, who were publicly proclaimed King and Queen of Scotland. Three commissioners were sent to London, and the coro-

nation oath was administered to William by the Marquess of Argyre. The king, in taking the oath, declared that there should be no religious persecutions during his reign.

Immediately upon the fall of James the Episcopal Church in Scotland was overthrown. The people, who had suffered so much at its hands, rose against it on Christmas day, 1688, and made a general attack upon the curates or rectors of parishes in the western lowlands. About two hundred curates, with their families, were driven from their homes with insult and abuse. William issued a proclamation ordering the rioters to disperse, but had no means of enforcing his command, as he had no troops north of the Tweed, and the rioting continued. The Scotch bishops adhered to the cause of James, and William was not disposed to take any steps for their protection. In June, 1690, the Presbyterian Church was formally re-established in Scotland by act of parliament.

Though Scotland had so readily accepted William and Mary, there was still a large party in the country which regarded them as usurpers, and remained faithful to the cause of King James. They were known as the Jacobites. When the convention met at Edinburgh the castle was held by the Duke of Gordon for James, who could have laid the city in ashes had he chosen to open fire upon it. The Jacobites found themselves too weak to attempt an outbreak, however, and determined to leave the city and hold a rival convention at Stirling. Before they could do this, Claverhouse, now Viscount Dundee, the brutal commander of James' troops during the persecutions, escaped from the city. The alarm was given and all the other Jacobite leaders were arrested by the government. Dundee withdrew to his estates in the highlands, where he carried on a correspondence with the exiled king. Certain letters written to him by James fell into the hands of the government, and an order was issued for Dundee's arrest. Dundee at once summoned the clans to rise in arms for King James, and began a formidable revolt, 1689. On the 27th of July he defeated the royal forces at Killiecrankie, but purchased his victory with his life. Deprived of their able leader, the highlanders became demoralized and thought more of plunder than of following up their success. In August they attacked Dun-

keld, which was held by the Cameronian regiment, and were defeated. Soon after this the Duke of Gordon was compelled to surrender Edinburgh Castle. In the spring of 1690 the highlanders were again defeated and scattered in the strath of the Spey, and with this defeat the revolt came to an end. The highland chiefs were still discontented, however, and it was clear that they were only awaiting another leader to rise in rebellion again. After repeated efforts to win them over, a royal proclamation was issued offering a pardon to all the rebels who would take the oath of allegiance to King William before or on the 31st of December, 1691. All who failed to take the oath by that day were to be treated as rebels and traitors. To enforce its threat the government assembled a strong body of troops in the highlands.

All the clans came in before the appointed day except MacIan, chief of a tribe of MacDonalds, who lived in Glencoe, a mountain valley in western Argyleshire. On the 31st of December, the last day of grace, MacIan and his principal clansmen appeared at Fort William to take the oath. To their surprise and alarm they found no one there who had authority to administer them. There was no magistrate nearer than Inverary, and Colonel Hill, the commandant of Fort William, directed them to repair to that place. The country was mountainous and the ground was covered with snow, so that MacIan and his companions did not reach Inverary until the 6th of January, 1692. Sir Colin Campbell, the Sheriff of Argyleshire, after many entreaties, consented, in consideration of the effort they had made, to receive their oaths. A return was made to the Scottish government of the facts in the case. Sir John Dalrymple, William's secretary for Ireland, was the mortal enemy of the MacDonalds, and resolved to make MacIan's negligence the occasion of destroying him and his whole clan. He concealed from the king the facts of the case, and obtained an order for the military execution of the chief and his clan. A company of soldiers, under Campbell of Glenlyon, was sent to Glencoe, and arrived at the lonely mountain glen on the 1st of February, 1692. They professed to come as friends, and were cordially received and entertained. After enjoying the hospitality of the clan for a fortnight, they turned upon their hosts before day on the morning of

the 14th, and massacred all the inhabitants of the valley, save a few who escaped, sparing neither age nor sex. The cattle were driven away and the houses burned. It was one of the most brutal and unprovoked massacres on record. It is said that William did not read or understand the warrant when he signed it. Whether this be so or not, it is certain that he took no steps to punish the authors of the outrage, and that when, four years later, the guilt of the Master of Stair was made plain to him, he did not call him to account for his crime, which constitutes the foulest blot on his reign.

Queen Mary died in 1690. William III. reigned twelve years as sole monarch, and died on the 8th of March, 1702.

Anne, the daughter of James II. of England, succeeded William on the throne, and was promptly proclaimed Queen of Scotland. The English parliament had passed an act of settlement providing that, in the event of the death of Queen Anne without heirs, the crown should pass to Sophia, Electress of Hanover, and her descendants. The Scottish estates refused to take a similar step, and passed an act of security which provided that the same person should not succeed to the crowns of England and Scotland unless, during the reign of Queen Anne, measures should be taken to secure the honor and independence of Scotland against English influence. The estates reserved the right to declare war against England at any time. Many things now occurred to establish an unfriendly feeling between the two countries, and there was danger of a rupture of the relations that had existed between them since the accession of James VI. to the English throne.

It was plain that the only way to remedy these evils was to bring the two kingdoms under one government. Commissioners were therefore appointed by both countries, and the result of their deliberations was the conclusion of a treaty of union, by which the succession to both crowns was settled upon the heirs of the Electress Sophia, being Protestants. The independence of the National Church of Scotland was secured, and protected against interference

by the English establishment. The Scottish parliament was abolished, and Scotland was to be represented in the English parliament by sixteen representative peers chosen from the whole body of peers, and forty-five representatives of the commons. The united parliament was to be thenceforth called the Parliament of Great Britain. Free trade was established between the two countries, and the same privileges of trade,



VALLEY OF GLENCOE.

the right to hold property, and the same political rights and immunities were guaranteed to the citizens of both countries. The same coins, weights, and measures were to be used throughout the island. These measures being arranged, the First Parliament of Great Britain met on the 23d of October, 1707.

The subsequent history of Scotland is related in the history of England, to which the reader is referred.

BOOK XXII.

THE HISTORY OF THE SARACENS.

CHAPTER I.

FROM MOHAMMED TO THE TURKISH DOMINION.

Birth of Mohammed—His Early Life—His Meditations—His Marriage—Proclaims Himself a Prophet—Character of his Revelation—Hostility to him—His First Converts—Flies from Mecca—Medina Embraces his Cause—His Conquests—Death of the Prophet—Successors of Mohammed—Omar—Conquest of Syria and Palestine—Persia and Western Asia Overrun—The Saracens Attack Constantinople—Conquest of Egypt—Northern Africa Subdued—The Mohammedan Conquest of Spain—Efforts to Conquer Southern Europe—Defeat of the Saracens at Tours—Division of the Khalifate—Growth of Mohammedan Sects—Haroun al Raschid—His Brilliant Reign—State of Knowledge among the Saracens—Crete Conquered—Naval Warfare of the Saracens—Scientific Progress—Decline of the Khalifate of Bagdad—Rise of the Turks—Weakness of the Khalif—Reign of Malek Shah—His Empire—Zingis Khan—The Tartar Dominion—Kublai Khan—Russia Conquered by the Tartars—Rise of the Turkish Empire.

BYOND the limits of the Roman empire, amid the sands of the Arabian deserts, there was born in the city of Mecca, A. D. 569, a child who was destined to change the entire current of Eastern history—**MOHAMMED.** Of the princely house of the Koreish tribe, Mohammed was from his birth a conspicuous personage. He was left an orphan at an early age, and, his father's estate being dissipated by its division among a numerous family of relatives, he was left almost in poverty. He was reared by his uncle, Abu Taleb, and educated according to the forms and traditions of his race. His family had long been the keepers or guardians of the temple at Mecca, which contained the *Caaba*, the stone believed by the Arabs to have covered the tomb of Abraham. By his uncle he was initiated in the science of war and the mysteries of commerce; but he was poor, and at an early age entered upon the effort to earn his bread by his own labor. His only property consisted of five camels, and with these he followed the caravans across the desert, visiting various parts of the Arabian peninsula, and the principal places in Syria and Palestine. Though he

could neither read nor write, these journeys developed his natural abilities and added to his store of information, by bringing him into contact with the representatives of all the nations of Asia and many of those of Europe who frequented the Eastern fairs in pursuit of gain. Gifted with a rare poetic temperament, and lifted by his native genius far above his fellows, Mohammed soon began to meditate upon the great questions of life, and especially upon those pertaining to the relations of man to his Maker. In his lonely watches in the desert, and in his meditations in a cave to which he was wont to retire for reflection, visions succeeded his meditations, and he began to work out the scheme which he afterwards proclaimed to the world with such wonderful success. In his twenty-fifth year he entered the service of Cadijah, a wealthy and noble widow of Mecca, who, appreciating his superior gifts, bestowed upon him her hand and fortune. This alliance restored him to the station in life to which he was born, and gave him leisure in which to perfect his system. For fifteen years he contented himself with a private career, neither seeking nor attracting notoriety.

Mohammed was forty years old when he assumed the office of a prophet and teacher. He taught that though both the Jewish and the Christian religions were of Divine origin, yet God had given to him a clearer and more perfect revelation. His creed is briefly set forth in the customary formula of his followers: "There is but one God, and Mohammed is the Prophet of God." He claimed to have received from the angel Gabriel the revelations which he at various times made known to his followers. This collection is termed the *Koran*. According to the prophet, a copy of the Koran, bound in silk and precious stones, was brought by Gabriel to the lowest heaven, and revealed to him by chapters and verses. These fragments were produced at the discretion of Mohammed. "Each revelation is suited to the emergencies of his policy or passions; and all contradiction is removed by the saving maxim that any text of scripture is abrogated or modi-

fied by any subsequent passage." These revelations were diligently recorded by the disciples of the prophet on palm leaves and shoulder-bones of mutton, and were thrown into a chest in charge of one of his wives. At his death they were collected, transcribed and published by command of his successor, Abubeker.

At the time of the appearance of the prophet, Arabia was given over to the grossest idolatry, and there can be no question that as regards his own country Mohammed was a reformer and a benefactor. He put an end to the idolatry of the Arabs, and lifted them up to a higher level of morality and religion. He organized their hostile tribes into one nation, and gave to them better laws and customs than they had possessed before.

Mohammed began his work by converting his wife Cadijah, his servant Zeid, his pupil and cousin Ali, the son of Abu Taleb, and his friend Abubeker, those who, as Gibbon well remarks, "were most conversant with his infirmities as a man." Three years were spent in the conversion of fourteen proselytes. In the fourth year the teacher assumed the prophetic office, and for the next ten years Mohammed slowly and painfully spread his religion within the walls of Mecca, opposed at every step by the idolaters who clung tenaciously to their idols. The Koreishites bitterly resented his claims, and it required all the power of his uncle, Abu Taleb, who had not embraced his faith, to protect him. He was obliged to withdraw to various places of strength in the town and in the neighboring country. The death of Abu Taleb deprived him of his protector, and left him at the mercy of his enemies. At the same time, Cadijah dying, he lost his most faithful friend and counsellor. The enemies of the prophet, led by Abu Sophian, the chief of the branch of Ommiyah, who had succeeded to the principality of the republic of Mecca, laid a plot to kill him. Warned of this, Mohammed, accompanied by his friend Abubeker, fled from Mecca to Medina, where he had already many converts. This event, known as the *Hegira*, or "the Flight," occurred on the 19th of April, A. D. 622, and is the era from which the Mohammedans still reckon their lunar year of 354 days.

Medina received the prophet, and embraced the faith of Islam, sixteen days after his flight from Mecca. In the next seven

years he reduced all Arabia to obedience to him, and the wild tribes having once accepted his doctrine, rallied to his support with enthusiasm. Everywhere the new doctrine was spread by means of the sword, the religious zeal of the Arabs being increased and sustained by their splendid courage. "The sword," says the Koran, "is the key of heaven and of hell. A drop of blood shed in the cause of God, a night spent in arms, is of more avail than two months of fasting and prayer. Whoever falls in battle, his sins are forgiven."

Mohammed assured his followers that no man can die until the moment appointed him by fate. At that moment, whether in his peaceful home or on the field of battle, he will fall dead. Until the arrival of this appointed time he is safe in the fiercest battle. Such a doctrine made the warriors of the desert utterly reckless of life, and irresistible as compared with the other nations of the East.

Having conquered Arabia, Mohammed turned his eyes to other lands. The regions which lay open to him were the dominions of Persia and the Roman empire, the former of which was in the last stages of decay, and the latter tottering to its fall. In A. D. 630 he made his first attempt against the empire by invading the territory of Palestine east of the Jordan. His army was commanded by Zeid. A battle was fought with the Christians at Muta, near Damascus. Zeid was slain, but Khaled, the "Sword of God," a brave and skilful leader, succeeded in repulsing the Roman army and in effecting a safe retreat.

Mohammed died in A. D. 632 at Medina, and was buried there. He failed to name his successor, and for a time it seemed as if his empire would be rent by the contentions of the claimants of his throne. The trouble was averted by the example of Omar, who, renouncing his own pretensions, acknowledged the mild and venerable Abubeker as the successor of the prophet. Abubeker died in 634, and bequeathed his throne to Omar, who mounted it as Khalif, or "successor." He reigned ten years, and falling before the hand of an assassin, was succeeded by Othman, who died in A. D. 656. The khalifate then passed to Ali, the cousin of the prophet, and the husband of his favorite daughter Fatima.

In the meantime the march of conquest had been resumed by the successors of the prophet, and carried forward steadily. They

held it to be their duty to spread their faith everywhere, or, in other words, to conquer the world. Men were required either to accept the Koran and its teachings, to purchase the right to exercise their own religion by the payment of tribute, or to defend themselves if they could with arms. The khalifs were the spiritual as well as the temporal rulers of their dominions, and exercised their authority with unshrinking firmness. In the reign of Abubeker, Syria and Palestine were invaded by an army under Abu Obeidah, one of the companions of Mohammed. The soul of the expedition, however, was the valiant Khaled. Bosrah was taken, and the Christians were defeated in two great battles—one at Ainzadin in southern Palestine, July 30th, A. D. 634, and the other on the banks of the Yermuk, near the Lake of Tiberias, August 22d, A. D. 634. Damascus was taken in the following January, and this was followed by the capture of Heliopolis or Baalbec. Jerusalem surrendered to the Khalif Omar in person in 637. In the next two years all of Syria and Palestine passed under the rule of the khalif.

In A. D. 632 the Saracens invaded the Persian dominions, which were then ruled by Yezdegerd, the grandson of Chosroes. The fate of the kingdom was decided by the battle of Cadesia on the banks of the Tigris, A. D. 636. Assyria at once submitted, and the victory of the khalif was signalized by the founding of the city of Bassora, which was planted upon the western bank of the united channel of the Euphrates and the Tigris, midway between the junction and the mouth of three famous streams. The provinces of the Persian empire were successively reduced, and by the year 651 the Saracens extended their boundary to the Oxus, beyond which lay the dominions of the Turks. In the last years of the seventh century and the first ten years of the next this barrier was passed, and the Mohammedan possessions advanced to the Indus in one direction and the Jaxartes and the Caspian Sea in another.

Having overrun western Asia, the Saracens advanced to the Bosphorus, and in A. D. 668 laid siege to Constantinople itself. Their assaults were repulsed by the valor of the defenders, and the terrible agent known as Greek-fire rendered their attack hopeless. The Greek-fire was a compound of naphtha or liquid bitumen (a light, tenacious and highly inflammable oil, which

springs from the earth and catches fire as soon as it comes in contact with the air), sulphur, and tar. Water was powerless to quench this flame, but on the contrary increased its fury. Sand and vinegar alone had any effect upon it. It was poured over the walls upon the heads of storming parties, launched in red-hot balls of stone and iron, or shot in arrows or javelins twisted round with flax and tow which had been steeped in the inflammable oil. At sea it was used in fire-ships, or blown through long tubes of copper from the prows of galleys. The Greeks carefully preserved the secret of its composition for over four centuries. The Mohammedans established their camp about eighty miles from Constantinople, and for six years more renewed their attacks upon the city each summer, with the same result. At length, in A. D. 675, they abandoned the attempt in despair.

From Palestine the armies of the khalif spread into Egypt under the command of Amrou. Pelusium was taken after a siege of thirty days, in A. D. 639. The people of Egypt offered scarcely any resistance to the conquerors, and two years sufficed for the reduction of that country. Alexandria surrendered in A. D. 641. It should be remembered that Syria and Egypt "were the provinces in which Greek and Roman civilization had never thoroughly taken root, where the mass of the people still kept their old languages, and where men were always falling away into forms of belief which were counted heretical according to the faith both of the old and new Rome. In these provinces, therefore, men may well have deemed that they had little to lose by a change of rulers. It followed then that, though the Saracens had to fight several hard battles against the Roman armies in Syria, yet they met with no general resistance of the whole people, and in Egypt they met with no resistance at all. The great cities of Antioch and Alexandria, as well as Jerusalem, were thus lost to the empire. But in the lands on this side of Mount Taurus, where the influence of Greek culture and Roman law was more deep and abiding, the Saracens never gained any lasting footing."

Egypt being conquered, the khalif prepared to extend his dominion over Africa. Abdallah, the foster-brother of the Khalif Othman, was intrusted with the task, but the work of conquest was really performed by his successors. It was begun in A. D.

647, but was not completed till A. D. 709. Between A. D. 692 and 698 the Greeks were finally expelled from Africa. Carthage was destroyed by fire, and its site lay desolate for more than two centuries. By A. D. 709 the Moors or Berbers were entirely subdued. They adopted both the language and the name as well as the religion of the Arab conquerors. From the Indus to the Atlantic the rule of the Koran was supreme.

noble, commanding the important fortress of Ceuta, on the African shore of the Straits of Gibraltar, having been infamously wronged by the Visigothic King Roderic of Spain, betrayed his post into the hands of the Saracens, and led their army into the heart of Spain, A. D. 710. They ravaged Andalusia, and the next spring a more powerful army of Arabs crossed over from Africa, this time to conquer the entire



DERVISHES AT PRAYER.

Having overrun the northern shore of Africa and extended their power along the Mediterranean from Isthmus of Suez to the Taurus range in Asia, the Saracens began to cast longing eyes across the sea to the shores of southern Europe, the wealth and beauty of which were so many temptations to them. They were enabled sooner than they had expected to carry out their wishes in part. Count Julian, a Spanish

country. The decisive battle of the war was fought near Cadiz. The Visigoths were utterly defeated; their kingdom was destroyed; King Roderic was drowned in the Gaudalette; and in three years after the first invasion the Mohammedans were masters of the entire peninsula, except the mountain region of Asturias, to which a small body of Goths retired with their prince, Pelayo. They held their last

stronghold successfully against the conquerors, and thus laid the foundations of the modern kingdom of Spain.

The Mohammedans established their capital at Cordova and set up a kingdom in Spain, which was at first governed by viceroys, but finally became independent, and which continued for nearly eight centuries. Large numbers of their countrymen crossed over from Syria and Arabia and settled in the conquered country, so that ere long Spain was as thoroughly Arab as the opposite shores of the Mediterranean. Not satisfied with these successes, other bodies of Arabs crossed the Pyrenees and reduced the southern part of Gaul, known as the province of Septimania. The Moslem frontier now touched that of the Merovingian kings; for though the southern part of Gaul had never been thoroughly subdued by the Franks, they claimed it as a part of their dominions. The Mohammedans fixed their head-quarters at Narbonne, and with their cavalry ravaged the country as far as Lyons and Besançon.

The khalif now determined to make a serious effort to extend his power over the whole of the south of Europe. France, Germany, and Italy were to be conquered, and then his victorious hosts were to descend the Danube to its mouth, overwhelm the Greek empire, and thus surround the Mediterranean with a mighty Moslem empire. For this enterprise a powerful army was collected in Spain from that country, from Syria, Egypt, Arabia, and the African shore, and placed under the command of Abderrahman, the most gifted and experienced general of the Saracens. The danger was well understood by the Frankish leader, Charles Martel, the most famous Christian warrior of the day, and he gathered to his standard not only his brave Franks, but all the Teutonic tribes as far to the north as the North Sea. Not since the defeat of Attila had such immense armies been seen in Gaul, and upon the issue of the present struggle hung an interest as momentous as that which had been settled upon the plain of Châlons—the decision of the question whether Europe was to be Christian or Mohammedan. The two armies encountered each other near Tours, in the heart of France, and for seven days confronted each other without either side venturing to bring on a general engagement. On the eighth day the Saracens made a fierce assault, and the battle, thus joined,

continued all day. It was renewed the next morning with equal fury, and at length the Arabs were beaten back. Abderrahman was slain, and the remnants of his army sought safety in flight. The victory thus gained by Charles and his German warriors was one of the most decisive in history. It put an end to the efforts of the Saracens to conquer southern Europe, A. D. 732. They clung to their province of Septimania for twenty-three years longer, but in A. D. 755 were driven across the Pyrenees by Pepin, the son of Charles. They never regained a footing in Gaul. In Spain their kingdom continued to flourish.

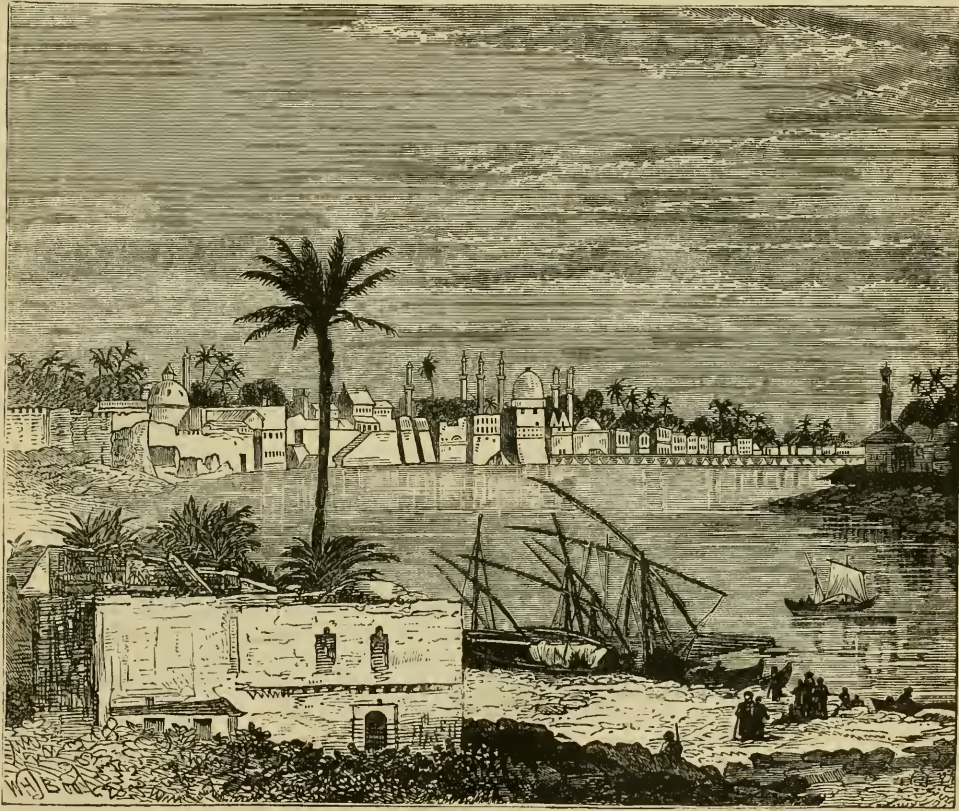
At the other end of the Mediterranean the advance of the followers of the prophet was stayed by the Taurus range. In A. D. 717 Constantinople was besieged by a powerful Moslem army, and for thirteen months was bravely defended by the Emperor Leo III. The Arabs were finally defeated and compelled to withdraw with heavy loss.

The Mohammedan empire now extended from western India and the Turkish lands beyond the Oxus to the Atlantic, including the Spanish peninsula in Europe, and throughout this immense region the will of a single khalif was law. Before long, however, the harmony which had enabled it to win such remarkable successes was disturbed by dissensions. The house of Ommiyah, which for ninety years had held the throne, was compelled to give place to the Abbasides, descendants of the uncle of the prophet. In A. D. 755 Spain revolted in favor of Abderrahman, the last of the Ommiades, and the Saracen empire was divided never to be reunited. One khalif reigned in Damascus, from which he transferred his capital to Bagdad, and another at Cordova in Spain. Each khalif claimed to be the true successor of Mohammed, and denounced the pretensions of his rival. "Meanwhile in the East the Turkish tribes were pressing into the Saracenic empire very much in the same way in which the Teutonic tribes had pressed into the empire of Rome. The governors of the different provinces gradually made themselves independent, and various dynasties, chiefly Turkish, arose, whose obedience to the khalif at Bagdad became quite nominal. Various sects also arose among the Mohammedans, just as they arose among the Christians, and each sect looked on the others as heretics. But those who gave themselves out as the orthodox followers

of Mohammed always looked up to the khalif at Bagdad. So the khalifs may be looked upon as keeping something like the power of a pope after they had lost that of an emperor."

At the opening of the ninth century there were two rival khalifates among the Saracens as well as two rival empires among the Christians. Each Christian power was at enmity with the Mohammedan power which adjoined it, and on friendly terms with the distant Mohammedan power. "The

professed at most a nominal allegiance to the khalif either at Bagdad or at Cordova. And some of these powers went on conquering at the expense of the Christians. In the course of the ninth century independent Saracen powers arose in the great Mediterranean islands of Sicily and Crete, which had up to that time belonged to the eastern empire. In Spain itself the Saracens never conquered quite the whole of the country, as the Christians always maintained their independence in the mountains of the north,



BAGDAD.

Khalifs of Cordova were the natural enemies of the western empire, and the Khalifs of Bagdad were the natural enemies of the eastern empire. But there was commonly peace and friendship between the western empire and the eastern khalifate, and between the eastern empire and the western khalifate. And, just as the two empires not only parted asunder from one another, but each split up into various kingdoms, so the two khalifates gradually split up also. Many Mohammedan powers arose, which

whence they gradually won the whole peninsula back again. In the ninth century, then, the four great powers of the civilized world were the two Christian empires and the two Mohammedan khalifates."

The most illustrious of the Khalifs of Bagdad was Haroun al Raschid, or Haroun the Just, the fourth of the new dynasty, who reigned from A. D. 781 to 805. He was renowned for the splendor of his court, by the care with which he sought to administer justice among his people, and the pro-

tection and encouragement which he afforded to science and learning. He was a great warrior also, and ravaged the territory of the eastern empire repeatedly, and with a cruelty which must detract in no small degree from the glory of his surname of "the Just." He sought the alliance of Charlemagne upon the revival of the western empire, and sent him many presents, among them the first clock seen in Europe. He is familiar to the most childish readers as the perpetual hero of the "Arabian Nights."

Almamon, the son and successor of Haroun, was an equally munificent friend of learning and learned men. Scholars of all nationalities were welcomed at his court. "In the plains of Sinaar and a second time in those of Cufa, his mathematicians accurately measured a degree of the great circle of the earth, and determined at 24,000 miles the entire circumference of our globe," thus marking a degree of mathematical knowledge not previously attained. During this reign the island of Crete was conquered by the Saracens, A. D. 823. It was held by them for more than a century, and during this period was their principal market for the sale of the captives taken by them from the various countries bordering the Mediterranean. Their principal fortress in the island was called Chandak, from which is derived its modern name of Candia. In A. D. 827 Sicily was attacked by the Saracens of Africa. The largest and western part of the island was gradually overrun, and the splendid harbor of Palermo was made the principal naval station for the piratical squadrons of the infidels. Syracuse preserved its independence for half a century, but was at length captured in A. D. 878. The entire island now passed under Moslem rule, and the religion and language of the Greeks gave place to that of Islam. The Arabian squadrons, issuing from the Sicilian ports, ravaged the Italian coast and captured and pillaged 150 towns in Calabria and Campania. Rome itself was attacked, and its shrines beyond the walls were plundered. The vigilance and energy of Pope Leo IV. enabled the city to offer a resolute resistance, and brought about an alliance of the maritime states of Gaëta, Naples and Amalfi against the Saracens. In A. D. 849 the allied fleet defeated the Saracen fleet off the port of Ostia, and immediately after the battle the Arabian galleys were dashed ashore and destroyed by a violent tempest.

Still the Saracens obtained a firm footing in southern Italy, and had the eastern and western khalifates been united, Italy must have fallen before their arms.

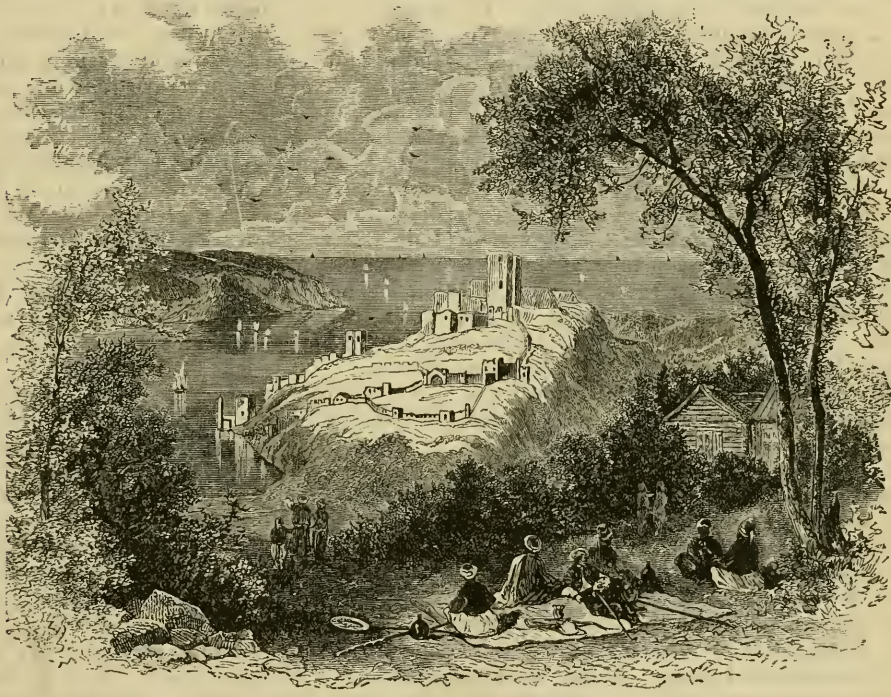
Dissensions and quarrels began to weaken the power of the khalifs for extending their domain, and compelled them to devote all their energies to the task of maintaining their authority in the regions already subject to them, and this weakness allowed Europe to work out its destiny without serious molestation from them.

This century marks the beginning of a brilliant intellectual period among the Moslems. Not that learning was generally diffused among them, but that their achievements in science and literature were in marked contrast with what was being accomplished in Christendom. Libraries and colleges were established in all the Mohammedan cities, from Samarcand to Cordova. The works of the Greek philosophers were translated into Arabic, "and some treatises, now lost in the original, have been recovered in the versions of the East, which possessed and studied the writings of Aristotle and Plato, of Euclid and Apollonius, of Ptolemy, Hippocrates and Galen." The Arabians excelled in mathematical studies, and cultivated with brilliant success the science of astronomy. "The costly instruments of observation were supplied by the Khalif Almamon, and the land of the Chaldæans still afforded the same spacious level, the same unclouded horizon. From the reign of the Abbassides to that of the grandchildren of Tamarlane, the stars, without the aid of glasses, were diligently observed; and the astronomical tables of Bagdad, Spain, and Samarcand correct some minute errors, without daring to renounce the hypothesis of Ptolemy, without advancing a step towards the discovery of the solar system. In the eastern courts the truths of science could be recommended only by ignorance and folly, and the astronomer would have been disregarded had he not debased his wisdom or honesty by the vain predictions of astrology. But in the science of medicine the Arabians have been deservedly applauded. The names of Mesna and Geber, of Rasis and Avicenna are ranked with the Grecian masters; in the city of Bagdad 860 physicians were licensed to exercise their lucrative profession; in Spain the life of the Catholic princes was intrusted to the skill of the Saracens, and the school of Salerno,

their legitimate offspring, revived in Italy and Europe the precepts of the healing art. The science of chemistry owes its origin and improvement to the industry of the Saracens. They first invented and named the alembic for the purposes of distillation, analyzed the substances of the three kingdoms of nature, tried the distinction and affinities of alkalis and acids, and converted the poisonous minerals into soft and salutary medicines. But the most eager search of Arabian chemistry was the transmutation of metals and the elixir of immortal health; the reason and the fortunes of

future years in ridding the peninsula of Moslem rule.

The eleventh century witnessed the decline and overthrow of the Saracen power in the East by a hardier and more warlike race. The division of the eastern khalifate in the tenth century by the erection of an independent khalifate in Egypt, which we have related in the history of that country, struck a death-blow to its political power. The Khalifs of Bagdad, finding their own people enervated by a long course of wealth and luxury, were obliged to recruit their armies from the more vigorous tribes of



CASTLE ON THE BOSPHORUS.

thousands were evaporated in the crucibles of alchemy, and the consummation of the great work was promoted by the worthy aid of mystery, fable and superstition."

The tenth century was the culminating period of the power and greatness of the khalifate of Cordova, which grew stronger as the western empire grew weaker. The reign of Abderrahman III., A. D. 912-961, was perhaps the period of its greatest splendor. The Christian kingdom in the mountains of Asturias managed, however, to maintain its independence, and to acquire strength for the part it was to play in

Tartars which roamed over the steppes of northern Asia. These barbarian mercenaries proving stronger than their masters, soon established their power over them, as was the case with the prætorians of Rome. In the meantime Persia was conquered by the Turks under their Sultan Togrul Beg, a great prince of the house of Seljuk, and the original Mohammedan masters of Persia were driven into India, which they brought under the rule of the prophet.

At this time the Khalif of Bagdad had been reduced to the position of a mere petty prince; for although he was highly

reverenced as the successor of the prophet, his sacred character did not save him from the aggressions of the neighboring tribes, or the tyranny of his own troops. In A. D. 1055 he asked aid of Togrul Beg against his enemies. The sultan at once came to his relief, and was rewarded with the temporal power of the khalif, who retained only the possession of Bagdad and the exercise of his spiritual functions as the successor of Mohammed. This act and his own victories made the Turkish sultan the master of all western Asia, and the acknowledged leader of the race of Islam.

The nephew and successor of Togrul Beg was Alp Arslan (A. D. 1063-1072). He was a great conqueror, and annexed Armenia and Georgia to his empire. He pushed his conquests steadily into the provinces of the Roman empire, and in 1071 inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Roman Emperor Romanus, and took him prisoner. This victory enabled him to extend his dominions to the Hellespont. His son, Malek Shah, who came to the throne in 1072, was the greatest prince of his age. He was a bold and energetic leader, and extended his empire over India to the borders of China. "From the Chinese frontier he stretched his immediate jurisdiction or feudatory sway to the west and south as far as the mountains of Georgia, the neighborhood of Constantinople, the holy city of Jerusalem, and the spicy groves of Arabia Felix." His empire was thus more extensive than that of either Cyrus or the earlier khalifs, and yet he is said to have traversed it no less than twelve times during his reign. Under him the glory and brilliancy of the Mohammedans were temporarily revived, but at his death the greatness and unity of the Turkish empire came to an end. His throne was disputed by his brother and his four sons, and after a series of civil wars the empire was divided into the kingdoms of Persia, Kerman, Syria, and Roum. Of these last three, the first "commanded an extensive, though obscure dominion on the shores of the Indian Ocean; the second expelled the Arabian princes of Aleppo and Damascus." The third, the kingdom of Roum, included all Asia Minor, with Nice for its capital.

The most important of the conquests of the Turks, as regarded its results, was that of Jerusalem, which we shall consider in our account of the crusades.

Early in the thirteenth century Europe narrowly escaped an invasion which might have been as disastrous as that of Attila. A Scythian adventurer named Zingis Khan, who reigned from A. D. 1206 to 1227, established his rule over his native tribe in the plains of northern Asia, and growing stronger as time went on, extended his authority southward, and finally burst into eastern Asia at the head of a vast force of Moguls, or Tartars, as they are commonly known in Europe. The five northern provinces of China, including the royal city of Peking, were overrun by Zingis, and annexed to the Mogul empire. He next conquered the Carizman empire, which reached from the Persian Gulf to the borders of India and Turkestan, laid waste a large part of it, and then returned to his own country, where he died in 1227. His grandson, Kublai Khan, completed the conquest of the Chinese empire, and also added Birmah, Cochin China, and Tonquin to his dominions. He was a great ruler. Marco Polo, the Venetian traveller and merchant, who was liberally entertained at his court, has left an interesting account of him. He received an embassy from the pope, and allowed Christian missionaries to settle in China.

Octai, the son of Zingis, having resolved to reduce Europe to submission, selected an army of 750,000 men, and placed it under the command of his nephew, Batou, for this purpose. Overrunning Turkestan, the Moguls marched into Russia, which country was torn by internal dissensions, and offered itself a ready prey to them. They overran the whole country from Livonia to the Black Sea, and both Moscow and Kiev, the modern and the ancient capitals, were destroyed, "a temporary ruin, less fatal than the deep, and perhaps indelible, mark which a servitude of two hundred years has imprinted on the character of the Russians." The conquest of Russia was permanent, and that country, which had bid fair to grow in power and civilization, was thrown back into semi-barbarism. From Russia the Moguls passed through Poland, scourging it fearfully as they went, and reached the borders of Germany, destroying the cities of Lublin and Cracow on their march. As they reached the German border they were met by the forces of the Duke of Silesia, the King of Poland, and the grand-master of the Teutonic knights. A fierce battle was fought at Liegnitz, in which the Moguls

were victorious. Their losses were so serious, however, that they abandoned the idea of conquering Germany, and turned southward into Hungary, A. D. 1241. They defeated King Bela IV. and overran and depopulated the whole country north of the Danube. Of all the cities and fortresses of Hungary three alone survived this fearful invasion. From Hungary Batou invaded and wasted successively the adjacent kingdoms of Servia, Bosnia, and Bulgaria, and then marched back to the Volga, where the death of Octai had made his presence necessary, A. D. 1245. His own victories and those of his lieutenants made Kublai

Khan monarch of the most extensive empire the world has ever seen—a dominion stretching from the Baltic to the borders of Asia, and embracing nearly the whole of the continent of Asia. After the death of Kublai this vast empire began to fall to pieces, and was divided among his lieutenants. In the fourteenth century this decline allowed the growth of a power almost as formidable—that of the Ottoman Turks.

The effort of the Moguls to pass from Asia into Africa was defeated by the gallantry of the Mamelukes, who beat back the invading army, and compelled it to withdraw toward the Euphrates.

BOOK XXIII.

THE HISTORY OF THE CRUSADES.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL HISTORY OF THE SEVERAL CRUSADES.

General Belief in the Approaching End of the World—Religious Awakening of the People—Results of this Feeling—Pilgrimages to the Holy Land—Profanation of the Holy Sepulchre by the Khalif Hakem—Capture of Jerusalem by the Turks—Outrages upon the Christians—Indignation of Europe—Peter the Hermit—Preaches the Crusade—Enthusiasm of the People—The First Crusade—Adventures of the Crusaders—Walter the Penitens—Godfrey of Bouillon—The Crusaders at Constantinople—They Enter Asia—Quarrels of the Leaders—Tancred—Capture of Antioch—Jerusalem Taken—The Latin Kingdom—Godfrey Made King—The Hospitallers and Templars—The Second Crusade—Its Disastrous Termination—Saladin Master of Egypt and Syria—Defeats the Christians—Jerusalem Taken—Fall of the Latin Kingdom—The Third Crusade—Richard Cœur de Lion—The Fourth Crusade—It Fails in its Object—The Children's Crusade—The Fifth Crusade—Frederick II.—The Sixth and Seventh Crusades—Louis IX. of France—Is Made Prisoner—His Release—The Eighth Crusade—Fall of Acre—The Institution of Chivalry—Its Effects.

AT the opening of the eleventh century a singular superstition pervaded the Christian world, and plunged it into the most profound excitement. It was universally believed from a misinterpretation of a passage in the Book of Revelations (chap. xx. 1-7) that the end of the world was close at hand. The utmost terror prevailed in all countries. The churches were

thronged with penitents, and as they were too small to contain these vast crowds, the old edifices were enlarged and new ones built. Wealth and privileges of all kinds were showered upon the church, and especially upon the religious orders, in the hope of purchasing pardon for past sins and favor in the next world. The clergy skilfully availed themselves of this state of feeling, and the remaining years of the century saw Europe covered with magnificent and commodious churches and abbeys, begun during or immediately after this great season of terror. When the first day of the thousand and first year of our Lord dawned bright and clear to show the world its error, men began to breathe freely, and to form plans once more for the future. The upheaving of Christendom had been too profound for the deep feelings it had aroused to subside suddenly, and men's energies sought new channels. The architectural revival which set in was wonderful, but it was not the only result of this state of affairs. "It seemed that the chance of continued endurance, vouchsafed to mankind by the rising of the sun on the first morning of the eleventh century, gave an impulse to long pent up thoughts in all the directions of inquiry." Men began to exchange the old unquestioning belief of the past for habits of thought and investigation, and the human mind, thus awakened, entered upon that progress which has pro-

duced the civilization of to-day. True, the progress was slow and confined to only a few, but it was a beginning.

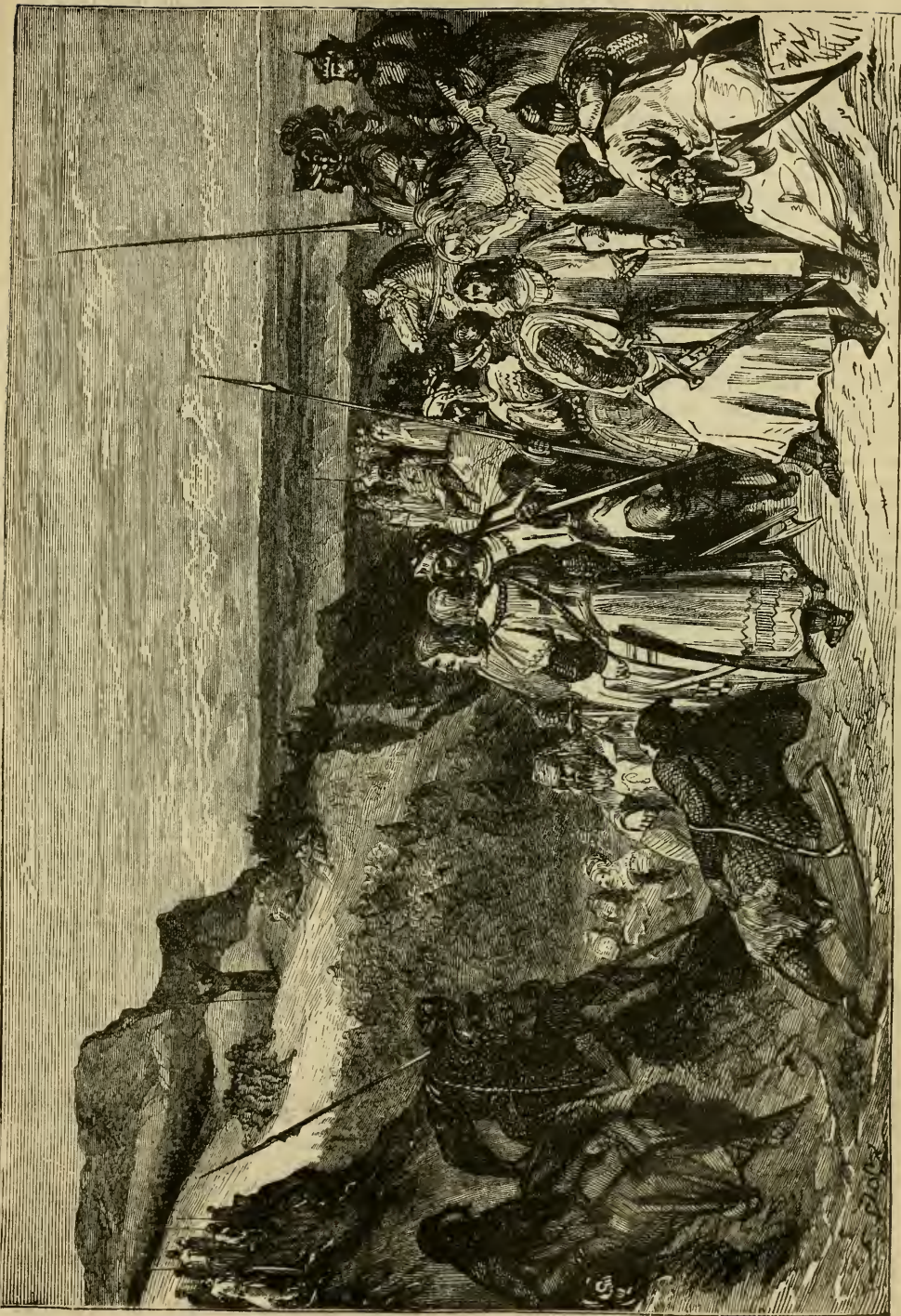
Pilgrimages to the Holy Land had long been a prominent part of the religion of the Roman Church, and these were now resorted to with redoubled vigor. Crowds of pilgrims from all parts of Europe endured hardships and fatigue with ardor in order to kneel and pray at the sites made holy by the events of the earthly life of the Lord Jesus. The capture of Jerusalem and the destruction and profanation of the Holy Sepulchre by Haken, the mad Khalif of Egypt, in the early part of the century, sent a thrill of indignation throughout Europe, and gave rise to the idea of the deliverance of the holy city from Mohammedan rule. In 1076 Jerusalem was captured by the Seljukian Turks. The Saracenic khalifs had treated the holy places with respect, and had protected and encouraged the pilgrims, as the visits of these strangers were productive of a lucrative trade to the Mohammedans. The Turks inaugurated a new and more short-sighted policy. They wantonly profaned the holy places, and insulted and persecuted the clergy and the pilgrims, who filled all Europe with the story of their sufferings. Gregory VII. conceived the plan of uniting Christendom against the infidels, and driving them out of Palestine, but he was too much engaged in his struggle with Henry IV. of Germany to give much time or thought to this plan. In the meantime the sufferings of the Christians in Jerusalem grew greater every year, but in spite of this the number of pilgrims increased.

In 1094 a poor monk of Amiens, called Peter the Hermit, a man of sincere piety and visionary temperament, went on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, where his indignation was aroused by the sight of the sufferings of his brethren at the hands of the infidels. He returned with letters from the Greek Patriarch of Jerusalem to Pope Urban II., appealing to him and to the whole Christian world to come and deliver them and the Holy Sepulchre from their oppressors. The pope, supported by Boemond, Prince of Taranto, the son of Robert Guiscard, gave a favorable answer to the appeal of the patriarch. He saw in the proposed holy war an opportunity of establishing his authority over that of his rival, Pope Clement II., who had been set up by the German emperor; while Boemond was anxious

to win power and wealth for himself and his followers by the conquest of Palestine. Peter the Hermit was encouraged to preach the crusade or holy war throughout France and Italy, and he went from town to town, telling with fiery eloquence the story of the profanation of the Sepulchre of Christ and the wrongs of the eastern Christians. The subject was formally presented by the pope to the Councils of Piacenza and Clermont, and was enforced by the representations of a legate sent by the Greek Emperor Alexis to urge the princes of Europe to arm for the defence of the last bulwark of Christianity in Asia. But what moved the Council of Clermont most profoundly was the thrilling appeal of Peter the Hermit, which brought even the pope to his feet in an earnest indorsement of it. The vast crowd, worked up to the highest state of enthusiasm, answered the pope with a tremendous shout of "God wills it! God wills it!" a phrase which by the direction of the pontiff became the crusader's battle-cry. The holy war was then solemnly proclaimed by the council, and preparations for it were begun.

Thousands of every rank and age in all parts of Europe took the vow to fight for the Holy Sepulchre, and bound the red cross to their shoulders as a token of their pledge. Private quarrels were almost forgotten, and noble and commoner exerted himself to rescue the tomb of Christ from the infidel. Even monks laid aside their rosaries and took up arms. Nobles sold or mortgaged their castles and lands to provide the funds for equipping themselves and their retainers and defraying their share of the cost of the war. Serfs were set free on condition of taking the cross, and even robbers and pirates abandoned their infamous calling and joined the holy war in the hope of expiating their crimes by their services in Palestine. The Jews, who were regarded as the natural enemies of the Christians, fared badly everywhere during this excitement. In the cities on the Rhine they were ruthlessly attacked and massacred, and the Emperor Henry IV. was obliged to take them under his special protection, to secure them "the poor right to live."

The number of those who assumed the cross is placed by the historians of the times at 6,000,000 of men, women, and children. All were impatient to set out, and on the 15th of August, 1096, a body



PETER THE HERMIT PREACHING THE CRUSADE.

of 60,000 set out from the borders of France, led by a brave but improvident soldier, named Walter the Penniless. A little later Peter the Hermit with 40,000 more, and still later 200,000 more, without any definite leader, set out on the same journey. They were without competent commanders or guides, with no discipline, food, or supplies of any kind. They expected all their wants to be supplied in a miraculous manner from Heaven, and when they bitterly realized their error, attempted to live upon the countries they traversed, and so drew upon themselves the hostility of the natives, who fell upon them, harassed their march, and slew large numbers of them. Their crimes and outrages raised up enemies on all sides, and but a mere handful of the immense host that had set out managed to pass the borders of Hungary, and reach Constantinople. Still they were sufficiently numerous to cause the Emperor Alexis no little anxiety. He received them kindly, but exerted himself to hasten them on their journey. They repaid his kindness by committing many outrages in and around Constantinople, but at last he had the satisfaction of seeing them all safe beyond the Bosphorus. Ignorant of the route to Palestine, they plunged recklessly into Asia Minor, and were annihilated on the plains of Nice by the Turkish sultan. For years a pyramid of their bones marked the scene of their destruction.

The true army of the crusaders did not begin its march until the autumn of 1096. It was divided into four columns for the sake of better subsistence. The first army, led by Godfrey of Bouillon, Duke of Lower Lorraine, consisted of the chivalry of his own duchy and of northeastern France. It marched through Germany, Hungary, and Bulgaria, to Constantinople. Raymond, Count of Toulouse, the most powerful prince of southern France, led the second army through Lombardy to the head of the Adriatic, and thence through Dalmatia and Slavonia to Constantinople. The third army, under Boemond, crossed the Adriatic and marched thence to Constantinople. The fourth army, under Hugh of Vermandois, brother of the French king; Robert of Normandy, son of William the Conqueror; Robert of Flanders, and Stephen of Blois and Chartres, marched through Italy, receiving the pope's blessing on the way. They neglected to secure the means of transportation, and reached Constantinople in a

greatly demoralized condition, nine months after the appointed time.

The arrival of such powerful armies at Constantinople astonished and alarmed the Emperor Alexis, who had not expected such an answer to his appeal for aid. He skilfully prevented the union of any two of the confederate armies before Constantinople, and hastened them over the Bosphorus into Bithynia, where, in the spring of 1097, they were assembled to the number of 100,000 fighting men and a vast number of pilgrims and camp followers. Their first operation was the siege and capture of Nice, the capital of the Turkish kingdom of Roum, which fell on the 20th of June, 1097. The Emperor Alexis adroitly claimed and secured this city as a possession of the empire. Marching into Phrygia, they defeated the Turks on the 4th of July, near Dorylæum. Tancred and Baldwin, the brother of Godfrey, were sent forward with the cavalry. Tancred captured Tarsus, and Baldwin, coming up later, wished to plunder it in violation of the pledge the former had made the inhabitants. A quarrel ensued between the two leaders, and Tancred being sustained by the other chieftains, Baldwin, in disgust, drew off his followers, and went to the assistance of the Greek tyrant of Edessa, who had been suffered to reign as a tributary of the Turks. He adopted Baldwin as his son, but the latter was no sooner admitted into the city than he put his adoptive father to death and seized the throne for himself. Baldwin conquered and annexed portions of Armenia and Mesopotamia, and thus erected the first Christian kingdom in Asia.

The next success of the crusaders was the capture of Antioch, which was taken after a siege of seven months. The citadel still held out, but it was forced to surrender, and a powerful Turkish army which had advanced to the relief of Antioch was routed on the 28th of June, 1098. The Khalif of Egypt took advantage of the defeat of the Turks to make himself master of Jerusalem and Palestine. He attempted to open friendly negotiations with the crusaders, but was answered sternly that they knew no difference between the Turk and the Saracen. Any Mohammedan claiming the sovereignty of Jerusalem was their foe.

In the summer of 1099 the crusading army arrived before Jerusalem, having occupied northern and central Palestine on

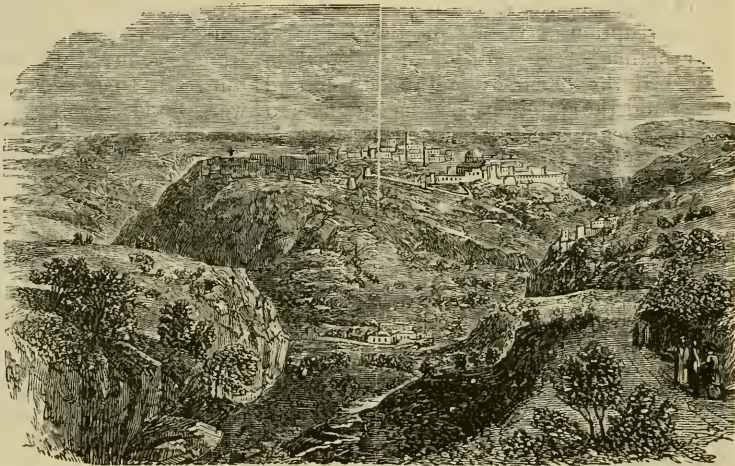
the march. As they came in sight of the holy city they burst into "tears of joy and penitence," and shouts of enthusiasm. Of all the vast hosts—nearly 900,000 in number—that had left their homes in Europe, only 40,000 remained. The rest had fallen in battle or had died of the effects of wounds, disease, and dissipation. Jerusalem was carried by assault on the 15th of July, after a siege of forty days. Seventy thousand Moslems were put to the sword, and in the enclosure of the Mosque of Omar (the ancient Temple area) the knights rode in blood to their horses' knees. The massacre continued for seven days. Then, remembering that they were pilgrims, the crusaders washed the blood from their hands and went bareheaded and barefoot to pray at the Holy Sepulchre.

Eight days after the capture of the city the crusaders chose Godfrey of Bouillon, the best and wisest of their leaders, to be King of Jerusalem. Godfrey refused to wear a golden diadem in the city where the Saviour had been crowned with thorns, and took the modest title of Defender and Baron of the Holy Sepulchre. A code of laws, called the Assise of Jerusalem,

was prepared by the most competent of the crusaders, and made the law of the kingdom. A few weeks later the Sultan of Egypt, who was marching to the relief of Jerusalem, was utterly routed by the Christian army under Godfrey, at Askelon. This victory established the Christian kingdom for the time, and the greater number of the crusaders, deeming their vow accomplished in the recovery of the Holy Sepulchre, went back to Europe, leaving Godfrey with only 300 knights and 2,000 foot soldiers for the defence of Palestine. The position of Godfrey was one of danger as well as of honor. His kingdom consisted only of Jerusalem, Jaffa, and some twenty villages and towns of the surrounding country, and the Saracens still held some impregnable castles in this region.

The kingdom which the crusaders set up in Palestine was a singular establishment. It was French in language, laws, and customs. Godfrey died in A. D. 1200, one year after his coronation, and was succeeded by his brother Baldwin, who was his inferior in every respect. By successive conquests the borders of the Latin kingdom were extended eastward to the Euphrates and southward to the Egyptian frontier. The kingdom was divided into four great feudal baronies, namely, Tripoli, Galilee, Cæsarea, and Nazareth, and Jaffa and Ascalon. Of all their Syrian conquests the Mohammedans retained only Ems, Hamath, Damascus, and Aleppo.

The situation of the Christian kingdom, in the midst of the vast hosts of Mohammedans which peopled the Eastern world, was



JERUSALEM AND ITS VALLEYS.

at all times one of danger. The entire armed force of the realm never exceeded 11,000 men. Fortunately there sprang up in Jerusalem two military orders which constituted themselves the bulwark of the kingdom and filled Europe with the fame of their deeds. In 1121 the monks of St. John, who had until now devoted themselves to the offices of religion and the care of the sick, added to their vows another which bound them to the defence of the Holy Sepulchre. They took the name of Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, and were generally known as "Knights Hospitallers." Nobles and princes came from all parts of Europe to Jerusalem to enroll themselves in the ranks of the order, and in a short space of time some 28,000 farms and manors were bestowed upon them in

various parts of Europe, which enabled them to support a regular force of cavalry and infantry for the defence of the Holy Land. The other order was that of the Templars, or Knights of the Temple, so called from their being assigned as quarters a building in the Temple enclosure. They began in a very humble way, but so distinguished themselves by their splendid courage that recruits flocked to them from the noblest houses of Europe, and they increased rapidly in numbers and in wealth. Valuable possessions were bestowed upon them in every country in Europe, and they soon became the most powerful military order in Christendom. The devotion of their poorer days died out with the prosperity of both the Hospitallers and the Templars. They became corrupt; "the world was scandalized by the pride, avarice, and corruption of these Christian soldiers; their claims of immunity and jurisdiction disturbed the harmony of the church and state; and the public peace was endangered by their jealous emulation. But in their most dissolute period the Knights of the Hospital and the Temple maintained their fearless and fanatic character; they neglected to live, but they were prepared to die, in the service of Christ."

Towards the middle of the century the Turks began to recover from the weakness which had divided them, and to regain the ground they had lost. In 1146 they took Edessa after a siege of twenty-five days, and recovered from the Latins all their conquests beyond the Euphrates. The eastern frontier of Palestine was thus exposed to the attacks of the Mohammedans, and grave fears were entertained in Europe for the safety of the Latin kingdom. The cause of the Christians in Palestine was eloquently urged in Europe by St. Bernard, Abbot of Clairvaux, and he succeeded in inducing the Emperor Conrad III., Louis VII. of France, and the Kings of Poland and Bohemia to take up arms for the defence of the Holy Land. All ranks and classes assumed the cross with enthusiasm, and vast numbers left their homes to join the Second Crusade. Over half a million fighting men, besides a vast number of camp-followers, women and children, monks, etc., composed the army which set out from Europe for Palestine.

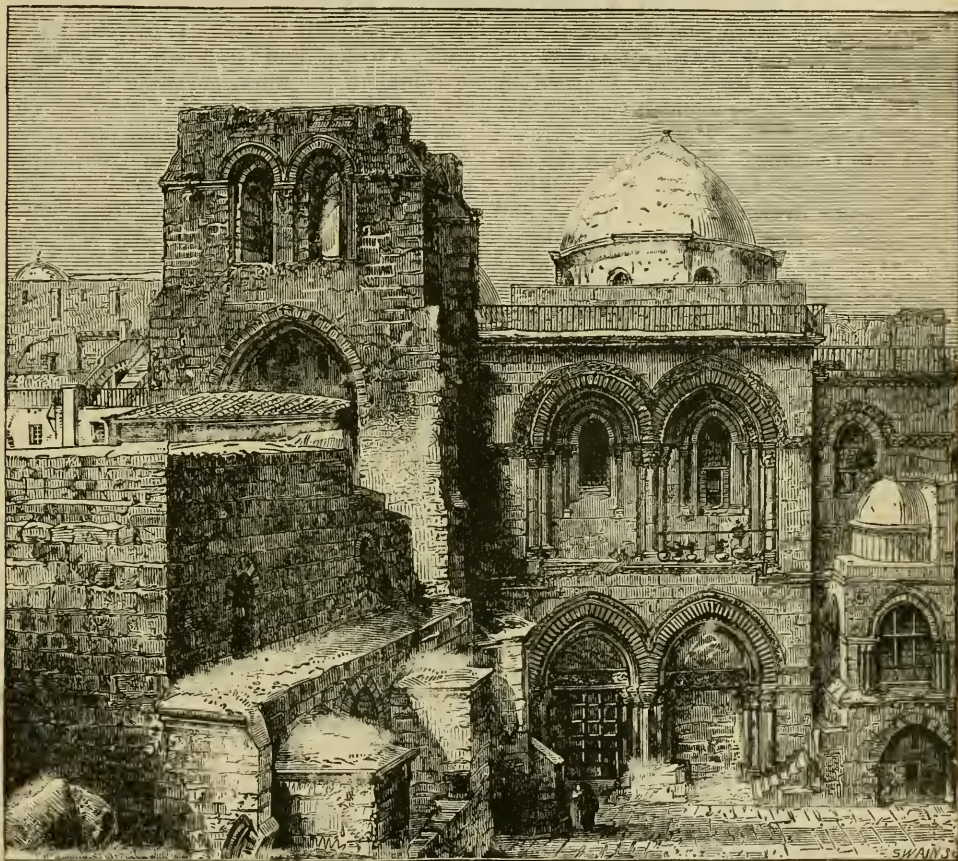
The Emperor Manuel Comnenus, who now occupied the Byzantine throne, viewed with alarm the approach of this vast host.

"It was secretly, and perhaps tacitly resolved by the prince and people to destroy, or at least to discourage, the pilgrims by every species of injury and oppression. The Western monarchs had stipulated for a safe passage and a fair market in the country of their Christian brethren; but every engagement was violated by treachery and injustice. Instead of an hospitable reception, the gates of the cities, both in Europe and Asia, were closely barred against the crusaders; the scanty pittance of food was let down in baskets from the walls; the bread was poisoned by a mixture of chalk and other noxious ingredients. In every step of their march they were stopped or misled; the governors had private orders to fortify the passes and break down the bridges against them; the stragglers were pillaged and murdered; the soldiers and horses were pierced in the woods by arrows from an invisible hand; the sick were burnt in their beds; and the dead bodies were hung on gibbets along the highways. These injuries exasperated the champions of the cross, who were not endowed with evangelical patience; and the Byzantine princes, who had provoked the unequal conflict, promoted the embarkation and march of these formidable guests. The Germans crossed over the Bosphorus first, and, without waiting for the French, Conrad, with half the German forces, took the road to Iconium, whilst the other half, under the command of Bishop Otto of Freysingen, chose the route of Ephesus. The emperor was treacherously misled by the Greek guides into the mountains of Cappadocia, which were occupied by the Turks; and, being hemmed in on every side, was compelled to a disastrous retreat, in which he lost the greater part of his troops. The division under Otto met with an almost similar fate."

Louis of France, warned by the fate of the Germans, took the route by way of Philadelphia and Smyrna. Scarcity of provisions compelled him to diverge to Ephesus, where the Emperor Conrad, who had accompanied him, left him and went back to Constantinople. There he borrowed some Greek vessels and made the pilgrimage to Palestine by sea. Louis continued his march, and gained a victory over the Turks at the crossing of the Meander, but, a little later, was surprised and defeated by the Turks in a narrow mountain pass between Phrygia and Pisidia. With great

difficulty he secured his retreat to the friendly seaport of Satalia. There only vessels enough for the king and his knights could be obtained, and in these they sailed for Palestine, leaving the "plebeian crowd of infantry to perish at the foot of the Pamphylian hills." Louis and Conrad met at Jerusalem. Uniting the wreck of their armies with the Christian forces in Syria, they made a fruitless attempt to capture Damascus. Failing to accomplish anything,

Khalif of Bagdad. Nouredin appointed Saladin, a powerful young emir, and the nephew of the conqueror of Egypt, as his lieutenant in that country. Saladin by his brilliant qualities attached the army to his person, and was contemplating a revolt against the sultan when the death of Nouredin freed him from his allegiance, and enabled him to make himself Sultan of Egypt and Syria. Having established his authority over these countries he attacked



CHURCH OF THE HOLY SEPULCHRE—JERUSALEM.

the two monarchs returned to Europe, and thus ended the Second Crusade.

The Latin kingdom in Palestine owed its long continued existence to the enmity which existed between the Turks and the Saracens during this period. A new state of affairs followed the failure of the Second Crusade. In A. D. 1171 the Fatimite Khalif of Egypt was dethroned by the Lieutenant of Nouredin, the Turkish Sultan of Damascus, who was subject to the Abbassid

the Christian kingdom in Palestine in 1187. He defeated the Christian army in a bloody battle of two days near the Lake of Tiberias. Guy of Lusignan, the last Christian King of Jerusalem, was taken prisoner, together with the Grand-master of the Templars, and many of the noblest of the Christian knights, 230 of whom suffered martyrdom rather than deny their faith. Tiberias, Acre, Jaffa, Cæsarea, and many other towns fell into Saladin's hands in consequence of

this victory. Tyre held out, but Jerusalem was surrendered after a prolonged and desperate defence. The Latins and the Franks were expelled from the Holy City, and the Mosque of Omar, which had been converted into a Christian church, was again consecrated to one God and his prophet Mohammed.

The news of the capture of Jerusalem fell like a thunderbolt upon Europe. The sovereigns of Germany, France, England, and Sicily, with the flower of the chivalry of those countries, assumed the cross. The Emperor Frederick Barbarossa was the first to set out for Palestine. Warned by the fate of Conrad, he avoided Constantinople, and crossing the Hellespont marched direct into Iconium. He captured the city of the same name, the capital of that kingdom, but was drowned in the Cydnus, and after encountering the greatest hardships and privations only one-tenth of his army reached Acre to take part in the siege. The sufferings of the Germans here were so great that some soldiers from Bremen and Lubec organized a field-hospital and devoted themselves to nursing their unfortunate comrades. The Duke of Suabia organized them into a new order which took the name of Teutonic Knights. They combined the benevolent duties of the Hospitallers and the military vows of the Templars, and devoted themselves to the relief of the sick and the defence of the holy places. In course of time the Teutonic Knights became one of the leading military orders of Europe.

The siege of Acre, which was important as the most convenient of the fortified seaports of Palestine for communication with Europe, was the first enterprise attempted by the Christians. In spite of the immense force engaged, the siege lagged until the arrival of Richard I. of England and Philip Augustus of France with their armies. Richard infused new life into the siege, and in July, 1191, Acre was taken by storm. The Duke of Austria planted his banner by the side of those of France and England on the wall of the captured city, but Richard removed it with his own hand, and pitched it into the ditch. Leopold, the Austrian duke, bitterly resented this insult, and subsequently avenged it by capturing the English king on his return home through Austria, and throwing him into prison. Richard's exploits raised him to the proud rank of the hero of the war, but won him the enmity of the other princes. Philip of

France, jealous of the superior fame of his English rival, abandoned the crusade, and returned home, first swearing a solemn oath not to seek to injure Richard during the absence of the latter in Palestine. He left a large portion of his army in Palestine under the Duke of Burgundy, subject to the command of the King of England. The violation of his oath by Philip and his course in persuading John to seize the throne of England have been related. News of this reached Richard in Palestine. He was engaged in the task of refortifying Jaffa, Ascalon, and Gaza, and he remained to complete the work, engaging in it with his own hands like a common soldier. The task completed, the Christian army advanced towards Jerusalem and encamped within sight of the Holy City, which was defended by Saladin with a strong force. The Duke of Burgundy, either from prudence or from treachery, refused to join in the attack which Richard ordered, and the king was obliged to withdraw to the coast, after bitterly denouncing the cowardice of his allies. Conrad of Montferrat was chosen King of Jerusalem, and Richard bestowed Cyprus upon Guy of Lusignan to indemnify him for the loss of his empty title. The English king had captured that island from the Greek emperor on his way to Palestine. Conrad died before he could be crowned, and Count Henry of Champagne succeeded to his barren honors. After relieving Jaffa, which had almost fallen into the hands of Saladin, Richard, finding it impossible to accomplish anything with such lukewarm allies, concluded a truce of three years and eight months with Saladin, and set out on his return to England, A. D. 1192. On his way he was captured by the Duke of Austria. The events of his captivity and release have been related.

During the captivity of Richard in Germany Saladin died in Palestine, A. D. 1193. His three sons became the Sultans of Aleppo, Damascus, and Egypt, but the greater part of his Syrian dominions passed into the hands of his brother Saphadin. The German princes and bishops undertook an expedition against him in 1197, and inflicted a severe defeat upon him between Tyre and Sidon, liberating many cities and freeing 9,000 Christian captives. News of the emperor's death arrived immediately after this victory, and the Germans at once returned to Europe. Saphadin, taking advantage of their withdrawal, recaptured

Jaffa and put the entire population to the sword.

In A. D. 1200 Pope Innocent III. proclaimed a Fourth Crusade, and levied a tax upon all Christendom for the expenses of the war. Those who could not join the army of the cross were allowed to purchase exemption by the payment of money, and large sums poured into the treasury of St. Peter. A council of the French barons was held at Soissons to make arrangements for the war, and it was decided to proceed to Syria by sea. To procure the necessary shipping a treaty was made with the republic of Venice, the crusaders agreeing to pay a liberal sum for the services of the Venetian fleet, and to share with the republic the prizes taken during the war. Shortly after Easter, A. D. 1202, the crusaders assembled at Venice, and being unable to raise the full sum required by the republic for the services of the fleet, the doge agreed to allow them more time on condition of their conquering Zara, a town on the Dalmatian coast, which had revolted from Venice and gone over to the King of Hungary. This they accomplished, as has been related. While wintering at Zara they were appealed to by the young Greek Prince Alexis Angelus, the son of the deposed Emperor of Constantinople, to aid him in regaining his throne. Alexis promised in return for this assistance to defray the greater part of the expenses of the crusade and to assist them with his army. The pope forbade this departure from the objects of the expedition, but the crusaders resolved to assist Alexis. They sailed to Constantinople and captured that city. Thus the Fourth Crusade degenerated into the Latin conquest of Constantinople and the erection of a Latin empire on the ruins of the old Greek state. The events of this undertaking have been related elsewhere, and we need not repeat them here. The success of the Latins alarmed Saphadin, and he sought and obtained a six years' truce.

In 1211 a singular expedition set out for Palestine from the borders of Germany. It consisted of about 90,000 children, led by a child. These little ones had been induced to believe that the warriors of Christendom had failed to possess the Holy Land because of their sins, and that this success was reserved for the weak and innocent. They reached Genoa, and there found their progress barred by the sea, of

which they had never heard. Some took shipping and were captured by Moorish corsairs; others wandered about Italy and perished of fatigue and hunger; but few, if any, ever regained their homes or trod the sands of Palestine.

In 1216 Innocent III. proclaimed a Fifth Crusade. The Christians were led by Andrew II. of Hungary, and his army was made up of knights and men-at-arms from all parts of Europe. He accomplished nothing, and a second army, mainly of Germans, set out. Instead of proceeding to Palestine the crusaders sailed to Egypt, where they captured Damietta, but their affairs were so badly managed that the Sultan of Egypt was able to compel their surrender. The sultan supplied food to the starving remnants of the Christian army and allowed them to march into Syria.

In 1227 the Emperor Frederick II., who had been excommunicated by the pope for his delay in joining the crusade, proceeded to Syria. He was unable to accomplish anything by force of arms in consequence of the hostility of the papal party. He induced the Sultan of Egypt to cede the city of Jerusalem and several other towns to the Christians. The incidents of Frederick's stay in Palestine have been related. Upon his return to Europe the Mohammedans broke the truce, and all that Frederick had gained was swept away.

A Sixth Crusade was proclaimed by the pope in 1234. The purpose of the pontiff was in reality to fill his coffers with the commutation money of Christendom rather than to help the Syrian Christians, and when the English Richard, Earl of Cornwall and many nobles of that country took the cross and set out for Palestine, the pope endeavored to stop them. The English were joined in Palestine by a French army under the King of Navarre. The crusaders merely by a display of force compelled the Sultan of Egypt to restore to them the greater part of Palestine. They rebuilt the walls of Jerusalem and reconsecrated the churches. A few years later Palestine was overwhelmed by the Tartar hordes of Khorasmia. Jerusalem was captured and most of its inhabitants were put to the sword. The Templars and Hospitallers were defeated, their grand-masters slain, and these orders in the East reduced to a mere handful.

The Seventh Crusade was led by Louis IX. of France. He was accompanied by

his three brothers, the Counts of Anjou, Artois, and Poitiers, and the chivalry of France. He sailed to Cyprus, where he passed the winter, and in the spring of 1249 proceeded to Egypt, where he received the surrender of Damietta. In the march to Cairo he was defeated in the battle of Mansourah and forced to begin a disastrous retreat, which resulted in his surrender, together with all his nobles and 20,000 men-at-arms. The sultan agreed to release him upon the payment of a million of golden bezants, but was so impressed by the nobleness of the character of Louis that he voluntarily remitted 200,000 bezants. The liberty of the king was purchased by the surrender of Damietta, and a truce for ten years was concluded between Louis and the sultan. Louis then proceeded to Palestine, where he remained four years longer, seeking to introduce a system of good government in that country, but refraining from attempting to visit Jerusalem, since he could not conquer it. The death of his mother, the queen regent, recalled him to France in 1253. After his departure the rival Christian merchants, and especially the military orders, broke out into fierce quarrels with each other. A desperate battle was fought between the Hospitallers and the Templars, and scarcely a member of the latter order was left alive. This shameful strife was brought to a close by an invasion of Palestine and Syria by the Mamelukes. Jaffa and the principal towns were captured, Antioch was forced to surrender, and 100,000 of its inhabitants were made prisoners.

The news of the fall of Antioch induced Louis IX. of France, Prince Edward of England, and the powerful English Earls of Pembroke and Warwick to embark in an Eighth Crusade. Louis, for some strange reason, turned aside from Palestine and attacked Tunis, in Africa. His brother Charles of Anjou, now King of Sicily, was no doubt the true author of this movement, as he wished to recover northern Africa, which had formerly been tributary to the Neapolitan kingdom. Carthage was captured and plundered, but a plague broke out in the French camp, and carried off many of the crusaders, among them the good King Louis and one of his sons, August, 1270. Prince Edward of England reached Palestine the next spring, and gathered around him all the Latin forces. Nazareth was taken, and, after a victory

over the Turks, a truce for ten years was negotiated with the Sultan of Egypt. The death of Henry III. of England in November, 1272, obliged Edward to return home.

The outrages of the Christians upon the Mohammedans brought the truce to a sudden ending, and the sultan took the field with a powerful army, resolved to utterly destroy the Latin power in the East. One after another of the Christian strongholds were captured, and the remnants of the Latins were shut up in the city of Acre, which during this period became one of the most infamous spots upon the globe, and the cause of Christendom was shamed by the crimes of its defenders. In 1291 Khalil, Sultan of Egypt, attacked the town with an army of 200,000 men, and after a desperate defence of thirty-three days carried it by storm, and death or slavery was the lot of 60,000 Christians. Only a mere handful of the defenders, who succeeded in gaining the vessels in the harbor, escaped to Cyprus. The loss of Acre was followed by that of the whole of Palestine, which passed entirely into the hands of the Turks. "By the command of the sultan the churches and fortifications of the Latin cities were demolished; a motive of avarice or fear still opened the Holy Sepulchre to some devout and defenceless pilgrims; and a mournful and solitary silence prevailed along the coast which had so long resounded with the world's debate."

Thus closed the effort which had for so long enlisted some of the noblest spirits and caused a liberal expenditure of the blood and wealth of Christendom. Naturally such a movement could not be without lasting effects upon Europe, effects which give to the crusades their chief importance in history. First of all these results was that of the union of so many nations in one cause. The races of Europe came to know each other better, and a spirit of friendly intercourse, an interchange of noble sentiments and liberal ideas was inaugurated among them. This in itself was worth all the cost of these holy wars.

The necessity of keeping up constant communication with the Christians in Syria and Palestine resulted in the growth of a regular and extensive commerce between Europe and Asia. China, India, and Persia were brought into commercial intercourse with the western world, and articles of oriental luxury poured into Europe, creating new wants, and enlarging the

channels of trade. Merchants from the far East visited the cities of Europe, and European travellers and merchants brought back valuable narratives of the wonders of the ancient world. The arts and the languages of Asia were introduced into Europe, and exercised a marked effect upon the literature and civilization of that continent.

Chivalry, though older than the crusades, received its most powerful stimulus from these wars. It was the legitimate result of feudalism, but the crusades expanded and developed it, and invested it with a splendor which it could scarcely have attained in the West. It had for its object the training of the warrior in the exercises and duties of his profession, and the implanting in him of those noble sentiments and lofty aspirations which were to lift him up above the vulgar level of a mere slayer of men. Its leading principles were the honoring of valor, and the reverence and protection of woman.

Youths destined for the profession of arms—and in this class we must include all the nobility and gentry of Europe—were trained under the eye of their feudal lord or some veteran warrior. From seven to fourteen years of age the youth was termed a *page*. His duties were principally to attend upon the ladies of the mansion. In their society he was taught obedience, courtesy, and the reverence due to the female sex. He was also instructed in music, chess, religion, and the use of the sword and lighter weapons. Love was impressed upon him as both a duty and a privilege, and he was from the first encouraged to select some fair lady as the object of his devotion, whose charms he celebrated, and for whose defence he was taught that it was a privilege to lay down life itself. "The love of God and the ladies," says Hallam, "was enjoined as a single duty. He who was faithful and true to his mistress was held sure of salvation, in the theology of the castle."

When he had attained the age of fourteen, the page became an *esquire*, or *squire*, and from the society of the ladies was transferred to that of the knights and men-at-arms. His duty was to attend upon his lord, whom he was usually allowed to select. He waited upon him in the castle and camp, cleaned his armor, took care of his weapons, put on his armor and released him from it, and went into battle by his

side to provide him with fresh weapons in case of need, and to aid him by his personal efforts when hard pressed. He continued in this position until he was twenty-one, when, if he merited the honor or had won it by gallantry on the field, he was advanced to the grade of *knight*.

The ceremonial of the investiture of the candidate with the order of knighthood was elaborate and imposing. The candidate was required to fast for a day and to confess his sins, after which he received absolution. He then passed the night in prayer and watching before the altar of some church, before which the arms he was to assume the next day were placed. This was called the "Vigil of Arms." The next morning, having bathed and clothed himself in new robes, over which was placed the coat of mail, he repaired to the church, where he was examined as to his fitness for the dignity to which he aspired. If adjudged worthy, he received the sacrament. He then swore on the gospels to be brave, loyal, good, just, generous, and courteous; that he would defend the church, the clergy, and the ladies, and redress the wrongs of the widow and orphan, the weak and the defenceless. Then the baldric, a white leather belt, worked with gold, was slung around him, the golden spurs were buckled upon his feet, and the prince or lord who was to confer the honor took the candidate's own sword and struck him sharply with the flat side over the back, and hailed him by his new title of "Sir Knight." Any one who had received the knighthood had the right to confer it upon a worthy candidate, and it was often conferred upon the field of battle to reward some brave deed.

The knights delighted in manly sports and daring deeds. Their favorite amusement was the tournament, or trial of arms. Tournaments were held in honor of some great victory, royal marriage, or other public event, but were not confined to these occasions. They were engaged in by all knights on terms of equality, and were governed by strict rules designed to secure fair play between the combatants. The knights fought with blunted weapons, but hard blows were given, and many serious injuries received. The victor knight was greeted with the praise of the spectators, and was entitled to crown his lady love "Queen of Love and Beauty."

Historians differ as to the effects of the

institution of chivalry upon the times, but it seems certain that it did more than anything else to rob war of its brutality, for, whatever its faults, it set up a noble standard for the emulation of its votaries. The true knight was not only brave, but faithful, tender, courteous, generous, and religious. Men were taught to help, and not to crush the weak and oppressed, and woman was elevated to her proper place in the social scale by the reverence and devotion with which the stern, hard-fisted war-

rior was taught to regard her. Chivalry did not keep its followers altogether from great and terrible faults, but it made them better than they would have been without its spirit, and at least kept them constantly in mind of their duty to God and man.

The institution of chivalry died out with feudalism. The changes in the mode of warfare wrought by the introduction of gunpowder made the knight out of place, and put an end to his existence.

BOOK XXIV.

THE HISTORY OF THE TURKISH EMPIRE.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE FOUNDATION OF THE EMPIRE TO THE PRESENT DAY.

Death of Kublai Khan—Orthogrul Establishes the Empire of the Ottoman Turks—Bithynia Conquered by the Turks—Orchan Aids the Greek Emperor Cantacuzene—The Turks Gain a Foothold in Europe—They Take Possession of Thrace—Amurath I.—Makes Adrianople his Capital—The Janizaries—Bajazet I. Assumes the Title of Sultan—Attempts the Conquest of Hungary—Besieges Constantinople—Tamerlane—His Conquests—Defeats Bajazet—His Empire—Mohammed I. Becomes Sultan—Mohammed II. Captures Constantinople—Makes it the Capital of the Empire—Conquers Greece—Selim I.—His Conquests—Solyman I. Takes Belgrade—Capture of Rhodes—Wars with Venice—Battle of Lepanto—Destruction of the Turkish Naval Power in the Mediterranean—Wars with the German Emperors—Vienna Besieged—It is Relieved by John Sobieski—Peace of Carlowitz—Azov Ceded to Russia—It is Regained—The Peace of Passarowitz—Wars with Russia—Catherine the Great—Russia Gains the Crimea—Successful Revolt of Serbia—Decline of Turkey—The Greek Revolution—Greek Independence Secured—Revolt of Egypt—Its Settlement—The Crimean War—The Cretan Revolt—The Sultan Visits Paris and London—Abrogation of the Treaty of Paris—Revolt in Herzegovina—Turkey Insolvent—Abdul Hamid II.—The Herzegovinian War—Efforts of the European Powers to Secure Peace and Reform—The Bulgarian Massacres—Serbia and Montenegro Declare War against Turkey—Intervention of Russia—The Conference—The Turkish Constitution—Failure of the Conference—Obstinaey of Turkey—Peace with Serbia—The Protocol—Turkey Rejects it.

THE vast empire of Kublai Khan ended with his life. Among the many chiefs who rose to power upon its ruins was Orthogrul, a Turkish leader. His son Othman completed the work begun by his father, and, having conquered a portion of

Nicomedia, established his capital at Prusa, and laid the foundations of the empire of the Ottoman Turks, who take their name from him. His son Orchan, taking advantage of the struggle between the elder and younger Andronicus, conquered Bithynia and advanced his dominions to the Hellespont. When the Emperor Cantacuzene embarked in his struggle for the throne, he asked the assistance of the Turks and even gave his daughter in marriage to Orchan. Solyman, the son of Orchan, was sent over to Europe at the head of 10,000 horse to aid Cantacuzene in his last quarrel with John Palæologus, and the Turks were thus given a foothold in Europe which they never relinquished. The Chersonesus was quietly but rapidly filled with a Turkish colony, and the fortresses of Thrace passed into the hands of the Turks, who refused to surrender them to the Byzantine court, A. D. 1353.

Amurath I., the son of Orchan and brother of Solyman, came to the throne in 1360. He conquered all of Thrace and made Adrianople the capital of his kingdom. His dominions extended to within a short distance of Constantinople. He might have captured the capital of the Greek empire, but he deemed it best to delay this conquest for a while. He turned his arms against the Bulgarians, the Servians, Bosnians, and Albanians, the Slavonian nations inhabiting the region between the Danube and the Adriatic, and subdued them. From the multitude of his Christian captives Amurath selected the strongest and most beautiful youths, and had them

trained for his service. They became known as janizaries, and being reared from early childhood in the Mohammedan religion and treated with great favor by the sultan, they became his most devoted subjects. They also constituted the flower of the Turkish army, and were regarded as the most formidable troops in the world. Amurath was mortally wounded in battle in 1389. He was succeeded by his son Bajazet I., called "Ilderim," or "Lightning." He secured uninterrupted communication between his dominions in Europe and Asia by stationing a fleet of galleys at Gallipoli. With these he was able to command the Hellespont and intercept the expeditions sent from western Europe to the relief of Constantinople. The predecessors of Bajazet had been content with the title of emir, but he assumed that of sultan. He filled Europe with terror, and made a strenuous effort to conquer Hungary. All western Europe sent assistance to Hungary, whose cause was that of Christendom, but Bajazet inflicted a severe defeat at Nicopolis, in 1396, upon a confederated army of 100,000 Christians led by Sigmond, King of Hungary. Bajazet invariably treated the Greek emperors as his vassals. He enclosed their empire, which consisted of but little more than Constantinople and its suburbs, on all sides with his extensive dominions, and the capture of the city was simply a question of time. He took advantage of the death of John Palæologus and the accession of Manuel to claim the city as his own, and his demand being refused, besieged Constantinople. The city would speedily have fallen into his hands had he not been suddenly summoned to Asia to meet the advance of a new and formidable enemy, and Constantinople was spared for a while longer.

This new enemy was a Turkish chieftain named Timour, or Tamerlane. His ancestors had done service to the Mogul Khans, and at an early age he had risen to a high rank in the service of their successors. At the age of thirty-four (A. D. 1370) he became Emir of Zagatai and the East, but this did not content him. He coveted the sovereignty of the world, and by the force of his genius became in the next thirty years the ruler of the greater part of the Mogul empire. Between 1370 and 1400 he conquered and annexed to his dominions Persia, Georgia, Tartary and India. At

the close of the century, although sixty-three years old, he descended from the Georgian hills and marched to conquer Syria and Egypt. It was the news of his approach that summoned Sultan Bajazet from the siege of Constantinople to take the field against the most formidable adversary the Ottoman Turks had yet encountered.

The effort of Bajazet I. to check the victorious march of Timour proved in vain. The latter took Aleppo and Damascus in Syria and reduced them to ashes. He turned aside from the invasion of Palestine and overran the provinces of Armenia and Anatolia. Bajazet endeavored to compel him to raise the siege of Angora in the latter country, but was defeated in a great battle near that city, and made a prisoner, July 28th, 1402. Timour was now master of all the vast region from the Irtish and the Volga to the Persian Gulf, and from the Ganges to Damascus and the Archipelago. Only the lack of vessels prevented him from carrying his conquests beyond the Hellespont. He ruled this immense empire with firmness and ability, and "might boast that, at his accession to the throne, Asia was the prey of anarchy and rapine, whilst under his prosperous monarchy a child, fearless and unhurt, might carry a purse of gold from the east to the west. Such was his confidence of merit that from this reformation he derived an excuse for his victories and a title to universal dominion. But the remedy was far more pernicious than the disease; and whole nations were crushed under the footsteps of the reformer. The ground which had been occupied by flourishing cities was often marked by his abominable trophies, by columns or pyramids of human heads." Timour died in 1405, while preparing for the conquest of China, and his empire was soon broken up among his descendants.

The capture of Sultan Bajazet was followed in the Turkish dominions by a fierce civil war among his five sons, which lasted from 1403 to 1413. At the end of this time order was restored by Mohammed I., who was recognized as universal sultan. The eight years of his reign were peaceful, and were spent in consolidating his power in his dominions and in re-establishing the reign of law which had been overthrown by the civil war. His son Amurath II. succeeded him in 1421. The next year Amurath renewed the attack upon Con-

stantinople, but after a siege of two months abandoned the attempt. He was a man of singular moderation and justice for one of his race, and preferred the repose of private life to the cares of empire. Resigning the sceptre to his son he retired to Magnesia. The invasion of the Hungarians drew him from his retirement, and his son relinquished the crown to him. The Christians were finally routed in the great battle of Varna (1444), and Amurath again resigned the crown to his son, Mohammed II. A few years later a formidable rebellion of the



SELIM I.

janizaries obliged the sultan once more to resume the government, as his son was too young and inexperienced to control the army. He remained on the throne until his death in 1451.

Mohammed II. was twenty-one years old at the death of his father. He had been educated with the utmost care, and is said to have spoken in addition to his native tongue the Arabic, Persian, Hebrew, Greek and Latin languages. Yet in spite of this training he was a cruel, brutal, and lustful tyrant. From the opening of his reign he

was resolved upon the capture of Constantinople. In 1452 he began to fortify the Bosphorus to prevent the passage of European fleets to the assistance of the Greek capital, and in the spring of 1453 advanced to Constantinople, invested the city, and captured it after a siege of fifty-three days. The Greek emperor defended his capital gallantly, but the Turkish force was overwhelming. Constantinople was made the capital of the Turkish empire, but the Greeks were treated with fairness by the conqueror, and were encouraged to remain in the city. Mohammed now sought to follow up his victory by the conquest of Hungary. He advanced to Belgrade and laid siege to that important fortress, but was defeated and driven back by the Regent John Huniades in 1456. These efforts were repeated during the remainder of Mohammed's reign, but without success. The sultan now turned his arms against the remaining Greek states. The Morea was conquered and annexed in 1460, and the next year Trebizond surrendered to him. In 1481 a Turkish force was despatched across the Adriatic, and Otranto on the Italian coast was stormed and sacked. Having secured this important footing in Italy, Mohammed prepared to follow it up by the conquest of the entire peninsula, but amid the general alarm which his movements occasioned throughout Europe, he died. He was succeeded by his son Bajazet II. He was not a conqueror like his father, and under him the Mohammedan dominion fell off instead of advancing.

The reign of Bajazet II. witnessed a decline of the Turkish power. In 1501 their empire was weakened by the establishment of the modern kingdom of Persia under Shah Ismail, the founder of the dynasty of the Sophis. The cause of this division was the adoption by the people of Persia of the doctrines of the Shiah sect of Mohammedans. In 1512 Bajazet's reign was cut short by his enforced abdication in favor of his son Selim I., one of the greatest as well as one of the cruellest of the sultans. He made frequent wars upon the new kingdom of Persia, and made himself master of Kurdistan and Mesopotamia. He next conquered Syria and Egypt and annexed them to the Ottoman empire. He compelled the last of the Abbasside Khalifs to surrender to them the sacred title, which the Ottoman sultans have since borne. He died in 1520, and was succeeded

by his son Solyman I., who proved himself a much abler sovereign than his father. He was the greatest of the sultans.

In the first year of his reign Solyman, who was determined to add Hungary and western Europe to his empire, invaded the former country, and captured Belgrade and a number of important fortresses. He succeeded in conquering and annexing to his dominions the southern part of the kingdom and the Temesvar and Banat. In 1521 he captured the island of Rhodes from the Knights of St. John, who had held it since the crusades. The knights retired from Rhodes to the island of Malta, which was bestowed upon them by the Emperor Charles V. They fortified its principal port, and in 1565 successfully resisted a determined effort of Solyman to capture their stronghold.

In 1535 Solyman's admiral, Khaireddin, called Barbarossa, captured Tunis for him, but it was retaken by the Emperor Charles V., who inflicted a severe punishment upon the Turks in Africa, and restored Tunis to its rightful sovereign. In spite of this defeat, however, the fleet of Barbarossa swept the Mediterranean, and ravaged the coasts of Spain, Italy, and France at pleasure. Thousands of captives were torn from their homes and sent to slavery in Africa. In spite of these outrages, Francis I., of France, in order to defeat the schemes of the Emperor Charles, made an alliance with the Turks. During this period Solyman conquered the islands of the Greek Archipelago, and sent a squadron into the Red Sea to oppose the Portuguese in India. The Venetians lost heavily by these conquests in the Archipelago, where they had extensive possessions. In 1542-3 the Turkish fleet in alliance with the French ravaged the southern coast of Italy. Reggio was burned, numerous captives were taken, and Rome was threatened. The Turkish fleet then sailed for Marseilles, where Barbarossa found a ready market for the captives he had taken on the Calabrian coast. Toulon was assigned to the Turks for their winter quarters. An unsuccessful attempt was made upon Nice by the combined French and Turkish fleets during the same year. A few years later the Turks quarrelled with their Christian allies, and seized a number of French nobles, whom they held for ransom. During the whole of the century the Turkish corsairs kept the coasts of Europe in danger, and during the life

of Solyman the European states were never free from the dread of a general invasion of the infidels. In 1566 Solyman died.

Selim II. succeeded his father. He began his reign by making a truce for twelve years with the Emperor Maximilian II. He was a weak and profligate prince, and secured the allegiance of the janizaries by distributing large sums of money among them. He then made war without success against Persia. In 1570 he sent a fleet and an army of 50,000 men to conquer Cyprus, which for nearly a century had been a dependency of the Venetian republic. The next year saw him in possession of the entire island. Pope Pius V. now organized a holy league, consisting of himself, the King of Spain, and the republic of Venice, for the expulsion of the Turks from the Mediterranean. A fleet of 300 vessels, commanded by Don John of Austria, half-brother of Philip of Spain, was assembled, and despatched against the Mohammedans. The Turkish fleet, superior in strength to that of the Christians, was discovered in the harbor of Lepanto, the ancient Nauptus. Don John at once attacked it, and gained over it one of the most memorable naval victories on record. The Turks lost 224 ships and 30,000 men, and their supremacy in the Mediterranean was utterly destroyed. They never recovered from this blow, and from this battle ceased to be a terror to Europe. Their empire steadily declined from this time. If the Christians had followed up their victory with vigor, they might have wrested Greece from the porte. They were divided by quarrels, however, and the next year the Turks were able to put another fleet afloat. The Venetians now made a separate peace with the sultan, and surrendered all their claims to Cyprus. In 1572 Selim died.

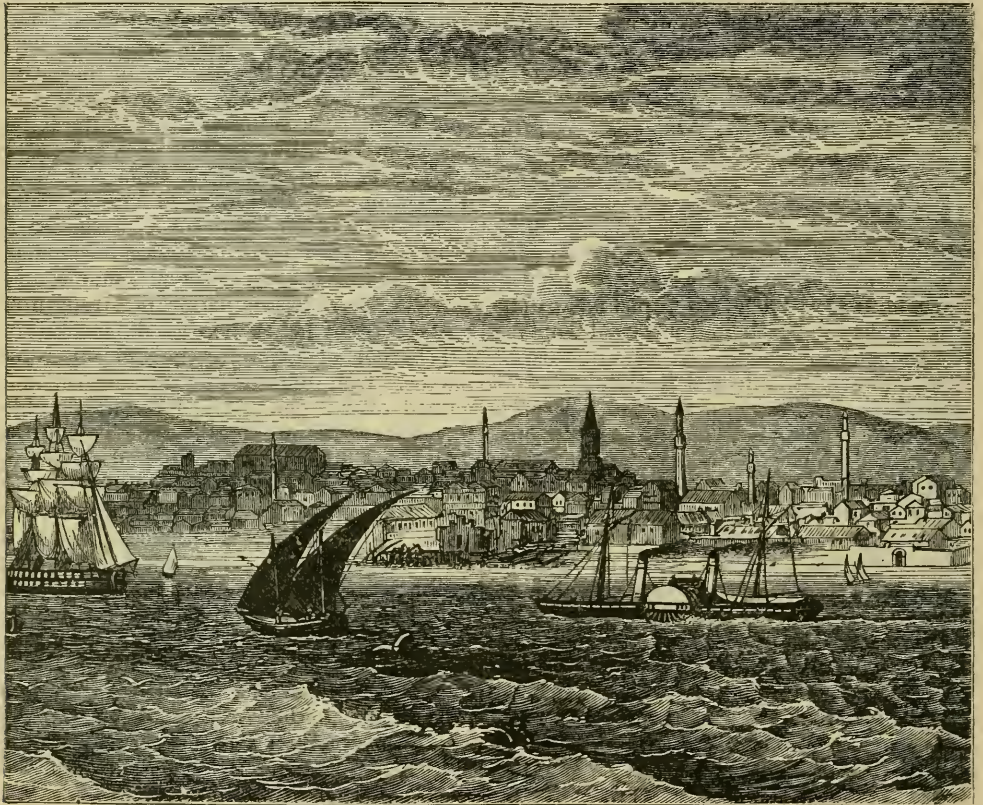
The immediate successors of Selim were sunk in pleasure, and made no efforts to extend their dominions. In 1594 Moldavia, Wallachia, and Transylvania revolted from Amurath III., and made an alliance with the emperor. Amurath in great alarm sent to Damascus for the holy standard, which he supposed would bring him victory. He died in 1595, and was succeeded by his son Mohammed III., who secured his succession by murdering his nineteen brothers. During this year the Austrian army under Count Mansfeld defeated the Turks in a series of battles. In 1596 Mohammed took the field in person, and in a three days'

battle at Keresztes inflicted a terrible defeat upon the Christians, who lost 50,000 men and 100 pieces of cannon. The war lasted until January, 1607, but the Turks neglected to reap the advantages of their great victory, and gained nothing of permanent value by the struggle.

The peace of Sitvatorok in 1607, which closed the war between the Turks and the empire, showed a great abatement in the pretensions of the Turks, whose power now

up to this time by the Venetians; the war for the possession of this island terminated in 1669 in its conquest by the Turks, who held undisputed possession of it for nearly two hundred years.

In 1649 Mohammed IV. came to the throne. In 1663 a new war was begun with Austria. It was closed by the treaty of Vasvar, in August, 1664. The Turks were allowed to retain all their conquests in Hungary, and were paid the sum of 200,000



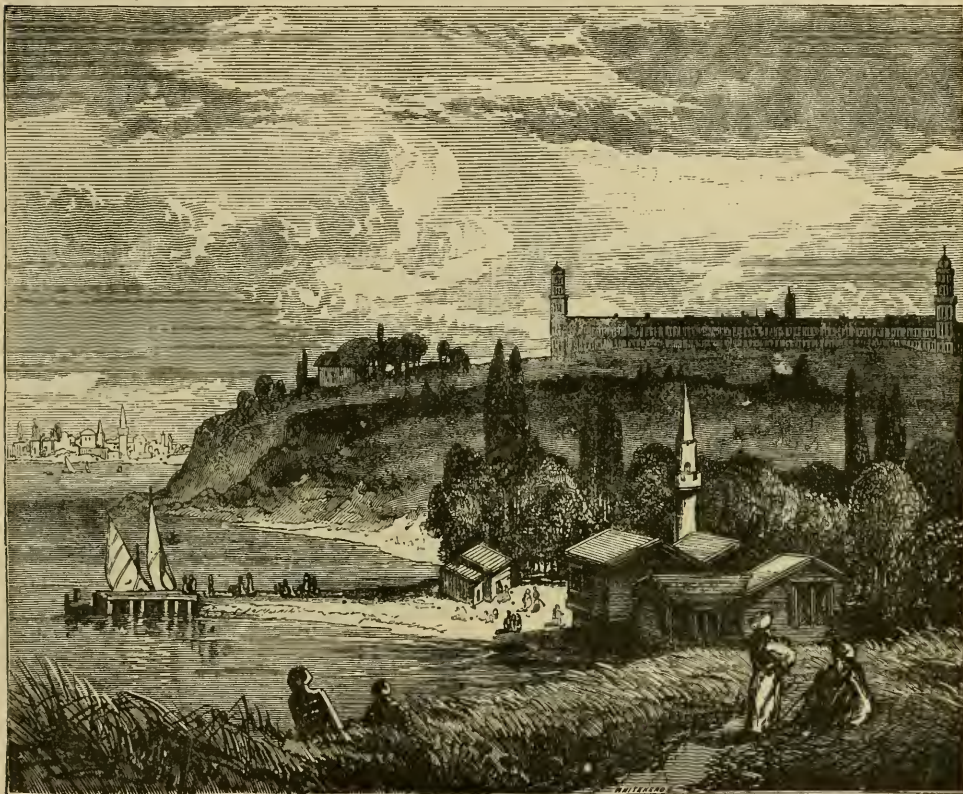
VARNA.

began to decline. In 1618 Mohammed III. was succeeded by his son, Othman II., who attempted the conquest of Poland. His disastrous failure so enraged the janizaries that they murdered him at the close of the war, A. D. 1622. He was only eighteen years old at the time of his death. His uncle, Mustapha, an imbecile, was taken from a dungeon and seated on the throne, but was removed within a year to make way for Amurath IV., the younger brother of Othman. In 1645 the sultan attempted the conquest of Crete, which had been held

florins by the emperor. In 1683, the truce of Vasvar having nearly expired, Mohammed sent an army under Kara Mustapha, the grand vizier, to the assistance of the revolted Hungarians. Vienna was besieged, but was relieved by the armies of King John Sobieski and the Duke of Lorraine. The Turks were defeated and driven out of Austria and Hungary. The Duke of Lorraine continued the war with great energy, and in three years regained all Hungary, Transylvania, and Slavonia for the empire. The long line of defeats which

befell the Turkish arms produced a revolt in Constantinople in 1687. The sultan was thrown into prison, and was succeeded by his brother, Solyman II. This prince was succeeded in 1696 by Mustapha II. The war with Austria and Poland went on with varying success until 1699. In 1684 the Venetians had joined the emperor against the Turks, and had conquered the whole of Peloponnesus. In this war the beautiful temple of the Parthenon, at Athens, which had been converted by the Christian em-

After the treaty of Carlowitz the sultan hesitated for three years before coming to an agreement with Russia, as he was by no means anxious to admit that power to a footing on the Black Sea. The capture of Azov by the Russians made it impossible for him to prevent their presence on the Black Sea, and in July, 1702, he reluctantly submitted to the inevitable, and ceded Azov and a strip of eighty miles of coast to Russia. Peter the Great set to work at once to strengthen Azov, and



VIEW OF SCUTARI.

perors into a church, and by the Turks into a powder-magazine, was blown to atoms by the explosion of the powder stored in it. In 1699 the war was concluded by the peace of Carlowitz. By this treaty Turkey ceded to Austria nearly all the territory she had held in Hungary, Transylvania, Sclavonia, and part of Croatia. Venice received the Peloponnesus, several fortresses in Dalmatia, and the islands of St. Maura and Ægina. Poland obtained the Ukraine, Podolia, and Kameniek.

made it one of the strongest fortresses in Europe.

The power of Turkey steadily declined during this century. The cessation of the tribute of Christian children, by which the janizaries had been recruited, deprived the sultan of his best and most devoted servants. The Turkish armies no longer enjoyed the guidance of great leaders and competent officers. The subject nations began to grow stronger as Turkey grew weaker, and it was plain to all thoughtful observers

that they would not remain in subjection much longer.

The desire of Russia to obtain the northern shore of the Black Sea, and ultimately to wrest their European territory from the Turks, made frequent wars a necessity for Turkey, which from this time was compelled to maintain her existence by the sword. When Charles XII. was in Turkey, Peter the Great suddenly invaded the Turkish territory, as we have related in the Russian history, and came near being ruined. He was glad to make a treaty by which he surrendered Azov, in order to be able to withdraw into his own dominions without further loss, A. D. 1711.

Immediately after the peace of Utrecht, the sultan, Achmet III., declared war in 1715 against the Venetians, and overran the Morea. The emperor, Charles VI., in order to enforce the terms of the peace of Carlowitz, declared war against the Turks. His commander, Prince Eugene, routed the Turkish army at Peterwardin, and laid siege to Belgrade. A Turkish army approaching to the relief of that fortress was defeated by Eugene, and Belgrade was forced to surrender, A. D. 1717. The war was closed by the peace of Passarowitz, in 1718. The Turks surrendered Belgrade and the Bannat of Temisvar to the emperor, but retained the Morea.

A new war broke out between Russia and Turkey in 1736, and continued until 1739, Austria taking part in it as the ally of Russia after 1737. At the close of the war Belgrade, Sebatch, and Austrian Serbia were ceded to Turkey; but Russia, who had regained Azov, held on to that place. By this treaty—known as the peace of Belgrade—Russia agreed not to keep any fleet in the Black Sea. At the outset of the war Mahmoud I., who succeeded to the Turkish throne in 1730, died, and Mustapha III. became sultan in A. D. 1737.

In 1769, during the reigns of Mustapha III. of Turkey and Catharine II. of Russia, the affairs of Poland involved Turkey in a war with Russia. The war began in the spring of 1769, and the Russian forces were defeated and driven beyond the Dneister. In 1770 a Russian fleet sailed from the Baltic to the Mediterranean, and entered the Archipelago. The Turkish fleet was defeated at Epidaurus, and again at Scio, and was burned in the harbor of Smyrna. The Greeks of the Morea rose at the call of Russia, which power intended establish-

ing an independent Greek kingdom as an offset to Turkey, but as soon as the Russian forces were withdrawn, a Turkish army of 30,000 men entered the Morea, defeated the Greeks in the battle of Modon, and punished their defection with fearful cruelties. In the meantime the Turks had reconquered Moldavia and Wallachia, but Prince Romanzoff took command of the Russian forces in 1770, defeated the Turkish army in a great battle near the mouth of the Pruth, and reconquered Wallachia and Moldavia. To add to the troubles of Turkey, Egypt and Syria rose in insurrection against her. The war went on with varying success, but to the general disadvantage of Turkey, until July, 1774, when the treaty of Kutchuk-Kainardji brought it to a close. The terms of this treaty have been stated in the Russian history of this period. Mustapha III. died in 1774, and was succeeded by his younger brother, Abdul Ahmed. He reigned until 1789, when he was succeeded by his nephew, Selim III., the son of Mustapha, whose reign lasted through the century.

In 1787 a new war broke out between Turkey and Russia. Its events are related in our account of Russia, to which the reader is referred. Turkey was defeated almost invariably in this war; her fleets were destroyed and her fortresses taken. The war was closed by the peace of Jassy, in January, 1792. Russia had already become mistress of the Crimea, and by this treaty the Dneister was made the boundary between the two empires. The territory thus won by Russia was lost to Turkey forever. The remainder of the century was productive of no event of importance in Turkish history, apart from the invasion of Egypt and Syria by the French under Napoleon Bonaparte, which we have already related.

The Turkish power was at a very low ebb at the opening of the nineteenth century, and many of the subject nations, both Christian and Mohammedan, sought to throw off the yoke of the sultan and establish their independence. In 1806 Servia revolted under the leadership of Czerni George. It was conquered in 1813, but again revolted in 1815, under Milosh Obrenowitz. Montenegro also rebelled, and until the Crimean war these provinces enjoyed a state of quasi independence. Egypt was also strongly disaffected. In 1809 a war broke out with Russia, which resulted in a

further loss of Turkish territory. It was closed by the treaty of Bucharest, by which the sultan ceded to Russia Bessarabia, Ismail, and Kilia, one-third of Moldavia, and the fortresses of Chotzim and Bender.

In 1807 Selim III. died, and was succeeded by Mahmoud II., under whom the Turkish power continued to decline. The population of the Turkish empire in Europe was about 14,000,000, of whom scarcely 2,000,000 were Turks. The remainder were Christians, consisting principally of the four distinct races inhabiting European Turkey, viz.: the Slavonians, occupying Bulgaria, Servia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Montenegro; the Roumanians, occupying Moldavia and Wallachia; the Albanians, dwelling in ancient Epirus; and the Greeks.

of the Greek inhabitants of the capital ensued. The war went on through the year 1821, the patriot forces winning several important successes, among which was the capture of the Turkish capital of the Morea. In January, 1822, a national congress met at Epidaurus, proclaimed the independence of Greece, and adopted a provisional constitution. Alexander Mavrocordatos was chosen president. In the spring of the same year the Turks made a descent upon Scio, massacred 40,000 of the inhabitants, and carried away thousands to the slave markets of Smyrna and Constantinople. In 1823 the admiration and sympathy of all Europe was aroused by the heroic death of Marco Bozzaris, who, with a small band of Suliote patriots, attacked the Turkish



SERAGLIO POINT—CONSTANTINOPLE.

The Greeks had never willingly accepted the rule of Turkey, and some portions of them had never submitted to the porte, but had maintained a wild, brigandish existence in their mountains. Though the Greeks were attached to Russia by the strong ties of a common religion, that power refused to do anything for their freedom, and Alexander I. met their appeal for aid against their Turkish oppressors with the cold command: "Let the Greek rebels obey their lawful sovereign."

In spite of this discouragement the Greeks determined to throw off the Turkish yoke, and in March, 1821, the first blow was struck. The people of the peninsula and the islands rose in a general revolt. When the news of the revolution was received at Constantinople a general massacre

camp and fell in the arms of victory. The European governments looked coldly upon the gallant struggle, but the people remembered the glories of ancient Greece, and supplies of money, arms, and men were sent to the patriots. Foremost among those who devoted their fortunes and talents to the freedom of Greece was Lord Byron. He died at Missolonghi in April, 1824, before he could accomplish much for the cause he had adopted.

Unable to conquer Greece, the sultan summoned Mehemet Ali, the Viceroy of Egypt, who enjoyed a state of actual independence, to complete the task. This vigorous leader spread terror and desolation throughout Hellas. Missolonghi was taken after a heroic defence, and Athens was captured in 1825. The Egyptian forces

had orders to make a desolation of Greece, and to carry off the people into slavery.

Alexander I. of Russia fortunately died at this juncture, and the Czar Nicholas, his successor, adopted a different policy. Moved either by his sympathy with his co-religionists or by his anxiety to weaken Turkey, he resolved to intervene in behalf of the Greeks, and was joined by France and England, who were anxious to impose a check upon the Egyptian viceroy. These powers sent a strong combined fleet to the Mediterranean. On the 20th of October, 1827, this fleet, under the command of the English Admiral Codrington, accidentally encountered the Turkish and Egyptian fleet in the Bay of Navarino. A battle ensued, which resulted in the destruction of the Mohammedan fleet.

This success revived the hopes of the Greeks, and the next year Russia declared war against Turkey; and the sultan, in order to save his Danubian provinces, was obliged to sign the treaty of Adrianople, by which he acknowledged the independence of Greece.

Mehemet Ali was given the sovereignty of Crete by the sultan for his services in the Greek revolution. Not satisfied with this acquisition, he sent his son Ibrahim Pasha, an able commander, in 1831, to conquer Syria. That country was overrun by the Egyptian forces, who also advanced towards Asia Minor. Their progress was at length stayed by the intervention of Russia, England, and France, whose forces defeated Ibrahim at Nisibis on the Euphrates. A few days after this battle Sultan Mahmoud died. France was anxious that Mehemet Ali should succeed him, but England and Russia drove him out of Acre and Syria, and secured the Turkish throne for Abdul Medjid, the young son of Mahmoud. In 1840 the treaty of London was signed. Crete and Syria were restored to the porte, and Mehemet Ali was limited to Egypt. For many years after this Sir Stratford Canning, afterwards Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, the English ambassador at Constantinople, controlled the counsels of the porte. By the treaty of London Egypt became to a certain extent an independent state, though owning a nominal allegiance to the sultan.

In 1851 began the troubles which resulted in the Crimean war, which we have related elsewhere. The treaty of Paris, in 1856, which brought this war to a close,

admitted Turkey to the European system of states, and guaranteed the integrity of her dominions. Servia was given a native prince, and was placed under the protection of the great powers, though she retained a nominal allegiance to the sultan. Moldavia and Wallachia, a few years later, were erected into a similarly independent state under the name of Roumania.

In 1861 Abdul Medjid died, and was succeeded by Abdul Aziz. In 1868 a formidable insurrection broke out in the island of Crete or Candia. It aroused great sympathy among the European people, and came near producing a war between Greece and Turkey, but was quelled during the following year by the Turks.

Mehemet Ali was succeeded as Viceroy of Egypt by his son Ibrahim Pasha, under whose vigorous rule Egypt made great progress. He died in 1848, and Abbas Pasha became viceroy, and was in his turn succeeded by Ismail Pasha, the reigning khedive.

In 1867 the Sultan Abdul Aziz visited Paris and London and the principal cities of Europe. This was the first time a Turkish sovereign ever made a peaceful journey beyond the limits of his own empire.

The result of the war between France and Germany, in 1870-71, affected Turkey in a most important respect. The treaty of Paris, which closed the Crimean war, placed a restriction upon the aggressive power of Russia by neutralizing the Black Sea. The reverses of France in her contest with Germany so weakened her that she was unable to sustain England in upholding the treaty of Paris. Russia promptly took advantage of this to demand of the powers a modification of those articles of the treaty which prevented her from fortifying her ports or maintaining an armed fleet in the Black Sea. England warmly opposed the demand, but France was in no condition to do so, and Germany and the Austro-Hungarian monarchy gave their moral support to the Russian demand, and avowed their intention not to co-operate with England in any armed resistance to it. The result was that a conference of the representatives of the powers was held in London, and on the 13th of February, 1871, a treaty was signed by them abrogating the articles of the treaty of Paris as to the navigation of the Black Sea and the right of Russia to fortify her ports. The protection afforded to Turkey by the great powers was thus taken from her.

In 1873 the sultan's authority over Egypt was further weakened by the concessions which made the khedive almost an independent sovereign, and which we have related in the history of Egypt.

In the summer of 1875 an insurrection broke out in Herzegovina. The misrule and oppression of the Turkish government had come to be insupportable, and the inhabitants rose in rebellion and repulsed the attacks of the Turkish troops. Serbia, Bosnia, Montenegro, and Bulgaria were profoundly excited by these events, and were open in their sympathy with their struggling Christian brethren in Herzegovina. Substantial aid was also rendered by the people of those countries, the governments of which for a time remained neutral.

In October, 1875, Turkey failed to meet the interest on her national debt, the principal of which amounted to over \$900,000,000. A decree was issued by the porte promising speedy payment of half the interest and making provision for the payment of the other half. The promise was not fulfilled, and in July, 1876, the porte was compelled to declare its insolvency by stating that all payments on account of the national debt must cease until the close of the war with its revolted provinces. As nearly every dollar of this debt was due to citizens of western Europe, principally English subjects, the failure of the Turks to meet their obligations greatly weakened the friendship which, up to this time, the English people had felt for them.

On the 30th of May, 1876, the Sultan Abdul Aziz, to whose mismanagement many of the troubles of the country were due, was forcibly deposed, and placed in confinement in one of the palaces at Constantinople. On the 4th of June he was found dead in his chamber, having committed suicide.

Murad (or Amurath) V., the son of Abdul Medjid, was proclaimed sultan in the place of his uncle. His reign was a brief one. He proved so hopelessly imbecile that, on the 31st of August, 1876, he was in his turn deposed, and was succeeded by his brother Abdul Hamid II.

In the meantime the war with Herzegovina had been carried on. In October, 1875, the sultan declared that the taxes which had been one cause of the revolt, should be lowered from their excessive rate to ten per cent., that arrears of taxes should be abandoned, and that the Christians should be granted a representation in the

state councils. The Christians had learned from long experience to distrust these promises, and the war went on. In October, 1875, some Christians who had come back to their homes from Dalmatia were massacred by the Turks, and the struggle became more bitter in consequence of this act. Serbia and Montenegro secretly gave aid to the rebels, and the Prince of Serbia declared in a speech to the national assembly that it was impossible for Serbia to be indifferent to the fate of the Herzegovines.

It was feared by the European powers that the troubles in Turkey might be the means of embroiling other countries in the



ABDUL AZIZ.

war, and near the close of the year 1875, Germany, Austria, and Russia made a combined effort to secure peace. Austria, whose territory adjoined the Turkish dominions, was especially fearful that the revolt would extend across her border and involve her Slavonic possessions. A joint note was drawn up in the name of the three powers by Count Andrassy, the Austrian prime minister. This note proposed to the sultan to grant certain reforms to his Christian subjects. These were the establishment of complete religious liberty; the abolition of the system of farming out the taxes; the application of the revenue arising from indirect taxation in Bosnia and Herzegovina to the general purposes of the Ottoman government, and the employment of the

results of the direct taxation in the improvement and government of those provinces. The porte accepted all the reforms but the disposition of the taxes, at the same time promising to set aside a certain sum from the national treasury for the local wants of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The insurgents were not willing to trust the pledges of the porte, however, and the war went on. On the 30th of March, 1876, an armistice was concluded, and an effort was made by an agent of the Austrian government to effect a settlement. The terms demanded by the insurgents were so extravagant, however, that Austria refused to consider them.

The Andrassy note having failed, a note was drawn up at Berlin on the 11th of May, 1876, by the prime ministers of Germany, Austria, and Russia, and forwarded to Constantinople. It stated peremptorily that as the sultan had given the powers a pledge to execute the reforms proposed by them, he had also given them a moral right to insist that he should fulfil his promise. The note then demanded an armistice of two months, and closed with a threat that if the sultan failed to comply with the demands of the powers, they might find it necessary to compel him to do so. The note substantially supported the demands of the Christians of Herzegovina with respect to taxation and the restoration of their property, etc. France and Italy agreed to support the note, but England declined to do so.

The war had gone on in the meantime, and Bulgaria had become to some extent involved in it. Early in May the Turkish officials in Bulgaria determined to put a stop to the troubles in that province by the wholesale extermination of the Bulgarian Christians. A systematic plan was arranged for this purpose, and at the appointed time the Christians were attacked in their villages by the Turks. Many hundreds were massacred in cold blood, including people of all ages and both sexes; women were outraged, property carried off or destroyed, and villages burned. The news of the massacre sent a thrill of horror and indignation throughout Europe, and the Turks were denounced in unmeasured terms. In England, which country had until now given its moral support to Turkey, the outburst of indignation was intense, and the popular feeling was so outspoken that the government was compelled to pause in its support of the sultan and act more in sympathy with the other European powers.

An immediate result of the massacres was the active participation of Serbia in the war. In July, 1876, both Serbia and Montenegro declared war against Turkey. The Servian army attempted to invade Bulgaria, but was so unsuccessful in its efforts that on the 24th of August Prince Milan accepted the offer of England to mediate between him and the sultan. Montenegro had been generally successful in her efforts, but, in view of the action of Serbia, consented to treat for peace. On the 1st of September England proposed an armistice of a month between the belligerents. The sultan refused to grant this, but declared himself willing to make peace on condition that Prince Milan should come to Constantinople and do homage to him, that Turkish garrisons should be placed in four of the Servian fortresses, that Serbia should pay an indemnity, and that the porte should be allowed to construct and work a railroad through Servian territory. The powers refused to allow these terms to be discussed. Great Britain now proposed as a basis of negotiation that Bosnia and Bulgaria should be given local self-government without being freed from their dependence upon the porte. Prince Milan refused to accept this proposal, and the war was resumed. The Turkish armies now prepared to invade the territory of Serbia, but were checked by the interposition of Russia.

Up to this time the action of the Russian government had been entirely conservative, being confined to its participation in the preparation of the diplomatic notes addressed to Turkey. Now large numbers of Russian officers and soldiers entered the Servian army with the consent and approval of the czar. They enabled the Servians to hold out against the Turks until the 31st of October, when the fortified city of Alexinatz was captured by the latter. This success placed Serbia practically at the mercy of Turkey. In the meantime orders had been sent to the Russian ambassador at London to inform the British government that it was the opinion of the czar that force should be used to stop the war and put an end to Turkish misrule. Lord Derby stated that England was prepared to unite with Russia in bringing about an armistice of not less than a month, but would not support an armed intervention in Turkish affairs. At this juncture Turkey, to the surprise of all the powers, suddenly offered an armistice for six months, and an-

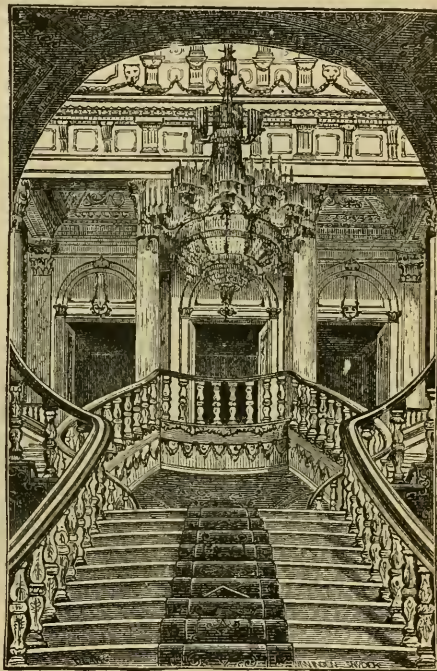
nounced a scheme of reform for the whole empire. England, Austria, and France favored the armistice, but Russia declared that she could not ask Serbia to accept so long a truce since the principality could not keep its army on a war footing for so long a time; and this view of the case was supported by Italy. Russia demanded a truce of four or six weeks. The Turkish forces were pressing the siege of Alexinatz with energy, and it was apparent that that place could not hold out much longer. General Ignatieff, the Russian ambassador at Constantinople, was therefore ordered to demand of the porte an acceptance within forty-eight hours of the armistice proposed by Russia. The demand was made on the 31st of October, and on the same day Alexinatz was captured by the Turks. The Russian demand was granted by the porte, and the armistice was proclaimed.

Although determined to support Serbia against Turkey, Russia was anxious to maintain friendly relations with the other European powers. On the 2d of November Lord Adolphus Loftus, the English ambassador, had an interview with the czar at Livadia. The czar "pledged his sacred word and honor" that he had no intention of acquiring Constantinople, and that if necessity compelled him to occupy a portion of Bulgaria it would only be provisionally, and until the safety of the Christian population was assured. These assurances gave great satisfaction to the English government, which now assumed the initiative in proposing a general conference of the representatives of the great powers of Europe to meet at Constantinople. On the 4th of November the Marquis of Salisbury was appointed the English representative. The proposal was accepted, but all the powers did not send special representatives. Germany, Russia, and Italy considered their ambassadors at Constantinople sufficient; but Austria and France followed the example of England, and sent special representatives to assist their resident ambassadors.

Before the conference assembled the Earl of Beaconsfield (Disraeli), the English premier, delivered a speech sharply criticizing the Russian attitude, and closed it with significant words: "While the policy of England is peace, no country is so well prepared for war." The next day, November 9th, the czar, in an address to the nobles and communal council of Moscow, said: "I

hope this conference will bring peace; should this, however, not be achieved, and should I see that we cannot attain such guarantees as are necessary for carrying out what we have a right to demand of the porte, I am firmly determined to act independently." These words were generally regarded as a reply to Lord Beaconsfield's threat, and caused considerable excitement in Europe, as they implied a possibility of war between Russia and England.

Lord Salisbury reached Constantinople on the 5th of December. On his journey from London he had visited Paris, Berlin,



MARBLE STAIRCASE IN THE SULTAN'S PALACE AT CONSTANTINOPLE.

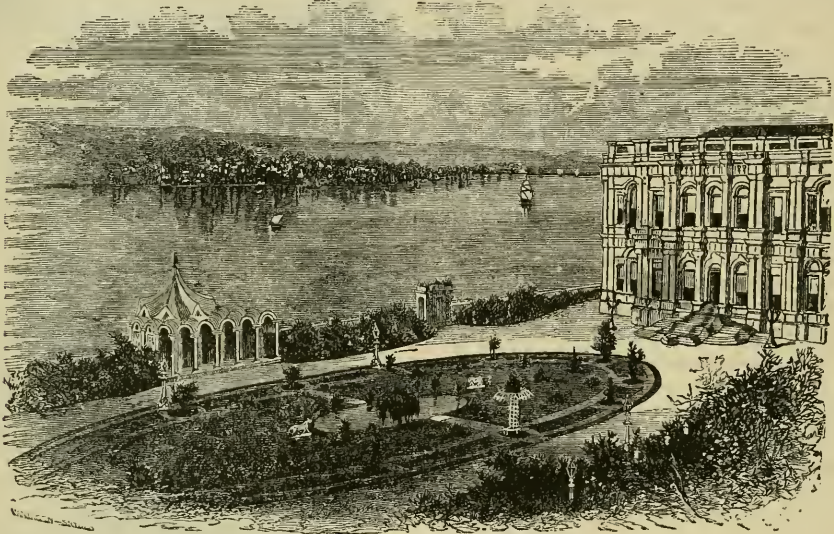
Vienna, and Rome, and had ascertained the views of those governments with respect to the Eastern question. Immediately upon reaching Constantinople he entered into communication with the porte and with the foreign ambassadors and representatives. He was encouraged by this intercourse to believe that the conference would result in a satisfactory settlement of the troubles. Turkey seemed willing to accept a fair proposition of settlement, and the Russian ambassador was especially cordial in co-operating with Lord Salisbury.

"On December 11th the representatives of the six great powers of Europe met in a

salon of the palace of the Russian embassy for a preliminary consultation, and on the following day the preliminary conference was formally opened with the exclusion of the Turkish representatives. The preliminary conference came to an end on December 21st, and General Ignatieff, in informing the porte of the fact, invited it to send its representatives to the definite conference, which was to begin its sessions on December 23d. The result of the preliminary conference had been that the powers had agreed to restore the *status quo* in Serbia and Montenegro; but, to prevent needless quarrels in future, Lesser Zvornik was to be annexed to Serbia. Montenegro was also to receive an addition to its territory by the corners

conference, the western vilayet encroaching upon territory which originally belonged to the Hellenic tribe."

Before the conference assembled, a very decided change took place in the policy of Turkey. On the 22d of December Midhat Pasha was made grand vizier. The true meaning of this appointment was that Turkey had resolved to take her affairs into her own hands and to refuse to submit to the dictation of the European powers. On the 23d the Porte proclaimed the new constitution of the Turkish empire, which had been prepared by Midhat Pasha. This constitution entirely revolutionized the Turkish government. It provided for a parliament elected by the people, and



PALACE OF THE SULTAN—CONSTANTINOPLE.

of Herzegovina protruding into Montenegro at Trebigne and Nicsic, and a strip of land connecting it with the coast, with a port. A detailed plan had also been proposed to secure the political autonomy of Bulgaria, which was, however, so disadvantageous to the porte that the latter considered itself forced to reject the proposition. A weak point of the conference appeared, even before the preliminary conference had met. This was that it intended to consider the condition of the Slavic Christians only, while the other Christians and the Jews were not taken into consideration at all. This fact aroused great commotion among the Greek subjects of Turkey. They were particularly opposed to the creation of the two vilayets of Bulgaria, as proposed by the

made the sultan a constitutional instead of an arbitrary sovereign. The government was to be administered by ministers responsible to parliament, which body was to enact the laws necessary for the pacification and government of the empire. "The subjects of the empire are called, without distinction, Ottomans. Individual liberty is inviolable, and is guaranteed by the laws. Islamism is the religion of the state, but the free exercise of all recognized creeds is guaranteed, and the religious privileges of the communities are maintained. No provision investing the institutions of the state with a theocratic character exists in the constitution. The constitution establishes liberty of the press, the right of petition to both chambers for all Ottomans, liberty of

education, and the equality of all Ottomans before the law. They enjoy the same rights and have the same duties towards the country. Ottoman subjects, without distinction of religion, are admitted to the service of the state. Taxation will be equally distributed; property is guaranteed, and the domicile is declared inviolable. No person can be taken from the jurisdiction of his natural judges. . . . Public functionaries will be appointed in conformity with the conditions fixed by law, and cannot be dismissed without legal and sufficient cause. They are not discharged from responsibility by any orders contrary to law which they may receive from a superior. . . . Judges are irremovable. The sittings of the tribunals are public. The advocates appearing for defendants are free. Sentences may be published. No interference can be permitted in the administration of justice. The jurisdiction of the tribunals will be exactly defined. Any exceptional tribunals or commissions are prohibited. . . . No tax can be established or levied except by virtue of a law. The budget will be voted at the commencement of each session, and for a period of one year only. The final settlement of the budget for the preceding year will be submitted to the chamber of deputies in the form of a bill. . . . The provincial administration is based upon the broadest system of decentralization. The councils general, which are elective, will deliberate upon and control the affairs of the province. Every canton will have a council, elected by each of the different communities, for the management of its own affairs. The communes will be administered by elective municipal councils. Primary education is obligatory. The interpretation of the laws belongs, according to their nature, to the court of cassation, the council of state, and the senate. The constitution can only be modified on the initiation of the ministry, or of either of the two chambers, and by a vote of both chambers, passed by a majority of two-thirds. Such modification must also be sanctioned by the sultan."

The conference met on the 23d of December, the very day of the promulgation of the constitution. On the 28th of December it was resolved to extend the armistice to March 1st, 1877. The proclamation of the constitution seemed to cut the entire ground from under the feet of the conference. The representative of the

porte maintained that further deliberation was unnecessary, since the constitution was a sufficient answer to the powers. Nevertheless the sessions were continued, but without accomplishing anything. The conference demanded that the reforms in the Turkish empire should be executed by an international commission, having at its command a special military force, composed partly of Europeans and partly of Turks, but Turkey refused to accept the demand, and it was abandoned. Though Turkey was willing to pledge herself for the execution of the reforms, she steadily refused every material guarantee for the execution of this pledge suggested to her. The con-



TURKISH LADY.

ference then reduced its demands to insisting that the Governors of Bosnia and Bulgaria should be appointed with the consent of the powers, and that the powers should be allowed to form an international commission, which should, however, have no military means of executing its decrees. On the 18th of January, 1877, the porte firmly rejected these demands, and the conference came to an inglorious end.

During the sessions of the conference Roumania became alarmed at the terms of the constitution, the first article of which declared that the Ottoman empire, including the privileged provinces, forms an indivisible unity from which no portion can ever, on any ground, be detached, while the seventh article gives to the sultan the right

of investiture of the rulers of the privileged provinces. On the 5th of January, 1877, the Roumanian senate passed a resolution declaring that the rights of the principality should remain intact, and calling upon the government to maintain them in a manner worthy of the state. The excitement in Roumania was so great that in a few days the porte officially declared that the constitution was purely internal, and did not affect the rights of a principality which were guaranteed by international treaties.

The obstinacy of Turkey in refusing the demands of the powers lost her the few friends she had left in Europe. The cause of this obstinacy was the Vizier Midhat Pasha, who, losing sight of the fact that the Turkish empire owed its existence in Europe entirely to the mutual jealousy of the great powers, haughtily refused to allow any interference with its affairs. His imperious will soon rendered him obnoxious to the sultan, who grew restless under the control of the man who had already deposed two sultans within a year, and who would not hesitate to depose another should it suit his purposes. Accordingly on the 5th of February, 1877, Midhat Pasha was removed from his office of vizier and ordered to quit Constantinople. He was succeeded by Edhem Pasha, who had served as one of the members of the conference, and who had distinguished himself by his bitter opposition to all the proposals of the foreign representatives.

Edhem Pasha at once devoted himself to the task of making peace with the rebellious principalities. He opened negotiations with Servia, and by the last of February concluded a treaty of peace with that principality. By the terms of the treaty the Servians were to retain their fortresses, were to salute the Turkish flag, and were to prevent armed bands from crossing the frontier. The Turkish troops, on their part, were to evacuate the positions held on Servian territory. The treaty was ratified on the 3d of March, and a week later the Turkish forces withdrew from Servia, relinquishing Alexinatz and Saitschar to the Servians.

Negotiations had been opened with Montenegro at the same time that those with Servia were begun, but they proved more protracted and troublesome. Prince Nicholas at first demanded that the negotiations should be conducted at Vienna, but the

porte refused this, and the prince sent a delegation to Constantinople. The armistice was extended to the 13th of April. The Montenegrin demands were, briefly, the cession of Nicsics, which had been besieged by their forces for several months, the cession of a seaport, and such a rectification of their frontier as would increase their territory about one-half its present extent. As the Montenegrins held actual possession of most of the territory demanded by them, they had the advantage of the porte. The latter refused to grant any extension of territory, and towards the close of March Prince Nicholas instructed his representatives to abate their demands somewhat, but to insist upon the cession of Nicsics. On the 10th of April the Turkish parliament, to which the matter was referred, rejected the demands of Montenegro, and the next day the representatives of that principality were informed of this decision, and were told that the armistice would not be renewed. Two days later the Montenegrin delegates set out for home, going by way of Odessa, in order to have an interview with the czar and the Russian commander.

Russia had by this time fully determined to take part in the war, but being as yet unprepared, endeavored by skilful diplomacy to gain time. On the 31st of January Prince Gortschakoff addressed to the Russian representatives at the courts of the powers concerned in the treaty of Paris a circular, in which he related the diplomatic efforts that had been made to secure the pacification of Turkey, and stated that the czar, before determining upon a course for the future, wished to know what course would be determined upon by the other powers. On the 9th of March Turkey met this circular by one of her own addressed to the guaranteeing powers, stating that "the reforms proposed by the conference and accepted by the imperial government are already being applied." On the 19th of March the Turkish parliament was formally opened with imposing ceremonies and renewed promises of reform. The great powers, however, were suspicious of Turkey's promises, and were determined to demand further guarantees. Accordingly the Russian, French, German, Austrian and Italian ambassadors at London held several conferences with Lord Derby, the British foreign minister, the result of which was the signing, on the 31st of March, of a pro-

tocol by them, in behalf of their respective governments. This document declared that "the powers propose to watch carefully, by means of their representatives at Constantinople and their local agents, the manner in which the promises of the Ottoman government are carried into effect;" and in case these promises were not faithfully carried out, the powers reserved the right of common action "to secure the well-being of the Christian population and the interests of the general peace." Before signing this document Count Schouvaloff, the Russian ambassador, made a declaration to the effect that if the porte showed itself ready to disarm, it should send a special envoy to St. Petersburg to treat for a mutual disarmament. Lord Derby, on behalf of Great Britain, declared that if a reciprocal disarmament and peace did not result, the protocol was to be regarded as null and void. The answer of the porte to the pro-

tocol was a defiant circular addressed to its representatives abroad, in which, while it did not entirely reject the protocol, it warmly resented the threat of foreign intervention in the internal affairs of Turkey, repelled Count Schouvaloff's suggestion of intervention, and declined to send a special envoy to St. Petersburg. The circular was dated the 10th of April. When the Turkish ambassador in London delivered this circular to Lord Derby on the 12th of April, the British foreign minister expressed to him his deep regret at the course Turkey had seen fit to pursue, and said he could not see what further steps England could take to avert the war, which now seemed inevitable.

Every effort for peace having failed through the obstinacy of the porte, Russia declared war against Turkey on the 24th of April, 1877. The history of this war is given in Book XXV.

BOOK XXV.

THE HISTORY OF RUSSIA.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO PETER THE GREAT.

Geographical Position of Russia—Early History Uncertain—The Slavs—Novgorod and Kiev Founded—Rurik Finds the Russian Empire—Successors of Rurik—Oleg—His Great Reign—Igor—Olga Embraces Christianity—Reign of Sviatoslaf—Vladimir I.—His Character—Christianization of Russia—Efforts of Vladimir in behalf of Civilization—His Death—Usurpation of Sviatopolk—Reign of Yaroslav—Translation of the Bible into the Russian Language—The First Code of Laws—Death of Yaroslav—Decline of the Russian Power—The Petty States—Reign of Andrew of Suzdal—Moscow Founded—Conquest of Russia by the Tartars—The Tartar Supremacy—Humiliation of the Grand Princes of Russia—Alexander Nevski—Ivan I.—His Excellent Reign—Dimitri II. Refuses to Pay Tribute to the Tartars—His Wars with them—Vassili III.—Ivan the Great—Decline of Novgorod—Ivan Marries a Greek Princess—Assumes the Title of Autocrat—Rapid Recovery of the Russian Empire—Reign of Vassili V.—Ivan the Terrible—His Childhood—His Tyrannical Reign—The Strelitz—Conquests of Ivan—Madness of Ivan—A Reign of Terror—Successors of Ivan—Boris Godunof—The False Dimitri—His Success and Fall—The Shuiski—Vassili VI.—Another False Dimitri—The Polish Supremacy—A Period of Anarchy—Michael Romanoff Chosen Czar of Russia—His Excellent Reign—Alexis—The Cossacks of the Don become Subject to Russia—Reign of Feodor III.

RUSSIA comprises the largest connected empire in the world, and occupies a part of both Europe and Asia. It extends from latitude 38° 20' to about latitude 77° 30' N., and from longitude 17° 38' E. to about 170° W. Its northern boundary is the Arctic Ocean, its eastern the Pacific, its southern the Chinese empire, Independent Turkestan, Persia, Turkey in Asia, and the Black Sea, and its south-western and western Roumania, Austria, Prussia, the Baltic Sea and Sweden. Its greatest length from west to east is about 6,000 miles; its greatest breadth, from north to south, about 2,300 miles. It embraces an area of 8,391,832 square miles, and contains a population of 86,596,014 souls. Its surface comprises one-sixth of the firm land of the globe.

The early history of Russia is very uncertain. European Russia was known to the Greeks and Romans, whose writers say that it was inhabited by the Scythians and Sarmatians. The Greeks entered into commercial relations with the most southern tribes between the Dneiper and the Don, and established colonies among them.

During the migrations of nations in the fourth and fifth centuries, the character of the inhabitants of Russia was repeatedly changed. Hordes of Goths, Alans, Huns, Avars, and Bulgarians swept over the country, leaving traces here and there of their movements, but making no permanent settlements. At last appeared the Slavs, destined to accomplish what their predecessors had failed to do. They are regarded by the best writers as identical with the Sarmatians, and are believed to have spread themselves as far northward as the upper

absolutely nothing of it. At the end of this period Novgorod emerges from the gloom as the capital of a great and powerful principality. It had become so powerful that it was a common saying among its neighbors, "Who can dare to oppose God and Novgorod the Great?" "Its commerce," says Kelly, "extended to Persia and even to India, and from Constantinople to Vineta, a very commercial city on the mouth of the Oder. The nations around it were its tributaries, from Lithuania to the Ural mountains, and from Bielo Ozero and



FINLANDER'S HUT.

Volga. They found scattered Finnish tribes dwelling in this region, and forced them farther north toward Finland and the Arctic Ocean. Some of the Finnish tribes remained in their old homes and became amalgamated with the conquerors. To this union is due many of the physical characteristics of the Russians of the present day.

The Slavs founded the cities of Novgorod and Kiev, each of which became the capital of an independent Slavic principality. For the next one hundred years Russian history is shrouded in total darkness; we know

the Lake of Rostof to the White Sea." The most active commerce of Novgorod was carried on through the Baltic, which at that time was held by the Russian Varangians, a race of Scandinavian warriors. These fierce warriors demanded tribute as the price of the safety of this commerce, and being refused, attacked Novgorod and rendered it tributary. Some years later the Novgorodians recovered their independence, but did not retain it long. Internal dissension broke out among the leaders of the state, and caused so much confusion and loss that in A. D. 862 the Novgorodians in-

vited Rurik, Sinaf, and Truvor, three Varangian brothers, to rule over them. against foreign aggression. The brothers accepted the invitation, and established



RURIK, FOUNDER OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

The old Russian chronicle states that the brothers were invited to serve as auxiliaries of the republic—Rurik at Old Ladoga, of the Novgorodian republic for its defence near the Volkhof; Sinaf at Bielo Ozero,

then situated on the northern bank of the lake of the same name; and Truvor at Izborsk, near Pleskof. These positions enabled the Varangian princes to secure the republic against attacks from without, and also to extend their power over it, as they held the chief outlets of its foreign trade. In a short while Novgorod was called upon to choose between the loss of its commerce and submission to the Varangian princes. It chose the latter, and in A. D. 864 Rurik took peaceable possession of it and established his authority over its territories. His two brothers having died without issue, there was no one to dispute his rule. He assumed the title of grand prince, gave to the country the name of Russia, from the tribe to which he belonged, and bestowed its cities and towns upon his companions in arms. He is therefore justly regarded as the founder of the Russian empire. He reigned fifteen years in Novgorod, and died in 879.

Igor, the son of Rurik, was a child of four years. The founder therefore left his crown to his cousin Oleg, whom he constituted the guardian of his son. It was a wise choice, for Oleg proved himself a great prince and a great conqueror. He was also faithful to his trust; for while he held the crown during his life, he was careful to secure the succession of his ward. Under Oleg the Russian dominions were largely increased. In 882 he captured Smolensk, and a little later, by a bold stratagem, made himself master of the city of Kiev, which he made one of the capitals of his dominions. Kiev had been converted to Christianity before this, and Oleg wisely tolerated and protected the new religion, though himself a pagan. He next conquered the region between Kiev and Novgorod, and so united his two capitals; and subdued the Khazars, a people of Turanian descent, who, in the seventh and eighth centuries, had established a powerful kingdom between the Dneiper and the Caspian. He then drove the Magyars out of the borders of Russia into the country now held by them, and established his authority firmly in the lands he had subdued. It had always been his wish to extend his empire at the expense of the Greek Emperor of Constantinople. When he had settled the affairs of his own dominions, he descended the Dneiper to the Black Sea, and attacked Constantinople at the head of 80,000 men and 900 galleys. He fixed his

shield on the gate of that city as a trophy, and compelled the Greek emperor to enter into an ignominious treaty and pay an enormous ransom. He then returned to Kiev laden with booty, A. D. 911. Karamsin says that Oleg "is to be regarded as the founder of the empire's greatness, for to him it owes its finest and richest provinces. Rurik's sway extended from Esthonia, the Slav sources, and the Volkhof, to Bielo Ozero, the mouth of the Oka, and the city of Rostof. Oleg subjugated all the countries from Smolensk to the Sula, the Dneister, and probably to the Carpathian mountains." Oleg died in 913, having reigned thirty-three years.

Igor, the son of Rurik, succeeded his cousin Oleg. He was thirty-eight years old, and proved himself an able ruler. At the outset of his reign the Drevlians, encouraged by the death of Oleg, rose in revolt against Russia. They were subdued by Igor, who also conquered the Petchenegs, who lived on the coasts of the Black Sea, from the Danube to the mouths of the Dnieper. In 941 he undertook an expedition against Constantinople, but was driven back with the loss of two-thirds of his force. Instead of being disheartened by this reverse, he prepared to avenge it, and in 944 set out on a second expedition against the Greek capital. His march was stayed at the mouth of the Danube by offers from the Greek emperor to pay him the same tribute that Oleg had received. Igor accepted the offer, and the next year concluded a treaty with the emperor, which was similar to that imposed upon that prince by Oleg.

Igor was now an old man, and was anxious to pass the balance of his days in peace, but the insatiable cupidity of his companions in arms forced him into new wars. One of these was with the Drevlians, whom he plundered unmercifully. They surprised him one day near Korosten, and massacred him and the whole of his guard, A. D. 945.

Sviatoslaf, the only son of Igor, and the first prince who bore a Russian name, was very young at the time of his father's death, and the government of Russia passed into the hands of Olga, Igor's widow, as regent. She took a terrible vengeance upon the Drevlians for the murder of her husband, but in other respects her rule was as wise as it was firm.

Although the rest of Russia had re-

mained pagan, Kiev, as we have said, had been converted to Christianity, and the Christians had been protected in their civil and religious privileges. Olga now became a convert to the faith of Christ, and in 955 went to Constantinople, and was baptized by the patriarch with great pomp, receiving the Greek name of Helena. Her example was followed by few of her subjects. She earnestly entreated her son to be baptized, but he replied: "Would you have me be a laughing-stock to my friends?" He sternly refused baptism, though he offered no opposition to those who wished to embrace the new faith, for which he openly expressed his contempt. Sviatoslaf won new victories over the Khazars, and from this time they appear no more in Russian history. He also subdued the Petchenegs and Bulgarians, and extended his empire to the Sea of Azov. In 970 he divided his dominions among his three sons, giving Kiev to Yaropolk I., the country of the Drevlians to Oleg, and Novgorod to Vladimir. A little later he undertook a new war against the Bulgarians, and rapidly overran their country. The Greek emperor, alarmed at the proximity of the Russians to Constantinople, summoned the grand prince to evacuate his conquests. The demand was refused and war ensued. The Russians were defeated in every encounter, and were obliged to sue for peace. They withdrew from Bulgaria and set out for Kiev. On the way, while passing through the country of the Petchenegs, Sviatoslaf was waylaid by a force of those people and slain near the cataracts of the Dnieper, A. D. 972.

The death of Sviatoslaf was followed by a war between his three sons. Oleg was slain, and Vladimir fled across the sea to the Varangians. The whole empire was thus reunited under Yaropolk I. Vladimir, however, never abandoned his design of recovering his lost power, and in 980, after an absence of two years, returned with a force of Varangian adventurers, conquered Novgorod and Kiev, put his brother to death, and thus became the ruler of all Russia.

Vladimir I. well deserved his surname of "the Great," for with all his faults he was one of Russia's greatest monarchs. His first efforts were directed to getting rid of his Varangian warriors, who had begun to prove troublesome, and to consolidating his authority in his empire. In both under-

takings he was successful. At his accession he was a pagan, and displayed great zeal in behalf of his gods. His religion was of a very lax kind, however. He had six wives, who bore him twelve sons, among whom he afterwards divided his empire, and maintained in several of his cities establishments of concubines, amounting in all to eight hundred. No woman in his kingdom was safe from his violence.

Notwithstanding this defect Vladimir was both a warrior and a statesman. He conquered Red Russia and Lithuania, and made Livonia tributary. Having completed his conquests he determined to show his gratitude to his gods by offering to them a human sacrifice, and for this purpose set apart the prisoners taken in the war. He was persuaded by his courtiers, however, that the gods would be better pleased by the sacrifice of one of his own subjects, and accordingly selected a young Varangian, the son of a Christian, and brought up in that faith. The father refused to deliver up his son, and the people, enraged at what they regarded as an insult to both their religion and their prince, fell upon both father and son and murdered them. The Russian Church has canonized both as its only martyrs.

Vladimir's fame as a conqueror had by this time spread into the surrounding countries, and efforts were made by the four great religious bodies of the world to secure his conversion to the faith which they severally professed. "The conquering religion of Mohammed was recommended to him by the eastern Bulgarians; the description of its paradise and its lovely houris fired his voluptuous imagination; but he could not overcome his repugnance to circumcision and the interdiction of wine. 'Wine,' he said, 'is the delight of the Russians; we cannot do without it.' Catholicism, offered to him by the Germans, he disliked, because of its pope, an earthly deity, which appeared to him a monstrous thing; and Judaism, because it had no country, and he thought it neither rational to take advice from wanderers under the ban of heaven nor desirable to share their punishment." The Greek religion which Olga had professed had been expounded to him by a learned man from Constantinople, and after due deliberation he embraced it and was baptized. He at once overthrew the idols and closed their temples. His people quickly followed his example. "If it be

not good to be baptized," they said, "the prince and the boyars would never submit to it." Thus was Christianity established in Russia, A. D. 988. Vladimir during the remainder of his reign founded churches, schools, and new towns, and gave himself with energy to the task of civilizing and Christianizing his people. During the latter years of his reign he waged several wars with the Petchenegs, in which he was successful. The close of his life was embittered by domestic troubles. He had divided his empire between his twelve sons, who soon became involved in a fratricidal war. His son Yaroslaf, to whom he had given Novgorod, refused to pay the tribute due him as his vassal, and applied to the Varangians for aid against his father. Vladimir, now an old man, took the field against his unnatural son, but died of grief at being obliged to do so, A. D. 1015.

"This rough-hewn colossus," says Kelly, "had great qualities; if he was not always able to repress his turbulent neighbors, he generally frustrated their incursions. He caused deserts to be cleared by colonies established for that purpose; he built towns, and while he was rendering his country more flourishing, he thought it his duty to provide for its embellishment, and invited from Greece architects and workmen eminent for their skill. By their means he raised convenient and substantial churches, palaces, and other buildings. The young nobles were brought up in seminaries endowed by the prince, to which his bounty had attracted able masters from Greece. Parents saw with horror these strokes aimed at ignorance, and the honors that were paid to foreign services. It was necessary to use violence in taking their children to place them in the new establishments, where they were to be taught reading and writing, unholy arts, identified with sorcery. Vladimir, who waded through the blood of his brother to the throne of Kiev, received from his nation the surname of the Great, was advanced to the rank of a saint, and is recognized by the Russian Church as *co-equal with the apostles*."

The war between the sons of Vladimir, which had been begun during his life, was continued after his death. The result of it was that Sviatopolk, the son of Vladimir's brother Yaropolk I., who had been adopted by Vladimir as his own son, seized the throne after murdering three of his brothers. Yaroslav, another brother, made an alliance

with the emperor, Henry II., of Germany, against Sviatopolk, and the father-in-law of the latter, Boleslas, King of Poland. This war was ended in 1019 by a three days' battle, in which Yaroslav and his ally were successful. Sviatopolk fled to Poland, but died on the journey.

Yaroslav was now sole ruler of the empire. He destroyed the Petchenegs in a vigorous campaign, and made his power to be dreaded by Finland, Livonia, Lithuania, and Bulgaria. In 1026 he became involved in a war with his brother Mstislav, Prince of Tmutarakan, and was defeated. This prince had, in 1016, conquered the Crimean remnant of the ancient kingdom of the Khazars, and in 1022 had subdued the Circassians. He treated his brother with generosity, and left him half of his empire. After the death of Mstislav, in 1036, Yaroslav once more became sole ruler of the empire. Having secured his authority, he entered upon the work to which he owes his truest fame. He was a warm friend of education, and caused many Greek works to be translated into the Russian language; he built schools and churches, increased the number of towns, and caused many waste tracts to be settled with colonies. He caused the Holy Scriptures to be translated into the Russian language, and with his own hand transcribed several copies of them. He also kept the Russian Church entirely independent of the Greek establishment at Constantinople, and appointed its bishops without reference to the Greek patriarch. His three daughters married the Kings of Norway, Hungary, and France; his sons married Greek, German, and English princesses; and his sister was Queen of Poland. By these alliances Russia was brought into more intimate relations with Europe.

The greatest work of Yaroslav's reign was the preparation of the *Russkaya Pravda*, the first Russian code of laws. It was a rude, and in many respects a barbarous code, but it was an effort to establish the reign of justice in the empire, and afford to the weak protection against the strong. It recognized the right of private vengeance, but confined it to the relations of the man who had been slain. If no avengers came forward, the murderer could atone his crime by paying to the state a fixed price, which was regulated by the code according to the position of his victim. Judges were appointed and circuits assigned them; and

trial by a jury of twelve respectable persons was secured.

A few days before his death, in 1054, Yaroslav divided his empire among his four sons, on the condition that the younger ones should obey their eldest brother, Izaslav, to whom he gave Novgorod and Kiev. This arrangement did not prove satisfactory. The younger sons rejected the control of their brother, and civil war ensued. The result was that the Russian empire was divided into a number of principalities, which were united in a sort of confederacy, but which were constantly quarrelling and fighting with each other. During this period of confusion the Poles, Lithuanians, Danes, and Teutonic Knights took possession of large portions of western Russia. In 1114 Vladimir II. succeeded to the throne of Kiev and Novgorod. He was a great and wise prince, and under him Russia made considerable advances. He died in 1125, and was succeeded by Mstislav, his eldest son, who reigned but six years. At his death Russia fell back into anarchy, and by the middle of the twelfth century the Grand Principality had dwindled into little more than the city of Kiev. In 1155 Igor of Suzdal obtained the ascendancy, and for a time it seemed that he would reunite Russia under one government. His principality of Suzdal embraced the present governments of Yaroslav, Kostroma, Vladimir, Moscow, and a part of Novgorod, Tver, Nijni Novgorod, Tula, and Kaluga, or nearly the whole of central Russia. In 1147 he founded the city of Moscow, and bestowed upon it important privileges. He made Kiev his capital, and under him it advanced rapidly in wealth and prosperity. He died in 1157, and immediately the struggle between the various princes was renewed.

Andrew, the son of Igor, at first took no part in this struggle, but withdrew into his principality of Suzdal, and established his capital at Vladimir. He devoted himself with energy to civilizing and advancing his dominions. He greatly improved Moscow, founded a number of other cities, which he peopled with the Bulgarians of the Volga, and fairly established the civilization of central Russia. In 1168 he undertook the capture of Novgorod, but was repulsed. He then marched against Kiev and carried it by storm. He plundered it, and compelled it to acknowledge the supremacy of Vladimir. In 1169 he sent an army under his

son against Novgorod, which was now at the height of its power, having been but recently admitted into the Hanseatic league. Though the attack was repulsed, Novgorod was compelled to acknowledge the supremacy of Vladimir. Andrew's chief aim was to destroy the multitude of petty princes which existed in Russia, and consolidate the whole power of the empire in the hands of the grand prince. These combined against him, and defeated his armies and put a stop to his attempts at consolidation. At last, in A. D. 1174, he was assassinated by his subjects. His successor suffered the vast domain of Suzdal to be broken up into petty principalities, and the next grand prince relinquished all claim to the homage of the petty princes.

The internal strife which divided and weakened Russia rendered her an easy prey to a foreign foe. The Tartar hordes under Zingis Khan, which had overrun Hungary and Poland, burst into Russia in 1221, defeated the combined forces of the Russian princes in the bloody battle of Kalka, ravaged all of southern Russia, and withdrew into Asia. Immediately upon their withdrawal the internecine war broke out again in Russia, and this time it was accompanied by famine and pestilence. In 1230 the plague scourged Smolensk and Novgorod. 30,000 men died in the former city, and 42,000 in the latter.

In 1237 the Tartars returned, this time under Batou, grandson of Zingis, and chief of the Golden Horde. Russia was rapidly overrun, and from the present city of Kasan to Vladimir the Tartars laid the country waste. Having conquered the country the Tartars proceeded to establish themselves in it. They founded Sarai and Kasan, and compelled the Russian princes to pay them tribute. "They themselves collected the tribute of each district; they received the homage and the appeals of every prince; and when they committed the fault of establishing a grand prince, they allowed several rivals to lay claim to this paramount sway, made them wait their decision, and sometimes retained them at their horde for two whole years. At the same time they prevented the settling of any order of succession. In a word they made themselves lords paramount; for, at the outset, they adopted the plan of not permitting any prince, great or small, to assume the government of his states before he had journeyed to the great horde to

solicit the investiture. The effect of these journeys, to accomplish which a year was barely sufficient, was to leave the principalities without Russian chiefs, and under

to deal; to ruin the competitors by the customary presents; and lastly, as accusers of the princes were never wanting among their kinsfolk and rivals, to make them



A TARTAR CHIEF AND HIS WIFE.

the authority of the Tartar baskaks (or governors); to prove the supremacy of the grand khans; to make known to these Mongols with what kind of men they had

dread the terrible vengeance of the khans, in case of their having to reproach themselves with so much as a sigh for independence. Several princes were summoned to

the great horde, tried, and executed. But these Tartars, who thus cruelly punished the insubordination of the Russian princes, joined with them in their foreign wars. They even served them in their civil wars; and this was the manner in which they did so: a Russian prince journeyed to the horde to impeach the grand prince, in whose place he prayed to be substituted; and he returned with a Tartar army, which permitted him to reign over ashes and blood."

During the period of the Tartar supremacy, Alexander Nevski came to the throne of Novgorod. He was a great statesman and warrior, and won many victories over his European enemies, the Teutonic Knights and the Lithuanians, and recovered the Neva from the Swedes, from which success his surname is derived. He secured the good-will of the Tartars, and later on was granted the principalities of Kiev and Vladimir by the khan, who had deprived the native princes of their thrones. He died suddenly in 1262, poisoned, it is believed, by order of the khan, who had begun to suspect him of aiming at independence.

Ivan I, surnamed Kalita (or the Purse), became Prince of Moscow in 1328. He united the principality of Tver with Moscow, adorned his capital with many new churches, and in 1339 commenced the reconstruction of the Kremlin. He induced the primate of the Russian Church to remove from Vladimir and establish his residence at Moscow, and by means of his great wealth purchased the protection and favor of the Tartars. He was a statesman of the Machiavellian order, and his tortuous policy resulted in the establishment of his authority over the Russian princes, whom he held down with a firm hand, aided by his influence with their Tartar masters. He gained for Russia a tranquillity to which she had long been a stranger, and which enabled her to revive and increase her commercial prosperity, and to acquire the means for future resistance to her barbarian oppressors. He died in 1340, and was able to leave to his son Simeon the means of purchasing his throne from the horde, thus securing the direct succession.

Simeon carried out his father's policy with vigor, and died after a reign of twelve years in 1353. He was succeeded by his brother Ivan II., who was also obliged to purchase the sanction of the horde to his accession. The regular order of succession thus maintained was a great gain to Rus-

sia, which enjoyed fifty years of repose and prosperity in consequence of it. The throne of the grand prince became the rallying point of the Russians, and its strength and stability inspired them with a patriotism and boldness which clearly pointed to an early effort to regain the freedom of their country.

In 1359 Dimitri II., the son of Ivan II., came to the throne. His first act was to establish the natural order of succession to the crown from father to son. The boyars, who had recognized the advantages which this mode of succession held out to them, readily agreed to it. Dimitri then established his power over the minor princes of Russia, whom he made his vassals. Moscow became the capital of Russia in a truer sense than it had ever been, and "it was obvious that the only protecting power was at Moscow; to have recourse to its support was a matter of necessity. The petty princes could obtain it only by the sacrifice of their independence; and thus all of them became vassals to the Grand Prince Dimitri." From 1362 to 1380 the dissensions of the Tartars, who had now split up into several hordes, enabled him to carry out his plans without interruption from them. He was also enabled to beat back the Lithuanians, who three times besieged Moscow and threatened to put an end to his reign.

These enemies being driven off, and his power at home being secure, Dimitri felt himself strong enough to throw off the Tartar yoke. In 1378 he refused the customary tribute to the khan and put to death the ambassador sent to demand it. The khan burst into a storm of rage when he heard of the murder of his representative, and summoned his hitherto invincible warriors to aid him in the conquest and destruction of Moscow.

The danger which now threatened Russia was very great, and united all the princes under Dimitri for their common defence. In 1380 the khan advanced into Russia at the head of all his warriors. He encountered the grand prince and his army on the banks of the Don, and was routed with terrible slaughter. This memorable achievement won for Dimitri his surname of Donskoi. One hundred thousand Tartars are said to have perished in this battle. In 1382 the Tartars returned, and took and burned Vladimir and Moscow, in the latter of which they put 24,000 persons to the sword. Dimitri was obliged to purchase

peace by heavy sacrifices. His defeat had been caused by the defection of the Russian princes, and he now proceeded to take vengeance upon them and to reduce them once more to the position of his vassals. His last years were spent in consolidating his power in his dominions. He died in 1389.

Vassili, or Basil III., succeeded his father as Grand Prince of Moscow. He treated his dependent princes with severity, but by timely submission and presents gained the good-will of the khan, who bestowed upon him the principalities of Suzdal, Tchernigof and Nijni Novgorod, which were from this time inalienably united with Moscow. He endeavored to render Novgorod the great tributary to Moscow, but without success. He died in 1425, leaving to his son the most powerful and compact state in Russia. In his reign money was first coined in Russia.

Vassili IV., the son of Vassili III., came to the throne at the age of five years. His uncle Igor (or Yury), taking advantage of the youth of the grand prince, usurped the throne. Vassili appealed to the horde and the usurper was ordered to relinquish the throne. Igor raised an army, took Moscow by surprise, and banished Vassili to a distant part of the principality. At the moment of his victory, however, the usurper found himself abandoned. The entire population of Moscow followed their young prince into his banishment, and Igor was left literally alone with his troops in the city. Struck with dismay he "descended from his solitary throne, and restored it to the legitimate heir." Vassili IV. greatly increased the dominions of Moscow by incorporating Haliez, Mozhaik and Borousk with his principality. During this reign the metropolitan Isidore of Kiev took part in the general council of Florence in 1439, and subscribed to the act of union of the Greek and Latin Churches. Vassili disapproved of this act, and threw Isidore into prison, from which he escaped, after some years, into Italy. Vassili became involved in a war with the Tartars, who deprived him of his throne, but subsequently restored it to him. Somewhat later he was made prisoner by his cousin, the son of Igor, or Yury, who put out his eyes and seized his throne. The nobles rallied to the support of their blind prince, however, and the usurper was overthrown and poisoned. Vassili was restored to his throne. He died in 1462.

Ivan III., called "the Great," succeeded his father. He was twenty-two years old and reigned forty-three years. The two great objects of his life were to render his country free from foreign influence, and to make himself the autocrat of his own dominions. He was successful in both these efforts. In 1469 he conquered the Khan of Kazan and made him tributary, and in the next ten years conquered and annexed to his principality the republics of Novgorod, Perm and Pskov. This conquest was fatal to Novgorod. Its commerce declined, and its prosperity vanished. Before its conquest it is said to have contained a population of 400,000 souls. It is now a second-rate town of the Russian empire. Ivan then declared to the Tartar envoys that Russia would no longer pay tribute to the khans. A fresh war with the Tartars was the result, but Ivan successfully repulsed them, and from this time the grand prince ceased to be a tributary of the khan. Tver and several other Russian principalities were next subdued and added to the Muscovite dominions. Ivan also conquered parts of Siberia in 1499, but in a war with the Livonians and their allies, the Teutonic Knights, was totally defeated and compelled to make peace, A. D. 1501. Constantinople having fallen into the hands of the Turks, Ivan was anxious to constitute himself the successor of the Greek emperors, and in order to accomplish this married the Princess Sophia, the heiress of the imperial house of Byzantium. His first wife had died some years previous to this. Immediately upon his second marriage Ivan adopted as his escutcheon the double-headed eagle of the Byzantine emperors.

Ivan was a master of statecraft, and some of his most important successes were won as much by the exercise of this talent as by force of arms. In his internal administration he was a stern despot. He broke the power of the petty princes and the nobles, and sent them to the block at his pleasure. He was the first to assume the title of "Autocrat of all the Russias," which his successors have since borne. He made many important reforms, improved the laws, regulated the public taxes, and changed for the better the manners of the clergy. His true heir was Dimitri, the child of his eldest son by his first wife, but he arbitrarily thrust him aside, and finally threw him into prison. He then constituted his son by his second wife, Sophia,

his heir. When remonstrated with for thus changing the succession, he exclaimed And he threw the remonstrants into prison. He died in 1505 at the age of sixty-seven,

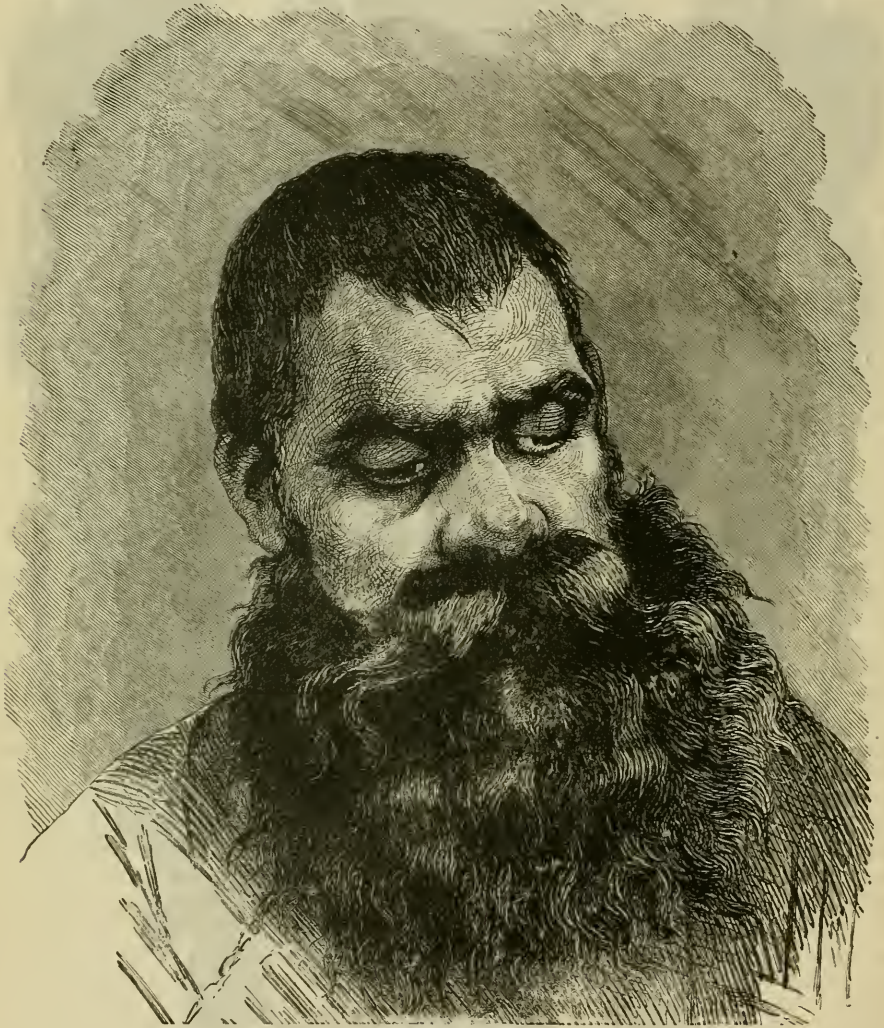


IVAN THE GREAT.

sternly, "Am I not, then, at liberty to act as I please? I will give Russia to whom I think proper, and I command you to obey." leaving to his successor a stronger and more compact empire than any of his predecessors had ever ruled.

Vassili V., the son of Sophia, succeeded to his father's throne. He carried out the policy of Ivan with firmness and success, and in 1510 added Pskov to his dominions, thus extinguishing the last of the semi-independent principalities of Russia. The Tartars of Kazan having proved refractory, were utterly routed in 1524, and again in

a child when his father died. His mother, Helena, contrary to the Russian custom, made herself regent, and for four years held her position, putting down all opposition to her with despotic cruelty. In 1537 she was poisoned, and the regency was seized by the Shuiski, a powerful boyar family, the chief of which was the president of the



A COSSACK.

1530, and were made tributary to Russia. Vassili conducted wars against the Lithuanians and Poles, but without accomplishing anything of importance. He died in 1533, after a reign of twenty-eight years, leaving the empire further enlarged and consolidated by his skilful management.

Ivan IV., called "the Terrible," was but

supreme council of boyars. This family had received many humiliations and much bad treatment at the hands of the grand princes. They now avenged themselves by heaping all manner of indignities upon the youthful Ivan, whose life was passed in a state of constant terror. They plundered the treasury and robbed the people, and the

insolent regent was seen to throw himself on the bed of the young czar and rudely thrust his feet in the lap of the sovereign of Russia. The Shuiski punished all opposition to their power with remorseless cruelty, and Ivan saw his friends dragged from his presence and put to death with horrible tortures in spite of his entreaties in their behalf. In 1543, when the czar was fourteen years old, the Shuiski were overthrown by the Glinski, another boyar family, who seized the regency and pursued the same course of cruelty and despotism that had marked the reign of their rivals. They differed from them only in this: they thrust the czar forward as the cover for all their acts, and robbed and killed and tortured in his name. They diligently taught the czar that his nobles were his natural foes instead of the chief supporters of his throne, and that he could maintain his power only by the sternest and cruellest exercise of it. They applauded and encouraged the development of his naturally cruel instincts, and praised him "when he amused himself with tormenting wild animals, and throwing down tame ones from the summit of his palace; when, in his disorderly rambles, he dashed old people to the ground, and trampled under the feet of his horses the women and children of Moscow." Fourteen years of Ivan's life—from the age of three to seventeen years—were passed amid these terrible scenes, and he was kept so constantly in dread and agitation that his mind, naturally strong, became warped. He learned to love cruelty and to think that his only safety lay in tormenting his people.

The rule of the Glinski lasted but three years. In 1547 the people of Moscow, driven to despair, rose against them, massacred them and fired the town. In the midst of the terrible scenes which ensued, a monk named Sylvester entered the palace bearing in his hands the gospels. In stern tones he declared to the czar that the outbreak was but the just vengeance of heaven for the crimes that had been committed in his name, and exhorted him to heed the warning and rule his people justly. Ivan was appalled by the awful words of the monk, and promised to do better. Alexis Adashef, a leading noble, joined his entreaties to the warnings of Sylvester, and a great change was effected.

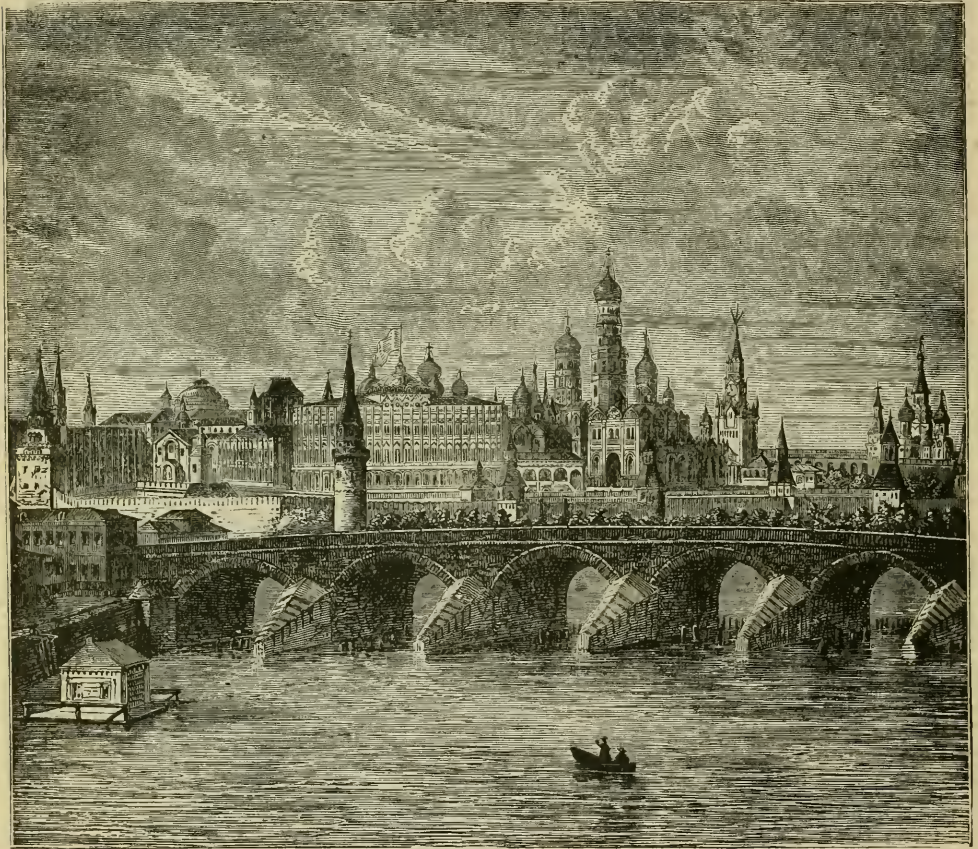
Ivan submitted himself to Sylvester and Adashef, and to the latter confided the gov-

ernment of the empire. For the next thirteen years Russia enjoyed the blessings of internal peace and good government. Order was quickly restored in the government, and justice was impartially administered; a standing army called the *Strelitz* was organized, and regularity was once more restored in the military service. The ruler of Kazan had made himself independent during the minority of Ivan. In 1552 the czar led a powerful army against Kazan and conquered it, breaking the power of the Tartars of this region beyond all hope of recovery. In 1553 a commercial road was opened to Archangel on the White Sea, then the only port of Russia. In 1554 Astrakhan was captured and the frontier of the empire advanced to the Caspian Sea. Fortresses were erected along the frontier to hold the Tartars in check. The Don Cossacks were united with the empire in 1570, and in 1581–82 Yermak, a Cossack freebooter, conquered Siberia for the czar. Ivan did much to promote the commerce of his country, concluded commercial treaties with England, induced many Germans and Englishmen to settle in his empire, and in 1569 set up a printing office in Moscow. He conducted frequent wars with Sweden and Poland with varying success, and made an unsuccessful attempt to drive the Teutonic Knights out of Livonia. In 1582 he was obliged to conclude the war by surrendering Livonia to Sweden.

In 1560 Alexis Adashef died, and soon after the Czarina Anastasia, to whom Ivan was much attached, died also. About the same time Ivan himself was seized with a terrible illness, which came near proving fatal. Recovering his health he gave symptoms of insanity, which became a settled characteristic of his nature. He was from this time gloomy and suspicious. He would break out in frightful rages in which he did not hesitate to strike down with his own hand any one, of whatever station, who chanced to offend him. He was constantly tormented with fears of a revolt of his boyars, and surrounded himself with a picked force of troops, to make way for which he ruthlessly drove out the inhabitants of the streets adjoining his palace. He delighted in inflicting suffering upon his people, whose abject submission to his tyranny is one of the most remarkable spectacles in history. In Novgorod, which he hated for its free spirit, he put 60,000 men to death in 1570. "He butchered with his own hand a throng

of the unfortunate inhabitants, whom he heaped together in a vast enclosure; and when, at last, his strength failed to second his fury, he gave up the remainder to his select guard, to his slaves, to his dogs, and to the opened ice of the Volkhof, in which for more than a month those hapless beings were daily engulfed by hundreds. Then, declaring that his justice was satisfied, he retired; seriously recommending himself

ions, till they rotted and dropped in pieces upon them. Elsewhere husbands, or children, were fastened dead to the places which they had occupied at the domestic table, and their wives, or mothers, were compelled to sit, for days, opposite to the dear and lifeless remains." The mad czar compelled sons to kill their fathers, and brothers to destroy each other; he threw his prisoners of war into boiling cauldrons, or spitted



THE KREMLIN—MOSCOW.

to the prayers of the survivors, who took special care not to neglect obedience to the orders of their terrestrial deity." In Tver and Pskov similar cruelties were enacted. In Moscow 500 of the most illustrious nobles were tortured and put to death. "Neither were women spared any more than men; Ivan ordered them to be hanged at their own doors; and he prohibited their husbands from going out or in without passing under the corpses of their compan-

them upon lances and roasted them at slow fires which he himself stirred up. The whole empire was filled with terror and bloodshed. At length a number of the most faithful boyars, headed by the eldest son of the czar, dared to present an humble supplication for mercy. Ivan was seized with fury, and with a single blow of his iron-bound staff laid his son dead at his feet. His remorse for this mad deed was great, and hastened his death, which oc-

ceeded in 1584. In spite of his madness and tyranny he did more for the greatness of Russia than any of his predecessors. His conquests made Russia an empire strong in territory and resources. As yet, however, she took no part in European affairs, being cut off from the other nations of that continent by the Poles and Swedes, who held the country west of Russia and the shores of the Baltic. On the south the Tartars of the Crimea lay between Russia

and the Black Sea. Her only ports were upon the Caspian and the White Seas. The port of Archangel, founded in this reign, was the point from which the commerce of the empire with England and the other countries of Europe was conducted at this time.



A RUSSIAN VILLAGE.

and the Black Sea. Her only ports were upon the Caspian and the White Seas. The port of Archangel, founded in this reign, was the point from which the commerce of the empire with England and the other countries of Europe was conducted at this time.

Feodor I., the second son of Ivan, was twenty-seven years old when he came to the throne at his father's death. He was weak and sickly, and his greatest delight was to

haunt the churches and ring the bells. He was in no sense fit to be a sovereign, and his father, aware of his infirmity, had left him under the care of a council of boyars. The leading spirit of this council was Boris Godunof, a man of Tartar descent, and the brother-in-law of Feodor. Boris soon made himself master of the supreme power of the state, and administered the government according to his own will. The weak Feodor was but as clay in his hands, and he caused Dimitri, the other son of Ivan, who was but a child, to be banished to an estate left him by his father, where he was subsequently murdered by order of Boris. Boris spared no pains to win the favor of the people of Moscow, as he aspired to the throne itself at the death of Feodor, and his great abilities enabled him to carry out his designs with success. In 1591 the Khan of the Crimea invaded Russia and advanced upon Moscow, which was unprotected by

fortifications. The people were in despair, but Boris, with extraordinary energy, caused a line of fortifications to be thrown up around the city, and manned it with a strong force of infantry and artillery. The assault of the Tartars was repulsed, and their army began a disastrous retreat to their own country. In 1598 Feodor I. died, and with him ended the line of Rurik, which had held the throne for 736 years.

Boris Godunof was now called to the throne by the nobles and people, and after a feigned hesitation complied with their wishes. The chief event of his reign was the establishment of serfdom, but on the whole his rule was beneficial to Russia. He caused the laws to be impartially administered, encouraged the arts and trades, induced many intelligent foreigners to settle in his dominions, and in other ways promoted the civilization of his empire. He treated the boyars with great severity, and so alienated them from him. The establishment of serfdom was bitterly resented by the peasants, and a bloody outbreak occurred, which was with difficulty suppressed. In 1601 a terrible famine broke out in Russia and continued for three years. In Moscow alone upwards of 100,000 persons perished. Boris did all he could to relieve the wants of the people, but could not accomplish much in the midst of so much suffering.

In the midst of the discontent caused by the famine an impostor appeared in Poland and claimed to be Dimitri, the son of Ivan, whom Boris had caused to be put to death when a child. He was supported by a number of Polish noblemen, and succeeded in collecting a force with which he invaded Russia in 1603. All who were dissatisfied with Boris flocked to his standard, and he soon found himself at the head of a considerable army. He won a victory over the forces of the czar, but was at length defeated. He threw himself into one of the fortified cities and maintained his position there.

On the 13th of April, 1605, Boris died suddenly. He was succeeded by his son, Feodor II., a youth of sixteen. On the 7th of May—only six weeks later—the army revolted and proclaimed the false Dimitri czar. On the 1st of June the inhabitants of Moscow followed the example of the army, proclaimed Dimitri, and seized Feodor and threw him into prison,

where he was soon after murdered. On the 20th of June Dimitri entered Moscow amid the joyful acclamations of the populace, and a few weeks later was solemnly crowned Czar of all the Russias. He gave evidence of unusual talent as a sovereign, and was a man of more liberal views than Russia had ever known. It was his chief desire to unite all the forces of the Slav race and drive the Tartars and Turks out of Europe, and he began at once to prepare for this struggle. He meant that the clergy should bear their share of the cost of the war, and levied a tax upon them. This brought about his ruin. The clergy had no idea of bearing any of the burdens of the state, and threw the whole of their powerful influence against the czar. They instigated a conspiracy to dethrone him, which was joined by a number of boyars, among whom were some of those who had been the first to desert the cause of Boris. The head of the conspiracy was Vassili Shuiski, a powerful noble who had been especially favored by Dimitri. On the 18th of May, 1606, the czar was married with great pomp to a Polish princess, who came attended by a numerous retinue of her countrymen. The marriage of the czar to a princess not of the orthodox faith gave great offence to the people, and the thoughtless conduct of the Poles, who showed open disrespect to the Greek faith, greatly increased this feeling. On the night of the 18th the conspirators, taking advantage of the popular discontent, took up arms, and being joined by the people of Moscow, gained admittance to the Kremlin and attacked the palace. Dimitri and the few who stood by him were killed, and the czarina narrowly escaped with her life.

Immediately upon the death of Dimitri the boyars proclaimed Vassili Shuiski czar, as Vassili VI., and he was crowned on the 1st of June, 1606. The reign of Shuiski was not accepted by the entire nation, and a rebellion soon broke out against him. It was given out that the Czar Dimitri was not dead, but had escaped to Poland, whence he issued orders to his supporters to attack Shuiski. A false Dimitri soon appeared, aided by a Polish army. He advanced towards Moscow. Vassili VI., or Shuiski, made an alliance with the Swedes to resist this invasion, and this act induced Sigismund III. of Poland to espouse the cause of the false Dimitri. Shuiski found his Swedish allies utterly untrustworthy.

They soon went over to the Poles, and Moscow was forced to surrender in 1610. The czar was made prisoner, and was sent to a Polish fortress, where he died the next year. In 1611 the Poles, being attacked in Moscow by the inhabitants, burned the city and put thousands of the people to the sword. A period of anarchy now set in. Russia was without a sovereign, and its capital was in the hands of the Poles. The evident determination of the Poles to make Russia a province of their country revived the national spirit, and in 1612 Pozharski and other popular leaders succeeded in compelling the Poles to withdraw to their own dominions.

Having freed their country, the Russians prepared to elect a new sovereign to the vacant throne. The choice fell upon Michael Romanoff, who was descended through the female line from Rurik, the founder of the empire. He was the son of Feodor, Archbishop of Rostov, and afterwards Patriarch of Moscow. He was proclaimed and crowned czar in 1613, and became the founder of the present imperial family of Russia. Michael was but sixteen years old at the time of his election. He reigned thirty-two years, and succeeded in restoring order to his distracted empire. He concluded in 1617 a treaty of peace with Sweden and Poland, and devoted all his energies to promoting the prosperity of his country. He entered into commercial treaties with England, France, China, and Persia, and so revived the prostrate trade of Russia. In 1639 he pushed the borders of his Asiatic provinces to the Pacific. Michael proved himself a wise and able ruler, and after the conclusion of the wars with Sweden and Poland, succeeded in preserving peace for his empire and restoring to a great degree its lost prosperity. He died in 1645.

Alexis, the eldest son of Michael, succeeded to the throne without opposition. The new czar carried out with great energy his father's policy of civilizing Russia and winning for her a place among the nations of Europe. In 1654 he established his power over the Cossacks of the Don. As this tribe had been subject to Poland, a war with that country ensued, and ended in the restoration to Russia of Tchernigov, Smolensk, Kiev, and the Ukraine. Alexis died in 1676, and was succeeded by his son Feodor III., who died in 1682.

CHAPTER II.

FROM THE REIGN OF PETER THE GREAT TO THE PRESENT TIME.

The Sons of Feodor III.—The Princess Sophia—Makes Herself Regent—Accession of Peter the Great—Determines to Make Russia a Great European Power—Conquers Azov—Visits the Countries of Western Europe to Learn the Arts of Civilization—Returns to Russia—Suppresses a Mutiny of the Strelitz—Measures of Peter for the Improvement of his Country—Wars with Sweden—Seizes Ingria and Carelia—St. Petersburg Founded—Wars with Turkey—Loss of Azov—Rapid Advance of Russia under Peter—His Death—Catharine I.—Peter II. Becomes Czar—The Empress Anna—War with Turkey—Azov Reconquered—Elizabeth Becomes Empress—The Seven Years' War—Russia Becomes the Ally of Austria—Death of Elizabeth—Peter III. Favors Prussia—Catharine the Great—Her Reign—Relations with Sweden—Russia Intervenes in Polish Affairs—Wars with Turkey—The First Partition of Poland—Russia's Share—Successes Over the Turks—Suwaroff—Capture of Ismail—Treaty of Jassy—Death of Catharine the Great—Paul I.—Russia Takes Part in the Wars of the French Revolution—Murder of Paul—Alexander I.—His Wars with Napoleon—Treaty of Tilsit—Friendship of Alexander for Napoleon—The War Renewed—French Invasion of Russia—Its Disastrous End—Last Years of Alexander—His Death—Nicholas—War with Turkey—Polish Revolution of 1830—It is Crushed—The Crimean War—Death of Nicholas—Alexander II.—Abolition of Serfdom—Alexander's Treatment of Poland—The Insurrection of 1863—It is Put Down—Poland Absorbed in the Empire—Sale of the Russian American Possessions—Abrogation of the Treaty of Paris—Advance of Russia in the East—The Conquest of Khiiva—Insurrection in the Turkish Provinces in 1875—Russia Resolves to Intervene in Behalf of the Greek Christians—The Bulgarian Massacres—Excitement in Russia—Efforts for a Settlement—Russia Prepares for War—The Army Ordered to Take the Field—Russia Declares War Against Turkey—Events of the Campaign in Armenia—Fall of Kars—Events of the War in Bulgaria.

PETER and Ivan, sons of the Czar Alexis, were now crowned sovereigns of Russia. Ivan was a poor deformed idiot, and was czar only in name. Peter being a mere boy, the regency was held by his sister Sophia, a beautiful and daring woman, who attempted to secure the crown for herself. Her scheme was defeated in 1689 by Peter, who seized the throne and made himself czar. He was but seventeen years old, tall, rawboned, addicted to sensual pleasures and to drunkenness; but he already gave evidence of the tremendous energy and strength of will which were to make him one of the most remarkable characters of history, and to win him the well-deserved title of "Great."

Peter I., called "the Great," began his reign with the firm resolve to make Russia one of the leading states of Europe. It was already a powerful country, but was cut off

from his single port of Archangel. He believed that to give his country the importance she was entitled to in the European system she must have a more extended



PETER THE GREAT.

CATHARINE THE GREAT.

from all relations with the European states. He forced Poland to give up a considerable amount of Russian territory held by her, and gave great attention to the improve-
 ment of his single port of Archangel. He believed that to give his country the importance she was entitled to in the European system she must have a more extended
 sea-coast. In 1696 he conquered and annexed to his dominions the territory of Azov, which had been held by the Turks. This gave him a footing on the Black Sea,

and he resolved to create a fleet which should enable him to hold his conquest and make him the superior of Turkey.

In order to do this, and to learn the arts of civilization, which he meant to introduce among his people, Peter placed the government in the hands of an old noble, and travelled into foreign countries to study their institutions and learn the industrial arts by which they had gained their prosperity. He visited Sweden and Brandenburg, and fixed his residence at Saardam, in Holland, where he worked as a common ship-carpenter, receiving his wages every Saturday night, and living in all respects like the other workmen. Thus he learned by actual experience the art of ship-building, and observed with vigilant eyes the other sources of the prosperity of Holland. During this time he kept a close watch over the affairs of Russia, and directed the government of that country from his laborer's hut in Holland. In 1698 he visited England at the request of William III., by whom he was cordially received; but instead of giving himself up to court festivities, he passed his time in visiting the dock-yards and perfecting his knowledge of shipbuilding. He thus prepared himself to be the civilizer of his own country—a noble ambition which goes far to redeem his faults.

Peter was recalled to Russia in 1698 by the news of an insurrection of the Strelitz. He reached Moscow in September, immediately after the suppression of the revolt by his generals. 7,000 prisoners had been taken, and he caused every man of these to be put to death, beheading many with his own hand.

Having restored order, the czar began to put in force the measures by which he hoped to bring Russia into direct intercourse with Europe, and to fit her for the position he meant she should assume. He laid aside the old national dress, adopted the costume of western Europe, and required all the Russians, save the priests and the peasants, to follow his example. He laid a heavy tax upon beards in order to put a stop to their use; changed the titles of the nobility, and greatly curtailed their powers. He allowed the Bible to be circulated freely within his dominions and granted toleration to all sects.

Peter was aware that an outlet on the Baltic was indispensable to the success of his plans, and as Sweden, which held the territory between his kingdom and that sea,

had passed into the hands of the youthful Charles XII., it seemed that no better opportunity could be desired for the accomplishment of his designs. He therefore joined the league of Denmark, Poland, and Saxony for the dismemberment of the Swedish dominions. Charles, as we have related, astonished his assailants by the vigor and promptness of his resistance. When he had punished Denmark he turned upon the Russian army which was besieging the town of Narva, in the Swedish territory east of the Gulf of Finland. With an inferior force, Charles defeated the Russians on the 30th of November, 1700, and made most of them prisoners, with their baggage and artillery. Peter was not present on the battle-field, but took to heart the lesson of his defeat. His armies were numerous enough, but they were undisciplined; and in order to remedy this defect in them, he sent 20,000 of his best troops to serve under the King of Poland, who was the next object of Charles's vengeance.

The success of Charles in driving Augustus II. from the Polish throne and setting up Stanislaus, has been related in the history of Sweden. Peter passed the years thus employed by Charles, in improving his army and navy, and seized the provinces of Ingria and Carelia, which had been wrested from Russia by Sweden in 1612. The possession of this territory gave him a footing on the Baltic, and he was resolved never to relinquish it. In 1704 Dorpat and Narva were captured, and the Russian forces occupied Courland and Lithuania. In the same year Peter, who was confident that he would never be forced to relinquish his conquests, founded a new city on an island near the junction of the Neva with the Gulf of Finland, and named it St. Petersburg in honor of his patron saint, the Apostle Peter. This city he meant should be the new capital of his empire. For its protection he established the fortress of Cronstadt at the head of the Gulf of Finland. The sites of both of these places belonged at the time by treaty to Sweden. Upon learning of the treaty of Altranstadt, by which Augustus II. accepted the changes in Poland, Peter hastened to Poland and succeeded in inducing the diet to set aside the treaty and declare the Polish throne vacant.

In 1708 Charles XII. invaded Russia, intending to march to Moscow. We have related the story of this invasion and its disastrous end. In 1711, while Charles was



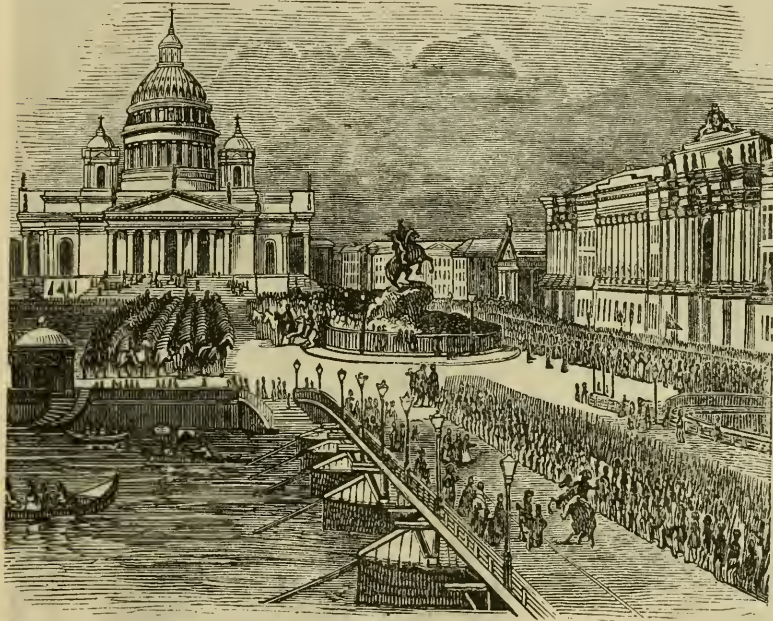
PETER THE GREAT WORKING AS A SHIP-CARPENTER IN HOLLAND.

in Turkey, Peter was induced to invade the province of Moldavia. He suddenly found himself surrounded by a superior Turkish army, and seemed on the point of being ruined. He was rescued from his perilous position by the genius of his wife, the Czarina Catharine, and through her peace was made with Turkey. Peter surrendered Azov to the sultan, engaged to withdraw his army from Poland, and was permitted to recross the Pruth without further loss. In September, 1721, the war between Russia and Sweden was brought to a close by the peace of Nystadt. By this treaty Russia restored Finland, but kept the Swedish provinces east of the Baltic.

and synod in solemn assembly conferred upon him the title of "Emperor of all the Russias," and he was styled by his subjects of all classes, "Peter the Great," a title richly earned. In the next few years Peter extended the border of his empire on the Caspian Sea at the expense of Persia.

In 1718 Alexis, the eldest son of Peter, who had joined the old Russian party in opposition to his father's reforms, was detected in a conspiracy against the czar, and was put to death. He left a son, three years of age, and a daughter aged four years. In 1725 Peter the Great died. He was succeeded by his widow, the Empress Catharine, who had been crowned during

the life of her husband, and who was now supported by the new Russian party. She continued the policy of Peter I., but died in 1727, leaving the crown to her grandson Peter II., the son of Alexis. The new czar had married the daughter of Prince Menschikoff, the prime minister. The insolence of this minister soon rendered him odious to his son-in-law, and he was banished to Siberia.



ST. ISAAC'S PLACE—ST. PETERSBURG.

Peter had good reason to be proud of his work. In the twenty-one years which had elapsed since the opening of the century he had reorganized and disciplined his army, created a navy, established himself upon the Baltic, and had built a splendid city amid the marshes of the Neva. He had improved the administration of justice, had more than doubled the foreign commerce of Russia, had caused manufactures to spring up in his kingdom, had built roads, dug canals, and introduced the printing press. In a word he had civilized Russia and had placed her in the front rank of the European powers; and he had done all this by the force of his own genius. The senate

in 1730, and was succeeded by Anna Ivanovna, Duchess of Courland, a niece of Peter the Great. One of her first acts was to make peace with Persia, and to restore the larger part of the territory taken from that country by Peter I. In 1735 she began a war against the Tartars of the Crimea, and a little later extended the war to the Turkish empire. Münnich, the Russian commander, reconquered Azov, and defeated the Turks in a number of engagements. The Emperor of Austria made an alliance with Russia against Turkey in 1737, but the Austrians were unsuccessful, and in 1739 a treaty was made with the Turks to which Russia was

obliged to accede. Belgrade, Sabatch, and the Austrian part of Servia were ceded to the sultan. Russia retained Azov, but agreed not to maintain a fleet in the Black Sea.

In 1739 a revolution placed Elizabeth, the daughter of Peter the Great and Catharine, on the Russian throne. She reigned over twenty-two years. She took no part in the war of the Austrian succession, as

The part played by the Russian armies in this war has been related in the German history of this period, and need not be related here. Fortunately for Frederick the Great, the Empress Elizabeth died in January, 1762, and was succeeded by her nephew Peter III., who was friendly to Frederick. The czar now withdrew from the coalition against Prussia, as has been related, and made an alliance with Freder-



FESTIVAL IN A RUSSIAN VILLAGE.

she was engaged at home in a war with Sweden, which power, as has been related, attempted to recover its lost territory east of the Baltic. The result of this war was that Sweden was defeated and stripped of her provinces east of the Gulf of Bothnia, which were added to the Russian empire.

At the opening of the Seven Years' War Russia allied herself with Austria, France, Sweden, and Saxony for the destruction and dismemberment of the Prussian kingdom.

ick. In a few months he was murdered by order of his wife, the Empress Catharine, who mounted the throne as Catharine II. Catharine refused to continue the alliance with Frederick, and withdrew altogether from the war—a great gain for Frederick.

Catharine II., called "the Great," was, next to Peter the Great, the most remarkable sovereign of Russia. She was a woman of notoriously dissolute character, and did not hesitate to descend to crime in order to

accomplish her objects. Ivan VI., the true heir to the throne, had been deposed by the Empress Elizabeth in 1741, had since been kept a prisoner, and had been treated with such cruelty that he had become a lunatic. In order to remove him out of her way, Catharine engaged one of her former favorites, Mirowitch, who had offended her, in an attempt to release him, and then caused both the prince and Mirowitch to be put to death.

To her own country Catharine proved a wise and vigorous ruler. She continued the policy of Peter the Great, and devoted herself to the civilization of her empire, and the advancement of it to a leading place among the powers of Europe. The army and navy were kept in a high state of efficiency, and the empire was divided for convenience of administration into a series of "governments," which system is still maintained. A number of reforms were inaugurated in the civil service, which was made more efficient, and the influence of Russia abroad was advanced steadily.

The feeble condition of Sweden gave Catharine an opportunity to seek to extend her influence over that kingdom, and in this she was partially successful until the accession of Gustavus III. to the throne of that country. The re-establishment of the independence of Sweden under this king led to a war with Russia, which was closed by the treaty of Werela, as has been related. A treaty of alliance and friendship was concluded between the two countries at Drottningholm, and during the remainder of the century the relations between Russia and Sweden were intimate and cordial.

Poland now engaged the attention of Catharine. We have traced elsewhere the wars of that country from the opening of the century to the accession of Augustus III. in 1733. His title was confirmed by the treaty of Vienna in 1738, and he held undisputed possession of the throne until 1763. His death in that year left Poland in a condition of anarchy, an evil which was the direct result of its worthless constitution. The crown was contested by two factions, one of which was supported by Russia and Prussia, the other by France. The Russo-Prussian faction was triumphant, and elevated to the throne Stanislaus Poniatowski, a weak and incompetent prince. As he was an old lover of Catharine, she had no difficulty in making him merely a tool for the furtherance of her own designs.

The situation of Poland was wretched in the extreme. At least two-thirds of the people were serfs; they were utterly ignorant and debased; and their condition was one of abject poverty. They were incapable of holding property, or of earning their bread by any independent labor of their own. They depended for their subsistence on the annual harvests, a failure of which doomed whole districts to starvation. The remainder of the population consisted of the three orders of the nobility, the clergy, lawyers, inhabitants of cities and villages, and Jews. The citizen class consisted mainly of some 40,000 or 50,000 laboring men, who were scattered through the villages and towns. Their condition was but one or two degrees above that of the serfs, and in any other country would have been considered unendurable. The citizens, clergy and Jews were the only classes of the population subject to taxation, and the burdens laid upon them were heavy indeed. The finances were grossly mismanaged, and the revenue failed to meet the wants of the nation. The nobles were divided into three classes. The first, numbering about 120 persons, were the great princes, the heads of the various factions into which the country was divided. The second class numbered about 20,000 or 30,000 persons; and the lower class of nobles numbered about a million. The majority were noble only in name, they were ignorant, miserably poor in many cases, idle, and turbulent. The constitution of the kingdom gave them the privilege of opposing with arms, if they saw fit, any distasteful action of the king, and the most insignificant noble could nullify any act of the whole diet by the interposition of his single negative vote. A more impracticable constitution, a more wretched and disunited people can scarcely be imagined.

Catharine saw in this state of affairs an opportunity for breaking up the Polish kingdom and bringing it under her own vigorous rule. For this purpose she secured the election of Stanislaus to the throne. A large part of the Polish population was Protestant, but the government was Roman Catholic. The Protestants were greatly oppressed by the Catholic party, and Catharine availed herself of the opportunity which this persecution offered to interfere in Polish affairs on the pretext of securing political equality for the Protestants. In 1765 the diet, indignant at

this interference, re-enacted all the oppressive laws against heretics. Stanislaus was unable to oppose this movement, and by yielding to it gave great offence to Catharine. She won over to her interests Prince Charles Radzivil, the leading opponent of Stanislaus in the kingdom, and made him the instrument of her vengeance upon the Polish king.

Radzivil was liberally supplied with Rus-

measures was only to deceive his subjects. A confederacy of nobles was formed at Bar at the instigation of France, for the avowed object of dethroning Stanislaus and driving the Russians from Poland. The confederates placed an army in the field, and Catharine promptly sent a force to oppose them under General Suwarof, who in 1768 took Cracow and defeated the Confederates of Bar.



VIEW OF SEVASTOPOL.

sian gold, and he succeeded in forming a party among the nobles devoted to himself. It numbered 80,000 men, and, in accordance with the custom of the country, assumed dictatorial powers. They succeeded in bringing the king so thoroughly under their control that the nation became convinced that Stanislaus was merely a tool of Russia, and that his support of the national

A war now broke out with Turkey, and for a time put a stop to the movement against Poland. The Tartars of the Crimea burst into the southern provinces of Russia and committed terrible ravages. Prince Galitzin was sent against them in 1769, but was unsuccessful. In 1770 Prince Romanzoff took command of the Russian army and drove back the Turks and Tartars.

He quickly made himself master of Moldavia and Wallachia, and in the same year the Russian fleet, under Alexis Orloff, defeated the Turks in a great battle off Scio, and burned their fleet in the harbor of Smyrna. Catharine followed up Orloff's success by seeking to free Greece and to establish it as an independent kingdom. Her efforts were premature, and upon the withdrawal of her forces the Greeks were punished with horrible cruelties by the Turks.

The success of Catharine in dealing with Poland encouraged Austria and Prussia to attempt to obtain each a share of that kingdom at its dismemberment, which they saw was inevitable. In the summer of 1770 Austria occupied the county of Zip and the greater part of Galicia with her troops, and, declaring these provinces reunited to Hungary, placed them under Austrian governors. The Prussian army occupied Polish Prussia on the pretext of forming a cordon against the plague.

Russia was so closely engaged with the Turkish war that she was not able to offer any opposition to these movements, and Catharine came to the conclusion that it was better to share her plunder with her powerful neighbors than to quarrel over it with them. In 1772 a treaty was signed between Russia, Austria and Prussia, providing for the partition of a large part of the Polish territories between them. Russia received Polish Livonia and the countries between the upper waters of the Dwina and the Dnieper; Austria the palatinate of Galicia and Lodomiria; Prussia all of Polish Prussia except Dantzic and Thorn, and a large part of Great Poland. The Confederates of Bar having been defeated, the three powers had no trouble in securing their prizes. An army of 30,000 men of the three robber powers advanced into the remaining territories of Poland to overawe the government of that country, and Stanislaus was compelled to summon a diet to confirm the robberies. The other nations of Europe made no effort to save unhappy Poland, and thus one of the greatest wrongs of history was accomplished without opposition. Poland paid the penalty of her failure to advance with the world around her; but the nations which plundered her had no just cause of complaint against her or excuse for their action.

The war between Russia and Turkey

went on until July, 1774, when it was closed by the peace of Kutchuk-Kainardji. By this treaty the sultan received back Moldavia, Wallachia, Georgia, Mingrelia, and some other provinces, Russia reserving certain rights of interference in their affairs. In return for these provinces the sultan acknowledged the independence of the Tartars of the region north of the Black Sea. Russia was given the free navigation of the Black Sea and all Turkish waters. This treaty was only a stepping-stone to Catharine's real design. Frequent controversies occurred respecting the independence of the Tartars, and in 1783 Russia ended them by seizing the Crimea and Little Tartary and annexing them to her empire. The people rose in resistance to this annexation, but were crushed by the military force of Russia. In this revolt 30,000 Tartars perished.

In 1787 a new war broke out between Russia and Turkey, the sultan taking the initiative by attacking the fortress of Kinburn, on the Black Sea, in September. The attack was repulsed. In June, 1788, a great battle was fought between the Russian and Turkish fleets near Oczakoff, in which the Turkish fleet was almost entirely destroyed. Oczakoff was besieged by the Russian army under Prince Potemkin, and was carried by assault after a siege of six months. The loss of life upon this occasion was frightful.

The Emperor Joseph II. now declared war against the sultan as the ally of Russia, but his efforts were so unsuccessful that he soon withdrew from active participation in the struggle. Sweden attacked Russia, in support of her old ally, the sultan, and the Russian fleet, which was about to sail for the Mediterranean, was retained in the Baltic to meet this new danger. Denmark, as the ally of Russia, prepared to invade Sweden, but was compelled, by the intervention of England, Holland, and Prussia, to remain neutral. Prussia now took up the cause of Turkey and attacked Russia. In spite of these efforts of the great powers in his behalf, the sultan lost ground steadily, and fortress after fortress was taken from him by the Russians. In 1790 the internal affairs of Austria compelled her to withdraw from the war. She made peace with Prussia by the convention of Reichenbach in June, 1790, and with Turkey by the treaty of Sistova in August, 1791.



CATHARINE THE GREAT AT THE HEAD OF HER ARMY.

In the campaign of 1790 the Russian forces won a number of brilliant successes. The most important of these were the storming and capture of the strong fortress of Ismail by the Russian army under Suwarof, and the annihilation of the Turkish fleet near Sevastopol in the Black Sea. These successes were almost matched by those won during the summer of 1789. Prussia and Great Britain, alarmed for the fate of Turkey, and fearing lest Russia should become mistress of Constantinople, interfered with energy to compel Russia to make peace. The treaty of Jassy closed the war in January, 1792. By the terms of this treaty the Russian frontier was advanced to the Dneister, which was made the boundary between the two empires.

Catharine the Great died on the 7th of November, 1796, and was succeeded by her son Paul I. He was an eccentric and half-crazy person, and under his weak and vacillating rule Russia paused in her forward career, and her affairs would have fallen into confusion had they not been to a great degree still administered by the men appointed by Catharine. For some time Paul I. held aloof from European affairs. Upon the execution of Louis XVI. Catharine had joined the coalition against France, and in 1798 the Emperor Paul became a party to the second coalition, consisting of Russia, Great Britain, Austria, the Two Sicilies, and Turkey. A Russian army under Suwarof was sent into Italy to aid in the expulsion of the French. Its exploits have been already related. Had not Suwarof, who was given the command of the allied forces, been hampered by the orders of the Aulic Council at Vienna, he would most likely have crushed Moreau. In 1799 a second Russian army under Korsakoff was sent into Switzerland, into which country Suwarof moved to co-operate with it. Korsakoff was defeated by Masséna, as related, and Suwarof was obliged to make his way back into Russia after a severe defeat.

The close of the eighteenth century saw Russia on the high road to civilization and material wealth, and firmly established as one of the leading powers of Europe. The opening of the century had found her with but a single port—that of Archangel; its close saw her the mistress of the eastern shore of the Baltic, and of the northern shore of the Black Sea. At the opening of the century she had scarcely a single war

vessel; at its close she was a strong naval power, with fleets in the Baltic and Black Seas, and her naval annals had been adorned by a number of brilliant victories.

The defeat of his armies in Italy and Switzerland caused the Emperor Paul to withdraw from the coalition against Napoleon. He constituted himself Grand-Master of the Knights of St. John, and demanded the surrender of Malta to that order by England. In December, 1800, he revived the armed neutrality of 1780 by a coalition of Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Prussia, in defence of the rights of neutrals. Paul I. was a madman, and under him Russia could hardly be said to have any definite policy. His mad and reckless acts arrayed a powerful body of Russian nobles against him, and on the 23d of March, 1801, he was murdered by them.

Alexander I., Paul's eldest son, a promising young man of twenty-five, became czar by the death of his father. He remained at peace with France until 1805, when he yielded to the persuasions of England, and joined the alliance of Austria and Great Britain against France. The victory of Napoleon over the Austro-Russian army at Austerlitz compelled the czar to withdraw into his own dominions. After the battle of Jena and the conquest of Prussia, Napoleon advanced against the Russians, and attacked them at Eyléau on the 8th of February, 1807. He was unsuccessful, but won a great victory over them at Friedland on the 14th of May.

The czar now asked for peace, and an interview was held between the two sovereigns on a raft moored in the Niemen at Tilsit. The terms of the treaty negotiated here have been related in the French history of this period. Alexander was greatly won by the brilliant qualities of Napoleon, and from an enemy became a friend to France. The two emperors hoped to share the European continent between them, and Alexander was confident of ultimately obtaining the assistance of France in his efforts to carry out the traditional policy of his house of driving the Turks out of Europe.

For six years Russia and France remained at peace with each other, and during this time Russia became involved in a war with Sweden, and wrested all of Finland from her in 1808. This contest was followed by a war with Turkey, by which the Russian frontier was advanced to the mouth

ALEXANDER I.

NICHOLAS I.



of the Danube. At the same time a war with Persia broke out, and was prosecuted successfully. Persia was compelled to surrender to Russia a considerable area of her territory lying between the Black and the Caspian Seas.

The determination of Napoleon to enforce his continental system without regard to the interests of other nations, and his disregard of the rights of the other princes of Europe, at length broke up, as we have seen, the friendship between France and Russia. A series of bitter disputes grew out of the acts of the French emperor, and at length the unjust seizure of Swedish Pomerania by Napoleon induced Alexander in 1812 to answer the appeal of Sweden by a declaration of war against France. We have related the events of the invasion of Russia by Napoleon, his disastrous retreat, and the part taken by Russia in the overthrow of the French emperor, and need not repeat them here. In the arrangement of the general peace which followed the fall of Napoleon, the influence of Russia was all-powerful, and was cast in favor of the restoration of absolute rule throughout Europe. At the instance of the czar, the league known as the "Holy Alliance" was organized by Russia, Austria, and Prussia, to prevent any change in the iniquitous settlement arranged by the Congress of Vienna. The czar was a great gainer by this settlement. The grand duchy of Warsaw, which had been formed by Napoleon out of the Polish provinces of Prussia, and to which he had added the Polish territory gained by Austria in the last partition, was taken from the King of Saxony, upon whom Napoleon had bestowed it. The grand duchy of Posen was restored to Prussia, and the remainder was erected into the kingdom of Poland. This kingdom was given an independent constitution, and was annexed to Russia as a separate state under the rule of the czar.

Alexander was greatly annoyed during his latter years by the plots of conspirators who wished to introduce a more liberal system into Russia. He died during a visit to the Crimea, on the 1st of December, 1825, at the early age of forty-nine.

Immediately upon the death of Alexander, the Grand Duke Constantine, the second son of the Czar Paul I., and the legal successor of his brother Alexander, despatched his younger brother Michael from Warsaw to his brother, the Grand Duke

Nicholas, with a letter containing a formal confirmation of the act of 1822, by which Constantine had resigned his claims to the throne in favor of Nicholas. Nicholas was at once proclaimed emperor, and an insurrection immediately broke out at St. Petersburg, caused by the popular fear that Constantine had been unjustly excluded from his rightful inheritance. Nicholas placed himself at the head of his troops, and in a few hours crushed the outbreak and restored order. On the 24th of December, 1825, he was crowned Czar of all the Russias. The new czar was a strikingly handsome man, and was during his life the chief strength of absolutism in Europe.

In 1828 a war broke out between Russia and Turkey, by which Russia gained some advantages at the mouth of the Danube, and compelled Turkey to make some concessions to her Christian subjects.

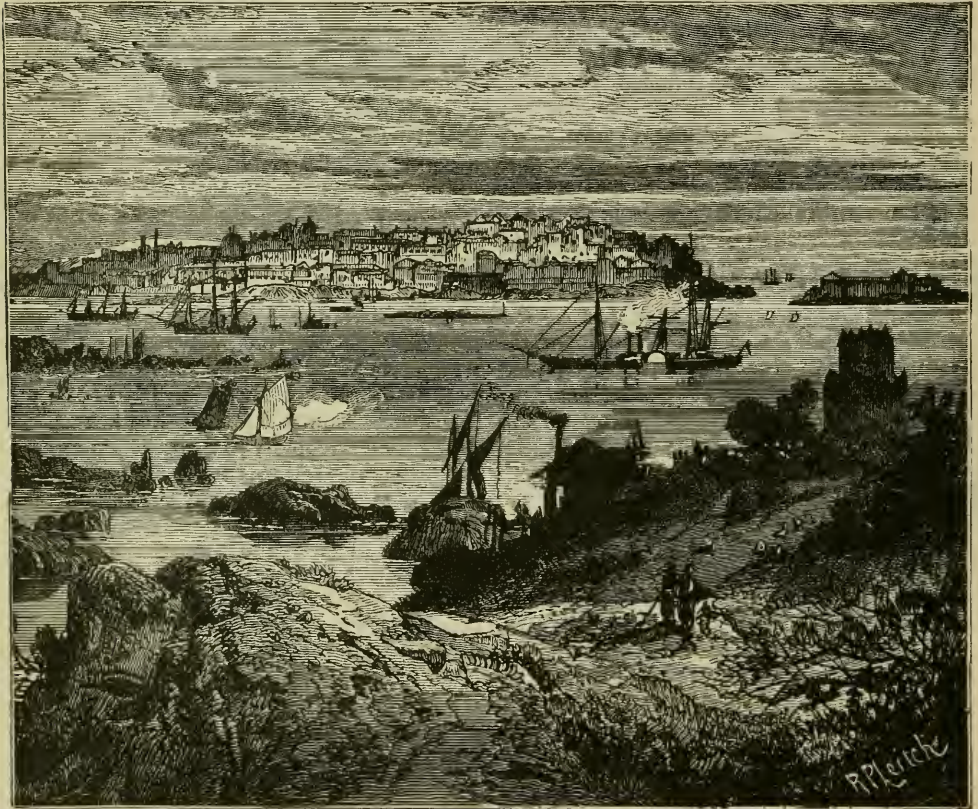
The union of Poland with Russia was but a prelude to the destruction of the independence of the latter country. The rights of Poland were treated with but little consideration by the gigantic despotism to which she was attached, and the Grand Duke Constantine, who administered the Polish government for his brothers Alexander and Nicholas, treated the Poles with such harshness that their patience was at length exhausted. In November, 1830, the Poles rose in insurrection, and were joined by the Polish regiments in the Russian army and by many of the great nobles. Prince Adam Czartoryski, who was descended from the ancient Dukes of Lithuania, led the movement, and was to be made king in the event of the success of the revolt. In the hope of conciliating the great powers of Europe, it was resolved to establish a constitutional and hereditary monarchy. The struggle lasted several months, and was maintained by the Poles with a heroism which won them the admiration of the world. It was in vain, however. The overwhelming power of Russia was fatal to the Polish cause. The revolt was crushed with great cruelty, the kingdom of Poland was declared at an end, and the country became a mere province of the Russian empire. The czar then proceeded to punish the Poles with terrible severity. Eighty thousand Poles, of both sexes, were exiled to Siberia in a single year. Children of insurgent parents were seized and sent to military colonies. The Polish troops were enrolled in the Russian regiments; the Ro-

man Catholic religion, which was the national faith of Poland, was replaced by the Greek Church of Russia; the University of Warsaw was destroyed; the national archives, the libraries, and scientific collections were conveyed to St. Petersburg, and every effort was made to blot out the national existence of Poland.

In 1839 Russia aided Turkey to stay the progress of Mehemet Ali, the enterprising Viceroy of Egypt, and his son Ibrahim Pasha, who had overrun Syria, and were

render of the Hungarian leaders who had escaped into the Turkish territory; but the demand was refused by the sultan.

In 1851 difficulties began to occur between the Greek Christians of Syria and the government of the sultan. In that country the Greek clergy had long enjoyed great monopolies, and had had precedence over the Latin Christians. Nicholas, who had long meditated the design of destroying the Turkish power in Europe and adding its dominions to his own empire, determined



SWEABORG.

threatening the European possessions of Turkey. It did not suit the interests of Russia that a more vigorous government should be set up in Constantinople.

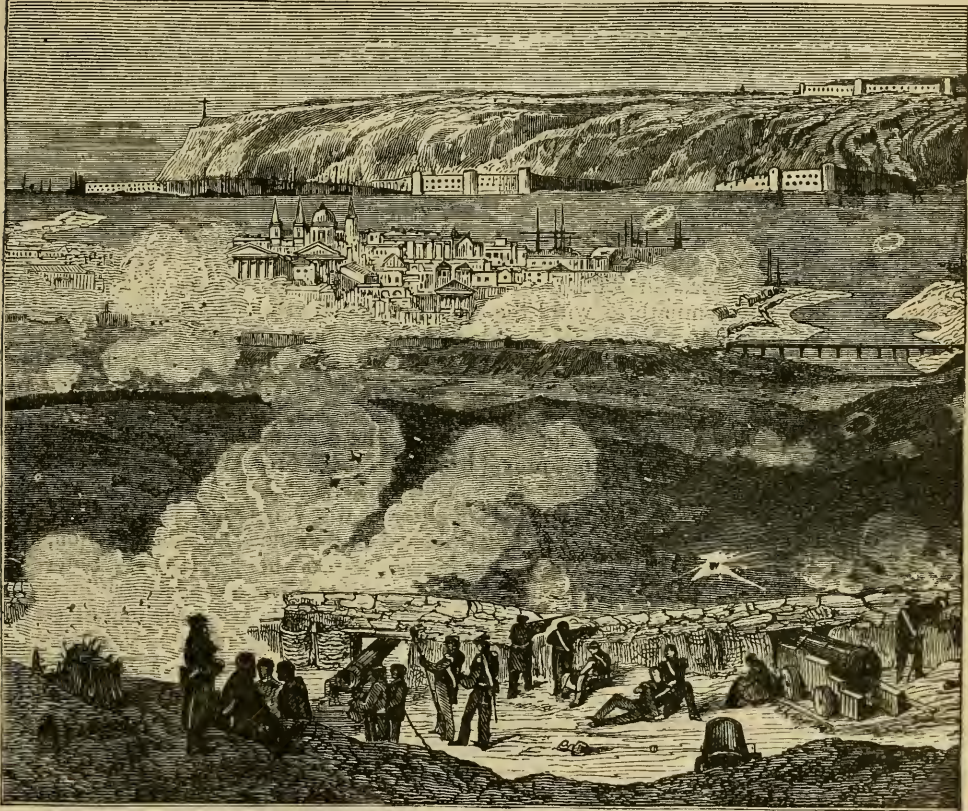
The Revolution of 1848 greatly alarmed the Emperor Nicholas, who recognized it as the death-knell of European despotism. He readily granted the request of Austria for aid against her revolted Hungarian subjects, and, as we have seen, sent a powerful army into Hungary in 1849, and crushed the revolt. He then demanded the sur-

to make these troubles the occasion of intervening in the affairs of Turkey in such a manner as to give him a paramount influence in the Ottoman empire. Fortunately for Turkey, the English ambassador, Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, a statesman of unusual ability, penetrated the designs of the czar, and exerted himself to prevent a rupture between the two powers. He was successful, and the trouble was settled for a while.

In 1853 Nicholas renewed his interfer-

ence in Turkish affairs, and this time made secret proposals to Great Britain to join him in sharing the spoils of the "sick man" of Turkey. His proposal was firmly declined by Great Britain, but, undismayed by this, the czar made such extravagant demands of the sultan that had they been granted, the Emperor of Russia would have become the real sovereign of the Greek Christians throughout the Turkish empire. These constituted a large majority of the people of European Turkey, and Nicholas

bian provinces by a Russian army. Great Britain and France then made an alliance with Turkey, and declared war against Russia. The events of the Crimean war are related in our account of the French history of this period, to which the reader is referred. The heroic defence of Sevastopol could not atone for the disasters of the war, under the weight of which the Emperor Nicholas sank. On the 2d of March, 1855, he died suddenly in the fifty-ninth year of his age.



SEVASTOPOL DURING THE BOMBARDMENT.

was aware that if he could once establish his authority over them, they would render him a hearty support in his designs against the porte. The Turkish government was greatly alarmed by this demand, which was made in a most insulting manner, and but for the encouragement of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, who induced the porte to resist and assured it of the support of Great Britain, the sultan would have yielded. The refusal of the Russian demand by Turkey was followed by an invasion of the Danu-

Alexander II., the eldest son of Nicholas, succeeded his father on the throne, and still occupies it. Towards the close of the year, Sevastopol having fallen, negotiations for peace were begun, and on the 30th of March, 1856, the war was brought to an end by the treaty of Paris. The terms of this treaty have been stated in our account of the Crimean war.

Alexander II. pursued a different course from that of his father. He began his reign with the determination to complete

the work of civilization commenced in Russia by Peter the Great, and his efforts were given entirely to the reform of the old Russian system. In these efforts he had to encounter the opposition of the old Russian or conservative party, but he persevered, and under him Russia entered upon a new period of her career. The principal event of his reign was the abolition of serfdom or white slavery in the Russian dominions, which was begun in 1858, and completed in 1863, by which 20,000,000 of serfs were released from bondage. The emperor steadfastly encouraged the freed serfs to acquire property, aided them in doing so, and endeavored to establish a system of schools among them which he hoped would in time change their character for the better, and give to Russia an intelligent and industrious peasantry in the place of the former degraded and discontented slaves.

Another wise reform of Alexander was the admission of the Jews to civil privileges and equality before the law in 1862.

The czar did not sympathize with the harsh measures of which Poland had been the victim during his father's reign, and was anxious to embrace that province in his reforms. In 1861 and 1862 he inaugurated a number of reforms in Poland, and might in time have rendered that province satisfied with Russian rule; but the cruelty with which Nicholas had treated them had made the Poles distrustful of his son, and the discontent increased instead of diminishing. Alexander, alarmed at this, put a stop to his reforms and resorted to severe repressive measures. In January, 1863, an attempt was made to enroll the able-bodied Poles in the Russian army, in order to prevent them from taking part in the outbreak which seemed imminent. This harsh measure brought on the struggle it was intended to prevent. War broke out at once. The insurrection was directed by a secret government at Warsaw, which managed to elude all the efforts of the Russians for its discovery. Its orders were obeyed unhesitatingly by the Poles, who were cheered in their efforts for freedom by the sympathy of the civilized world. In February, 1863, an agreement was entered into between Russia and Prussia, by which the latter power agreed to assist in the suppression of the revolt. The outbreak was put down after a gallant resistance in the course of a few months. France endeavored to obtain for the Poles a mitiga-

tion of their hard lot, but Russia refused to allow any interference on their behalf, and adopted the most severe measures in the settlement of the trouble. In 1864, 1865, and 1866 these measures were put in force. The use of the Polish language was forbidden in the schools of that country, and Russian was substituted in its place. Russia was resolved that the very name of Poland should be blotted from the map, and in 1868 Poland ceased to exist and was entirely absorbed in the empire.

In 1867 Russia sold her American possessions to the United States.

Russia remained neutral in the war between France and Germany in 1870, but availed herself of the crippled condition of France to demand of the great powers a modification of the treaty of Paris of 1856, by which Russia was forbidden to establish military or naval depots on the Black Sea, or to keep a fleet in those waters. She pressed her demand with firmness, as we have related in the *History of Turkey*, and in 1871 the treaty of Paris was abrogated by a conference of the great powers at London. Thus one of the losses entailed upon Russia by the Crimean war was repaired.

Since the destruction of the Tartar power by the Czars of Moscow Russia has steadily pushed her conquests eastward. At first her object was vengeance upon the people that had so long held her in subjection, and the increase of her territory. Later on these conquests became necessary in order to provide a market for the manufactures of Russia, which, being of a very inferior quality, had no sale in Europe. The steppes or prairies which lay between the Ural and the Irtysh were inhabited by small tribes of wandering Kirghiz. These tribes, when at peace among themselves, united in attacking the Russian frontier, and compelled Russia to push them back into the interior of the steppes. For two centuries this irregular warfare went on; but at length, in the reign of the Czar Nicholas, the steppes beyond the Ural became Russian territory, and some outpost settlements were established, not only on the steppes, but beyond them on the banks of the Sir Darya. The most important of these was Fort Perovsky, on the shore of the Sea of Aral. Under its protection Russia was enabled to launch two steamers on the Sea of Aral, and to navigate not only that sea, but a part of the Sir Darya.

These advances were steadfastly opposed by the Khan of Khokan and the Emir of Bokhara, whose united forces repeatedly attacked the most advanced of the Russian outposts. In order to strengthen its position and put a stop to these attacks, the Russian government determined to construct a new line of outposts along the Sir Darya to the foot of the Thian-shan mountains and the Lake of Issik-kul. The Crimean war prevented the execution of this measure, but it was resumed in 1860, when Forts Viernoje and Kastek were constructed at the foot of the Thian-shan range. In 1863 two strong detachments were pushed forward farther into central Asia, and the Khokan fortresses of Pishpek and Tokmak and Yeni Kurgan were occupied. In June, 1864, the detachment under Colonel Verefkin took Hazret-i-Turkestan; and about the same time the western detachment under Colonel Tcherniayeff captured the fort of Auliet. In October the united detachments, under Colonel Tcherniayeff, entered Tchemkend.

Russia had now pushed her conquests as far eastward as she intended for the present, and the Russian commander had orders to rest satisfied with what he had accomplished, and to secure the territory already occupied. This was rendered impossible, however, by the conduct of the Khans of Bokhara and Khokan, and, at a later period, of Khiva. These potentates, alarmed by the proximity of the Russian outposts to their dominions, commenced a series of formidable attacks upon these outposts, which compelled the Russian commanders, for their own safety, to push their advance farther eastward, and finally resulted in the conquest of the territories of the khans. In 1865 Tashkend was taken by the Russians, and Khojend fell into their hands in 1866. General Kaufmann, in 1868, captured Samarcand, and in 1873 defeated the Khan of Khiva and overran a large part of his dominions. In September, 1875, he inflicted a second defeat upon the Khan of Khiva and took the city of Khokan. The Khan of Khiva was compelled to cede to Russia the entire eastern coast of the Caspian Sea, an important military gain for Russia, since it enabled her to maintain constant and uninterrupted communication with her advanced positions by river, rail, and sea from St. Petersburg. Early in the year 1876 the conquest of Khokan was completed by the Russian

forces, and the territory of that khannate was annexed to Russia by an imperial decree, and organized as a Russian province under the name of the province of Fergana. By this annexation Russia gained an addition of 28,270 square miles to her territory, and 960,000 souls to her population.

Since the period of the Crimean war the Greek Christians of the Danubian provinces of Turkey had regarded Russia as a sort of protector of their religious rights, and the Russian people had felt the keenest sympathy for them. It was natural, therefore, when the people of Herzegovina rose in revolt against the tyranny of the Turks in the summer of 1875, that the sympathy of the Russian people should be outspoken and intense. The barbarity with which the Turks sought to put down this outbreak but increased this feeling, and the government was compelled to take decisive steps to restrain it within proper boundaries. The czar, as we have seen in our account of the *History of Turkey*, joined cordially in the efforts that were made to secure peace and protect the rights of the Christian subjects of Turkey. His government united in the Andrassy and Berlin notes, and by repeated warnings through its minister at Constantinople endeavored to bring about the desired result, but was at every step met and baffled by the obstinacy of the porte. Russia earnestly sought to induce the European powers to make common cause in compelling the porte to grant the reforms demanded not only by the best interests of the Ottoman empire, but by the simplest dictates of justice and humanity, but at the same time declared her intention to act independently of the powers if necessary. The steps taken by Russia and the other powers in this connection have been related in our account of the Turkish history of this period, and need not be repeated here.

The Bulgarian massacres sent a thrill of horror and indignation throughout Europe, and from all quarters of the Russian empire there was an outspoken demand that the czar should actively intervene in behalf of the suffering Christians. The government firmly resisted this pressure upon it, and even went to the length of suppressing several newspapers which had become noted for their extreme utterances. The popular sentiment was too strong to be silenced, however, and the government was

compelled to abandon its prosecution of the press. The agitation in Russia became so violent that the government was obliged to consent to the enlistment of large numbers of officers and volunteers in the Servian army. This it did on condition that they should quit the Russian service.

In September, 1876, the czar visited the Crimea, where he remained two months. During this period he gave orders for strengthening the fortifications of the Crimean coast, from Sevastopol to Kertch, and for the establishment of additional

same cannot be said of the Servians, notwithstanding the assistance of our volunteers, many of whom shed their blood for the Slavonic cause. I know that all Russia joins me in warmly sympathizing in the sufferings of our brethren and co-religionists. The true interests of Russia are, however, dearer to me than all. My wish to the uttermost is to spare Russian blood. Therefore I have striven, and will strive, to obtain a real improvement of the position of the Christians by peaceful means. In a few days negotiations will commence at

Constantinople. My most ardent wish is that we may arrive at a general agreement. Should this, however, not be achieved, and should I see that we cannot obtain guarantees necessary for carrying out what we intend to demand from the porte, I am firmly determined to act independently. I am convinced that the whole of Russia will respond to my summons should I consider it necessary and Russia's honor require it. Moscow will lead the van by its example. May God help us to carry out our sacred mission."

This speech was received with enthusiasm throughout Russia. Town councils, diets, trade associations, merchants' guilds, the clergy—all classes, declared their readiness to sup-



ALEXANDER II.

posts. On his return from the Crimea the czar made a brief visit to Moscow. While there he was waited upon by a deputation of citizens, and to their address made the following reply:

"I thank you for your sentiments respecting the political situation, which is now more clearly defined than before. You know that Turkey has yielded to my demand for an immediate armistice, to end the useless slaughter in Servia and Montenegro. In this unequal struggle the Montenegrins, as heretofore, have shown themselves real heroes. Unfortunately the

port the czar in any measures he might deem necessary for the honor of the country and the welfare of their co-religionists. The speech was also regarded throughout Europe as deeply significant, and was looked upon as a reply to the threat of the British government, which we have related elsewhere.

Though sincerely anxious for peace, the czar was convinced that war with Turkey was inevitable, and early in November issued orders for the mobilization of the army, and appointing a day for calling recruits from all parts of the empire, except

Siberia, Archangel, and Orenburg. Six army corps were ordered to assemble in the provinces of Odessa, Kharkov, and Kiev, the region nearest the Turkish frontier. At the same time Prince Gortchakoff, the Russian prime minister, in a circular addressed to the Russian representatives at foreign courts, explained the policy of his government. "The czar," he said, "does not wish war, and will, if possible, avoid it. He is, however, determined that the principles of justice which have been recognized by the whole of Europe shall be carried out in Turkey under efficacious guarantees." The czar, while pressing his military preparations with energy, did not relax his

preserve peace having failed through the obstinacy of the porte, the czar, on the 24th of April, 1877, declared war against Turkey, and ordered his armies to cross the frontier. This order was issued from Kischenev, to which place the emperor had repaired in order to be with his troops in the advance into Turkey.

In commencing the war with Turkey Russia had to rely entirely upon her own military and financial resources for its prosecution. It will be well to glance at these for a moment. The *United Service Magazine*, at the beginning of 1877, stated the actual strength of the Russian army as follows:



COSSACKS AT RIFLE PRACTICE.

efforts to secure peace. These efforts, up to the failure of the conference at Constantinople, and the rejection of the protocol by the porte, have been related in our *History of Turkey*.

In the meantime the concentration of troops on the Turkish European frontier was carried on with energy. The headquarters of this army were established at Kischenev, and the command was conferred upon the Grand Duke Nicholas, the brother of the czar. Another force was concentrated on the frontier of Armenia, and placed under the command of the Grand Duke Michael, another brother of the czar. The head-quarters of this army were at Tifis, in Georgia. All efforts to

Infantry, 682 battalions.....	679,000
Reserve, 168 "	168,000
Cavalry, 932 regiments.....	126,000
Artillery, 346 batteries, 2,672 pieces....	87,000
Sappers, engineers, etc., 17 battalions.	14,340

Total.....1,074,340

To these must be added, at least, for
Cossack irregulars..... 100,000

Total.....1,174,340

By calling out the reserves this force could be increased to two millions of men. Of course, of the number given above, large bodies were needed in the various provinces of the empire, especially in the disaffected districts, such as Poland, the Caucasus, etc., for garrison and police duty. This left between 500,000 and 600,000 for

active service in the war. The army was well disciplined and clothed, and was armed with breech-loading rifles.

Having been forbidden by the treaty of Paris to maintain a naval force in the Black Sea, Russia was not able to undertake any operations in that sea. Her naval stations were confined to the Baltic, the White and Caspian Seas. In March, 1876, her navy numbered seventy-seven vessels, of which twenty-five were iron-clads.

On the 1st of January, 1876, the public debt of Russia was 2,515,393,480 roubles, or \$1,852,208,915. Since then the Russian government has negotiated two loans—one a foreign loan uncertain in amount, the other a home loan amounting to \$54,750,000.

The Turkish army was undergoing the process of reorganization at the time of the breaking out of the war. It consists of 720,000 men, divided into a regular army of 220,000 men; a first reserve of 80,000 men, a second reserve, and a sedentary army corresponding to the German *Landsturm*. There is also an irregular force of about 50,000 men, consisting of the gendarmes, Bashi-Bazouks, Spahis, Bedawin, and other volunteer corps. The provinces and tributary states furnish about 80,000 men. Deducting the forces required for home duty, Turkey was not able to bring into the field at the outset of the war more than 400,000 men. These were poorly clad and fed, but were armed with the American breech-loading rifle, and the artillery consisted largely of the Krupp breech-loading steel gun.

The Turkish navy was greatly superior to that of Russia. It consisted of 150 steamers, twenty of which were iron-clads, seven of the latter being frigates. Having command of the Black Sea through this navy, the Turks enjoyed a very decided advantage over their adversaries along its shores.

The finances of Turkey were, as we have seen, in a hopelessly bad condition. The national debt exceeded \$1,075,000,000, of which between seven and eight hundred millions were held in Great Britain. On this debt the porte stopped paying interest, as we have stated, in October, 1875. The sultan had the power to increase his resources by proclaiming the struggle a holy war, and calling upon the mosques to contribute towards its support. The treasures of the Kaaba at Mecca alone are estimated at over fifty millions of dollars.

The task before the Russian commanders at the opening of the war was one of ex-

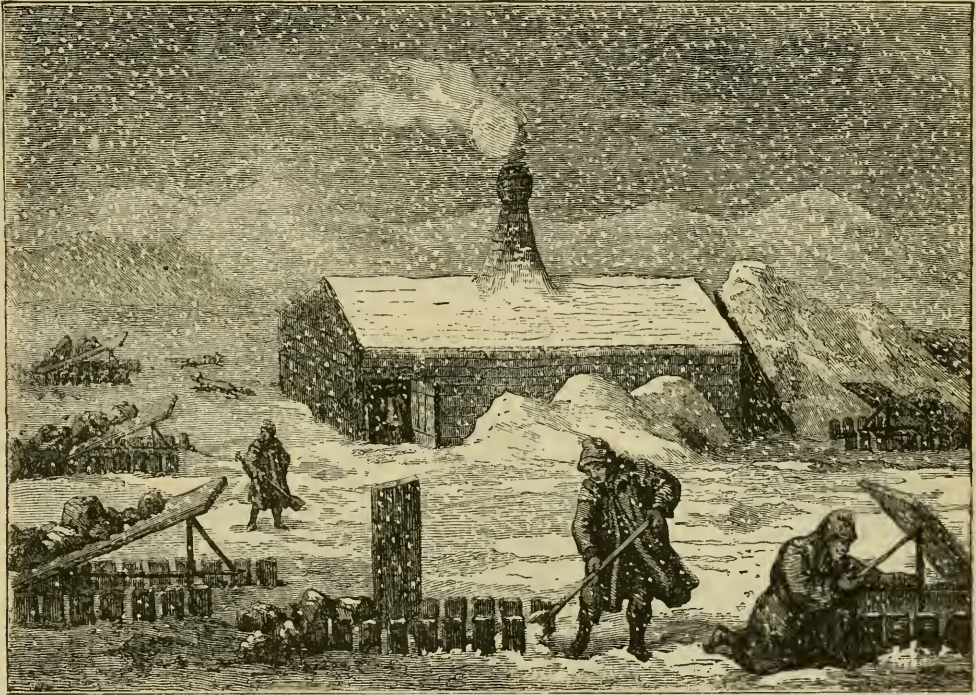
traordinary magnitude. The Turkish empire was to be invaded from two quarters—from the line of the Danube, in Europe, and from the Caucasus, in Asia Minor. The two invasions were to support each other as near as possible. We shall call the attention of the reader first to the events of the war in Asia Minor.

The army of the Caucasus, under the Grand Duke Michael, numbered about 150,000 men, and 168 guns, and was posted along the frontier of Armenia from Tiflis to Erivan. The country in which it was to operate is mountainous. "It will only be practicable to give a clear idea of its main features, so that the general movements of the campaign may be understood. From a point on the Black Sea, south of Poti, commences a range which extends a little south of east to the vicinity of Akhaltzik, and thence keeps on northeast until it unites with the main Caucasus range at Mount Velicti. The principal river of the basin thus formed is the Rion, which empties into the Black Sea at or very near Poti, where the railway to Tiflis commences, and extends up the valley of the river, crossing the range just described near a little place called Suram. Kutais is the principal town in this basin, and is on a branch of the Rion. North of the latter is the Ingour river, and still farther north the Kodor. . . . Near where the range last described turns to the northeast in the vicinity of Akhaltzik, and separated from it by the valley of the Kur, the Allaghez range commences, and extends southeast to the Blue lake and beyond, uniting finally with the Ararat chain south of the Araxes. Between the Caucasus range and that of Allaghez is the great valley of the Kur, in which Tiflis is situated. . . . The chain of Ararat begins on the Black Sea, near Fort St. Nicholas, and extends nearly east until it reaches a point some twenty miles west of Akhaltzik, and thus far its crest forms the boundary line between Russia and Turkey. Thence the range turns south until it reaches a point some forty miles south of Erzeroum, where it turns nearly northeast to the vicinity of Kagazmin, thence south of east to Mount Ararat, whence it follows the right bank of the Araxes for some distance, and then on to the Caspian. The region between the Allaghez and Ararat ranges, together with the western and southern slopes of the latter, make up the theatre of the operations now in progress."

The roads of this region are of the highest importance, and a knowledge of them is necessary to a correct understanding of the events of the campaign. We quote from the description of General McClellan, from which the extracts given above are taken: "The coast-road from Fort St. Nicholas to Batoum is practicable for wagons; beyond that point to Trebizonde it is a mere path. The road from Akbalzik to Ardahan, sixty-five miles, winds through gently undulating and wooded hills until the Ulgar Pass is reached, about half-way to Ardahan; here there is a steep

responding part of the Ararat range and spurs. These passes, and the mountains near by, are covered with dense forests of oak and pine, so thick that the snow remains late in the summer. They are intersected by rocky valleys with marshy bottoms.

"From Alexandropol to Kars is about forty-three miles by way of Kniss; from Kars to Kotanli is seventeen miles. From the latter point two roads lead across the Saganlugh and reunite near an old stone bridge over the Araxes at Kerpi-Kev, or Kopri-Koi; this is a well-preserved bridge



SIBERIAN WINTER SCENE.

ascent; hence to Ardahan and beyond the descent is easier. From Ardahan to Erzeroum, by way of Dadaschin, the Karatschli Pass, Olti, and Noriman, is 122 miles. The Karatschli Pass leads over the main Ararat range, from the valley of the Kur to that of Tchorokh; there are some steep places in this pass, but affords the best communication with Erzeroum, and is preferred by the inhabitants to the Saganlugh. It may be well to state that the portion of the Ararat range near the Karatschli Pass sometimes receives the name of the Karatschli Mountains, while the Saganlugh Pass, or rather passes, give their name to the cor-

of seven arches, attributed by tradition to Darius Hystaspes.

"The Saganlugh forests, already alluded to, extend from the Kotanli base to the castle of Zevin, and from seven to fifteen miles on either side of the two roads. Deep and difficult ravines afford good positions of defence at almost every step.

"The left-hand road, called the Medjinherte road, first traverses Aspuga and the gorges of Delli-Musa-Perun, thence following the banks of the Khami torrent, it passes by the villages of Sarakamish, the gorges of Milli-Duz, the castle of Medjinherte, and the village of Khorasan to

Kerpi-Kev, fifty-four miles. The right hand, or Zevin, road passes through the villages of Kekutsch, Tehirikli, Kijil-Killissi, the castles of Zevin and Zaghiu, and the village of Ardost, seventy miles.

"From Kerpi-Kev to Hassan-Kalé is ten miles, thence to Erzeroum twenty-seven miles, making from Kars to Erzeroum 108 miles by Medjingherte, and 124 miles by Zevin. From Kars to the foot of the Saganlugh the country is not difficult, and over the mountain passes the difficulty in former times was less from the steepness of the slopes than from the marshes in the valleys, and the rocks and trees which narrowed the way; these difficulties have probably been somewhat lessened of late years.

"From Ahalkalahi there is a mountain road to Kars over the Ghegh-Dagh, fifty-two miles. From Ardahan to Kars there is a good road, fifty miles.

"From Sardar-Abad, near Erivan, there are two good roads to Kars—one by Ketcheranka and Subotan, eighty miles; the other by Kaghizman, ninety-three miles. From Kaghizman there is a mountain-road by Getschevan to Hassan-Kalé.

"From Erivan one road by Katchi Gheduk, forty-three miles, and another by Zer-Gheduk, sixty-two miles, unite at Bayazeth; these roads are good, but lack wood and supplies. Through Bayazeth passes the great road from Tebriz to Constantinople, passing through Dijadin and Toprakh-Kalé, over the ridges of the Kosh-Dagh, and through Deli-Baba to Hassan-Kalé and Erzeroum, 107 miles from Bayazeth. There is also a road from Toprakh-Kalé, through Melisgherd, Kniss, Mount Brigol, and Kuli to Erzeroum; from Kniss a branch leads to Musch; these are good roads, with abundance of wood, water and forage.

"From Erzeroum to Trebizonde, by Baiburt and Gumisch-Khan, is about one hundred and eighty miles; this road has long been a good one to Baiburt, but beyond was formerly very difficult even for pack-animals; it is probably in a better condition now. From Erzeroum by Baiburt and Kara-Hissar to Sivas, two hundred and sixty-six miles; or, by Erzingan, two hundred miles; both of these are good wagon roads, and traverse a fertile and well-peopled country. The caravan route to Sivas passes through Ach-Kalé and Kilkil-Tchiffilis, but is inferior to the other roads. About eighty miles from Sivas, at the village of Anduas, a road turns off to Tokat, eighty-

seven miles, and thence to Samsun, one hundred and fifteen miles; this road is said to be practicable for wagons. There is also a road leading up the valley of the Tchorokh from Batoum, through Artwin, Kiskin and Ispira to Baiburt. Near Kiskin this road sends off a branch to Olti, and a little higher up the valley two branches to the southeast, which, near Gertum, intersect the direct road from Ardahan, through Olti, to Erzeroum, and by another parallel branch communicate directly with Erzeroum.

"The southern shore of the Black Sea is skirted by one or more parallel coast ranges; the interior is made up of mountains, valleys, and lofty plateaus, but nowhere west of Erzeroum are the difficulties in the way of an army so great as east of that point, and the country furnishes large amounts of supplies."

The fortified places in Armenia are Kars, Batoum, Ardahan, Bayazeth, Erzeroum, Toprakh-Kalé, Hassan-Kalé, Artwin and Olti. The key to the whole country, and the principal objective point of the Russian movements, was the fortified city of Kars.

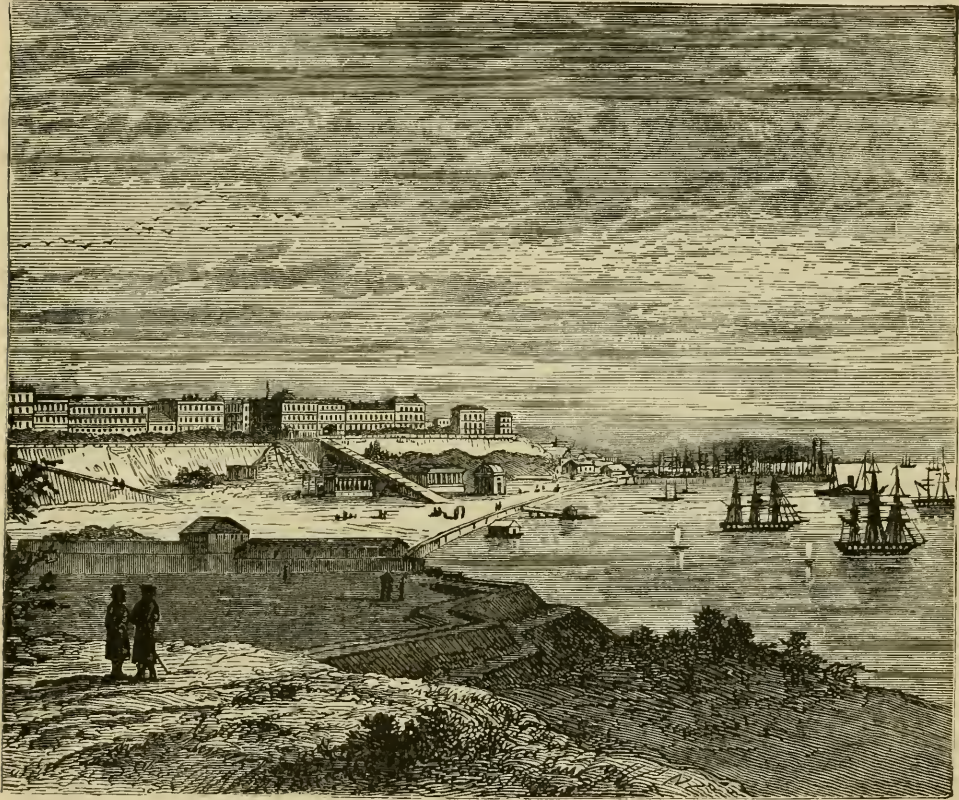
To meet the invasion of the Russians the Turks had collected an army but little inferior in numbers to their adversaries close to their frontier. Kars and Ardahan were held by good-sized garrisons, and the remainder of the Turkish forces were disposed so as to cover Kars and Erzeroum. The chief command was held by Mukhtar Pasha, a general of skill and experience.

The advance of the Russian army was begun on the day previous to the declaration of war. On the 23d of April three Russian columns crossed the frontier. The right wing moved from Poti upon Batoum; the centre, or main army, from Alexandropol upon Kars; and the left wing from Erivan upon Bayazeth. The task assigned to the right wing was to cut off the communication between Batoum and the interior, and prevent reinforcements approaching Kars from the sea in that quarter. This was successfully accomplished. The left wing was equally fortunate in the task assigned it. Under the command of General Tergukasoff it carried Bayazeth on the 26th, without firing a shot. The advance of the centre, being opposed by the main body of the Turks, was slower; but, overcoming all obstacles, it moved steadily upon Kars. Fearing that his retreat to Erze-

roum would be cut off, Mukhtar Pasha left a force of twenty-nine battalions and eight batteries in Kars, and retired in good order, closely followed by the Russians to the Hornkiar Dooz plateau, on the Saganlugh range. General Melikoff, commanding the central army, now put an end to the pursuit, and marched to Kars. Leaving the bulk of his forces before that place, he hastened to Ardahan with the remainder. On the 14th of May he opened fire upon that town, and on the 16th carried it by

the centre was before Kars, with its cavalry patrols advanced to Vezinvaisin; and the left was at Utsch-Kilissa, with its advanced guard near Toprakh-Kalé. The Turkish right was posted in front of Deli-Baba, with its advanced guard at Toprakh-Kalé; the centre was posted in a strong position in the Saganlugh, near Zevin; and the left was in rear of Olti.

Early in June the Russian left wing was advanced, and Mukhtar Pasha ordered Mehemet Pasha, the commander of the



ODESSA, THE PRINCIPAL PORT OF RUSSIA ON THE BLACK SEA.

assault. Placing a strong garrison in the captured fortress he returned to Kars and began the erection of siege batteries. These were pushed forward rapidly, and about the 26th of May the bombardment of Kars was begun.

At the end of May the position of the two armies was as follows: the Russian right wing, now separated from the active army by the nature of its service, was threatening Batoum. The right wing of the active army was in small force at Olti;

Turkish right wing, to fall back, intrench, and hold the Deli-Baba Pass. About this time the Turkish army was strongly reinforced.

Mukhtar now learned that the Russian right and left wings were much weaker than he had supposed, and resolved to attack them in succession. He rapidly reinforced his left wing, and brought it to a strength of eleven battalions of infantry, three regiments of cavalry, and six mountain guns, and threw it forward towards

Olti. The Russian force opposed to the Turkish left consisted of three battalions of infantry, and a small force of cavalry and artillery. It fell back, without offering any resistance, to the Kanly mountains, and on the 7th of June the Turks reoccupied Olti.

The Russian left, under General Tergukasoff, continued to advance, and on the 9th of June occupied Zaidikhan, at the foot of the Kosch passes. Mukhtar, encouraged by the retreat of the Russian right from Olti, now reinforced his right at Deli-Baba until it numbered seventeen battalions of infantry, three batteries of artillery, and about 800 cavalry. He then ordered Mehemet Pasha to drive the Russians from Zaidikhan. General Tergukasoff was promptly informed of the movement against him, and, without awaiting the Turkish advance, marched out of Zaidikhan to meet the enemy. His force was inferior to that of his adversary in infantry, but was superior to it in cavalry and artillery. On the 16th the Russians attacked the Turks at Taghir and completely routed them. The victors at once pressed on and occupied the passes. Here they were compelled to halt, as they were not strong enough to continue the pursuit farther. Another division, says a competent authority, "would have enabled them to seize Kopri-Koi and co-operate with the attack made upon Zevin by the centre a few days later."

While these movements were in progress Bayazeth was captured by a Turkish force approaching from Lake Van. The small Russian garrison retired to the citadel, which was at once invested by the Turks.

In the meantime Mukhtar Pasha, upon learning of the defeat of his right wing at Taghir, rapidly reinforced it and brought it to a strength of nineteen battalions, twenty pieces of artillery, and twenty-five hundred cavalry. Then, placing himself at the head of this force, he advanced to attack the Russian left, which consisted of ten battalions, about fifteen pieces of artillery, and a small force of cavalry. On the 21st of June Mukhtar attacked the Russian position with great energy, but was repulsed with heavy loss. During the night the Russians fell back to Zaidikhan, from which point they continued their retreat without serious molestation to Igdyr, a town within their own territory and about thirty miles southwest of Erivan. General Tergukasoff, having replenished his sup-

plies, at once moved upon Bayazeth. On the 12th of July he attacked the Turkish investing force, thirteen thousand strong, and routed it. The gallant little garrison was rescued from its dangerous position, and the Russians retired leisurely to Igdyr.

The Russian centre, under General Melikoff, had, during all this time, kept up the bombardment of Kars, but without accomplishing anything definite. Late in June, leaving a strong force to continue the siege, Melikoff moved with the rest of his army towards the Saganlugh, with the intention of forcing that position, after which he intended to form a junction with Tergukasoff at Kopri-Koi and advance upon Erzeroum direct. On the 25th of June he found his progress barred by the Turkish forces under Faizi Pasha at Zevin-Dooz. He at once attacked the Turks with great fury, but, after a battle that lasted from morning until eight o'clock in the evening, was repulsed with heavy loss. Melikoff thereupon fell back slowly and reunited his command with the besieging force in front of Kars. Mukhtar Pasha followed him leisurely, and on the 8th of July opened communication with the beleaguered city. Before his arrival the Russian commander had decided to raise the siege. The Russians therefore drew back gradually to their intrenched camp at Zaim, about eight miles northwest of Kars. They held that position long enough to cover the safe withdrawal of all their siege material, and then fell back leisurely and unpursued to the heights of Kurukdere, about half-way between Kars and Alexandropol, where they halted to await reinforcements.

On the 24th of June the Turks attacked the Russian force in front of Batoum. Both sides claimed the victory; but the result was that the Russians retreated from their position before Batoum, and occupied a new line along the frontier between Fort St. Nicholas and Ozurgeti.

By the 26th of July the new position of the army of General Melikoff at Kurukdere, Gulworen, and Tashkah, was fairly occupied. The left wing, under General Tergukasoff, was still at Igdyr. Mukhtar Pasha had followed the Russians upon their retreat, and now occupied a strongly intrenched position opposite Melikoff's line, and at a moderate distance from it. Both armies had been considerably reinforced, and frequent but unimportant skirmishes occurred between them. On the 18th of

August Melikoff made a determined assault upon the Turkish position, but was repulsed with heavy loss. Mukhtar Pasha followed up this success by carrying the height of Kizil-Tepe, one of the advanced Russian positions, on the 25th of August. The Russians made repeated and determined efforts to regain the hill during the day, but were each time driven back with loss.

The Turkish position now extended from Aladja-Dagh to Kars, passing through Vezinkoi. In front of the main line were the

in person. Severe fighting occurred on the 2d, 3d, and 4th of October between the two armies, to the general disadvantage of the Russians. On the 15th of October the grand duke made a general attack upon the Turkish position. The key to this position was the Olya-Tepe, which was held by four battalions and a battery. The task of carrying this hill was assigned to the division of General Heimann. A tremendous artillery fire was opened upon the Turkish position, and Heimann's gren-



ERZEROUM.

detached knolls of Kizil-Tepe, Nakharij-Tepe, Olya-Tepe, and Yagni-Tepe, all of which were well intrenched and held by strong garrisons. In order to maintain this greatly extended line, the Turkish commander was obliged to reduce the garrison of Kars to a merely nominal force. His army numbered about 40,000 men and fifty-four pieces of cannon. The Russian army had been largely reinforced, and now numbered about 70,000 men and 200 guns, commanded by the Grand Duke Michael

adiers were kept lying down for three hours awaiting the order to charge. Mukhtar threw forward a strong line of Turkish infantry to the support of the assailed point, but this was driven back by the Russian fire. Then, under the cover of a heavy fire from the Russian batteries, Heimann's men were moved up the hill to the assault. The Turks offered a gallant resistance, but nothing could stay the steady advance of the Russian grenadiers, who reached the crest, swarmed over the redoubt, and drove

the defenders down the opposite side of the hill. The Olya-Tepe being won, the Russians next stormed and carried the plateau in front of Vezinkoi, which was also strongly fortified. Shortly after four o'clock in the afternoon the Moscow grenadiers carried the Turkish position at Aladja-Dagh. The Turks fled, leaving their camp and all its contents, and thirty-two pieces of artillery, in the hands of the victors. They remained in the mountains until eight o'clock in the evening, when, being cut off from their main body and without food or shelter, they surrendered to the Russians. The defeat of the Turkish army was overwhelming, and the Russians prepared to follow up their advantage with energy.

Mukhtar Pasha now threw a strong garrison into Kars, and with the remainder of his army retreated towards Erzeroum. The Russians followed in pursuit, and a few days after the battle of Aladja-Dagh began the second investment of Kars. A strong force was thrown out towards Erzeroum, and the Russian left wing, under General Tergukasoff, moved rapidly in the same direction. On the 4th of November the Russians attacked Mukhtar Pasha's army at Deve-Boyun. The Turks were routed and retreated to Erzeroum, where they were besieged by the Russians.

In the meantime the siege of Kars had been pressed with vigor. The Turks made several spirited sorties, but were invariably driven back within their defences. At length, on the night of the 17th of November, the Russians made a determined assault upon the defences of the city. The battle lasted from eight o'clock on the night of the 17th to eight o'clock on the morning of the 18th, and was directed by General Melikoff in person. It resulted in the capture of the city and its defences, 10,000 prisoners, 300 cannon, and large quantities of stores, ammunition, arms, etc. The Russians made but trifling booty, and spared the peaceful citizens and the women and children. At eleven o'clock on the morning of the 18th, the Grand Duke Michael entered the city and took formal possession of it.

Kars, the key to Armenia, having fallen, the Russians pressed forward their investment of Erzeroum with vigor. At the present writing the siege of that place is still in progress.

During the progress of the campaign in Armenia the Turkish fleet in the Black Sea was quite active. A number of the

Russian fortified ports were bombarded, but nothing of importance was accomplished by these attacks. An effort was made by Turkey to excite an insurrection among the Circassians, and thus raise up a formidable foe in the rear of the Russian army in Armenia. Some disturbances occurred among the Circassians, but the Turks failed to accomplish their object.

Let us now glance at the campaign in Europe. "First let us touch upon the main topographical features of Turkey in Europe. Referring to any good map of the region, the first thing that strikes the eye is the river Danube. We are concerned with the portion of the river below where it breaks through the mountains at the Iron Gates, near Orsova. This river is the first Turkish line of defence. Below the Iron Gates the Danube, except when divided by islands into several arms, is nowhere less than nine hundred paces in width, often more than double that. In places it is from seventy to eighty feet deep, often shallower, but always a deep river, nowhere fordable. There is only one place, at Tuldscha, where a sandbar reduces its depth so much as to render a pile bridge practicable; at all other points bridges must be supported upon boats. The current averages about two and one-half miles per hour. As a rule the right, or Turkish bank, commands the left bank, which is often marshy to the water's edge. The points suitable for crossing large bodies of troops are few, and are generally covered by fortifications on the Turkish bank.

"Of these works the most westerly of any importance is Widdin. This is a town of considerable size and importance on the right bank of the river; it is well fortified, and contains extensive military establishments. Kalafat, on the opposite bank, formerly served as its *tête de pont*, but is now in the hands of the Roumanian troops,—a great advantage for the Russians. Below Widdin there are small works at Lom and Orchova. Nikopoli is a place of more importance; the Osma river here enters the Danube from the south, and the Aluta from the north. . . . At Sistova is another small work. Still lower down is the important fortress of Rutschuk, which is well fortified; opposite to this, but at long range, is Giurgevo. At Rutschuk is the terminus of the railway from Varna. About twenty-five miles below Rutschuk is Turtukai, which has been strengthened of late years. . . .

Next below is the strong fortress and entrenched camp of Silistria, so well known from its admirable defences in 1828 and 1835. Hirsova is a smaller work, covering a very important point for crossing the river. Some forty miles below is Brailov, and at some little distance from it, on the Turkish side, the fortification of Matchin. Galatz, Reni, and Ismail are all in the hands of the Russians.

“South of the Danube and at an average distance of some sixty miles, the Balkan range extends eastwardly from Albania to Cape Emineh, on the Black Sea. This is the second line of defence for the Turks. Between it and the Danube lies Bulgaria. . . . At Rassova the Danube, in its course to the sea, turns sharply to the north; and just at this point commenced Trajan’s wall, which extended to Kostendji on the Black Sea.

“The peninsula north of Trajan’s wall, and between the Danube and the Euxine, is known as the Dobrutscha. The northern part of this district is broken by the mountains of Matchin, Betschepta, and Babadagh; towards the south the surface is hilly and undulating, and of no great elevation. The soil is sandy, underlaid by limestone, and the interior valleys are destitute of springs and streams, so that no water is to be procured except from a few deep wells. The population is scanty. From these causes the region is a barren waste, affording no supplies except pasturage, and even this fails at midsummer.

“To hold Bulgaria the passes of the Balkan must be secured; to dictate peace in Adrianople or Constantinople, these passes must be carried and traversed. So that when they have overcome the difficulties of the Danube, the Russians next find the Balkan athwart their path. At its western extremity the Balkan unites with the range traversing Albania and Dalmatia, and connects with the mountain system of Herzegovina and Servia; near Sophia it sends out to the north an off-shoot which connects it with the Carpathian range, and it is through this offshoot that the Danube forces its way at the Iron Gates. The greatest elevation of the main Balkan range is to the west of the sources of the Jantra and Tuudscha, that is, west of Kassanlik and Tirnova, where the summits are covered with snow until mid-summer. Thence to the sources of the Kamtschik the elevation is not over 5,000 feet, and further east not more than 4,000 feet. The prevailing

character of the range is that of richly wooded round hills; it is only in the valleys that masses of rock are found. The southern slope is by far the most steep. On the northern side is a parallel range of foothills, differing much from the main range. These foothills are of limestone, with flat tops, often falling off at the sides in perpendicular walls from 100 to 200 feet in height, and forming singular defiles. Towards the bottom of the valleys the face of the rock slopes more gradually as it descends. The



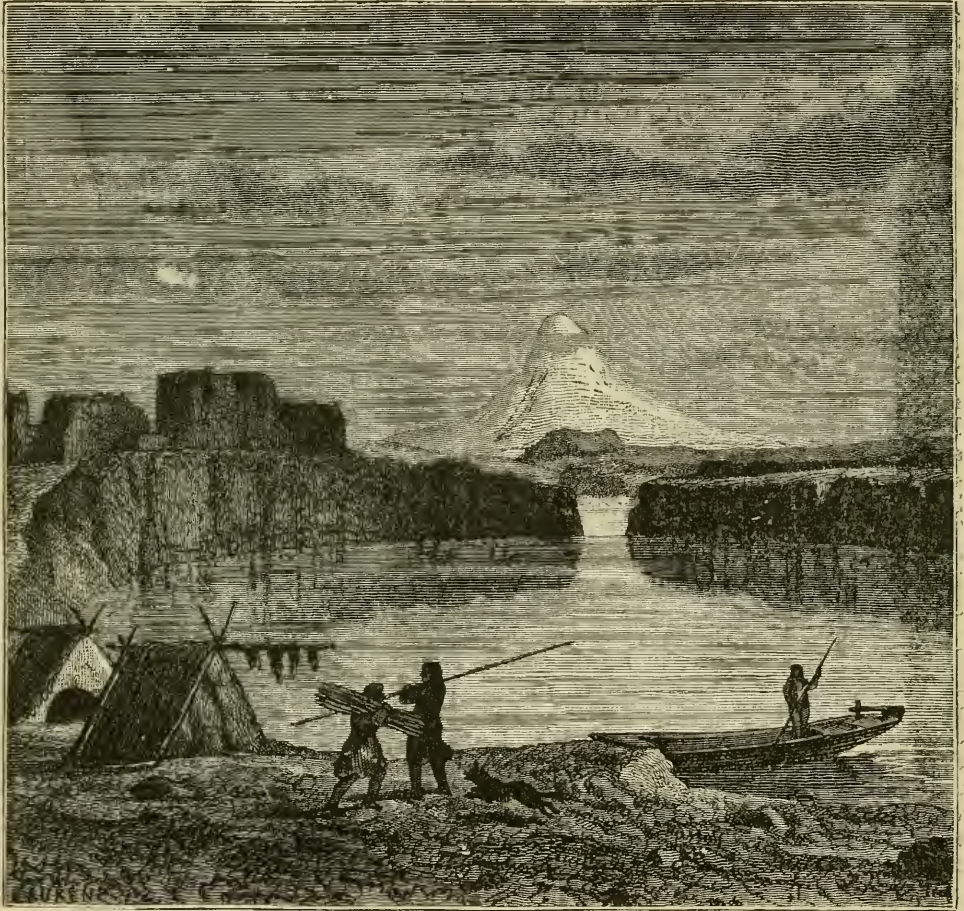
BULGARIAN PEASANT.

hill-tops are not easily accessible, and are covered, not with the magnificent trees of the main range, but with dense brushwood. For long distances from the foot of the lower range the plain is covered with an undergrowth of oak, which renders the movements of masses of troops across the country difficult and almost impossible. The idea, in former times, that the Balkan was impassable arose not so much from the height and inherent difficulties of the range as from the fact that no really good roads

existed, and that within a distance of five or six marches many small difficulties were accumulated which had to be overcome by all the troops in succession. The space at our disposal will permit only a brief mention of the most important passes across the Balkan range.

"The most westward are in the vicinity of Sophia, where two main roads cross the mountains. One comes from Ukschub,

a branch to Enos on the Ægean Sea. These passes present comparatively few natural difficulties; the roads have been improved and fortified of late years. The next important pass is that through which the road from Tirnova to Kassanlik and Adrianople is constructed. Another road leads from Tirnova by Seldino and Jamboli to Adrianople; this road is connected by a branch with Kasan and Karnabad, as well as with



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where roads unite from Montenegro, Herzegovina, Bosnia, and Servia, and passes through Dubnitza to Tatar-Basardschik; the other comes from Sophia, where the road from Belgrade and Nisch unites with that from Widdin, and also leads to Tatar-Basardschik; thence the united roads lead to Adrianople and Constantinople. Sarimberg, about twelve miles west of Tatar-Basardschik, is the terminus of a railway through Adrianople to Constantinople, with

Aidos; the two last being important strategical points. Karnabad is connected toward the north by roads through Kasan with Tirnova on the one hand, and through Osmanbasar with Rutschuk to the left, and through Rasgrad with Turtukai on the right; to the south, roads lead to Adrianople, to Bourgas, and to Constantinople. Aidos is connected, towards the north, through Prawady with Shumla and Osmanbasar on the left, with Varna, Bazardjik,

and Silistria on the right; while to the south it is connected with Bourgas, Constantinople, and Adrianople. Most of the roads through Karnabad and Aidos to Varna and Shumla have of late years been made practicable for artillery and fortified in the mountains."*

Months before the declaration of war, as we have stated elsewhere, the town of Kischenev, in Bessarabia, the Russian province nearest to the Danubian principalities, had been chosen as the point for the concentration of troops and supplies for the anticipated campaign. Kischenev is directly connected with the entire Russian railway system, and was admirably suited to the purpose to which it was applied. The work of concentration was carried on with energy, and an army was assembled under the command of the Grand Duke Nicholas, numbering about 325,000 men. The Turkish army opposed to this force lay behind the Danube, and was about 250,000 strong. It was commanded by Abdul-Kerim Pasha, who had won considerable distinction as the commander of the Turkish forces in the war against Servia which preceded the struggle with Russia.

On the 24th of April, 1877, as has been stated, Russia declared war against Turkey. On the 23d the advanced guard of the Russian army crossed the frontier and entered Roumania. An arrangement was entered into with the Roumanian government by which the co-operation of the army of that country was secured by Russia. This gave to the Russians an additional force of about 60,000 men; but these troops did not come into service until Bulgaria had been occupied by the forces of the czar.

The advance of the Russian army was led by the fourteenth corps. By a rapid and well-executed march of forty miles in thirty-six hours, the fourteenth corps occupied Galatz and Brailov, on the Danube, and secured the important railroad bridge over the Sereth at Barboschi, between the last-named cities. The remainder of the army was marched rapidly into Roumania, and proceeded to occupy the important strategic points. "To form an idea of the magnitude of this work," says General McClellan, "it must be remembered that the distance from the point of crossing the frontier near Kischenev to Bucharest is more than 330 miles by the circuitous rail-

way, and more than 250 by the common roads. From Bucharest to Sistova is about sixty-five miles, and to Kalafat nearly 200 miles; while, following the roads along the northern bank of the Danube, it is more than 400 miles from Kalafat to Isatchki, where the Russians first crossed in 1828. The first task of the Russians was the solid occupation of the principalities and the left bank of the Danube, the accumulation of men, material, and supplies, the isolation or destruction of the Turkish gun-boats in the river by means of batteries and torpedoes, and the preparation of means for crossing the river." In most of her former wars with Turkey during this century, Russia enjoyed the advantage of a powerful fleet in the Black Sea, which greatly simplified her task of supplying and reinforcing her army. Now the Turks held the Black Sea, and the Russians were compelled to adopt an interior line of communication, and to depend upon the single line of railway from Bessarabia into the principalities. The terrible condition of the roads leading through Roumania to the Danube made the work of collecting men and material on that river both difficult and lengthy. The waters of the Danube remained swollen to an unusual point for many weeks beyond the ordinary time, and so prevented an early effort to pass the river. This delay was improved by the Russians in bringing up men and supplies to their front.

At length, the river having fallen, and all things being ready for an advance in force, the order for the passage of the river was given. The first effort of the Russians was to secure the Dobrutscha, and thus gain the command of the lower Danube and neutralize the strong fortresses in that region. On the 20th of June ten companies of infantry crossed the Danube at Galatz, and attacked the Turkish force on the opposite bank. After a gallant struggle they carried the heights occupied by the Turks, and held them until the return of the boats brought reinforcements. The Turks were then driven back from the river, and the position secured.

The crossing at Galatz having been secured, a bridge was thrown over the Danube at Brailov, and a strong Russian force was sent across to the opposite bank. Another bridge was built at Hirsova, higher up the river, and on the 25th of June a column of 18,000 troops crossed over and effected a junction with those who had

* Gen. Geo. B. McClellan.

crossed at the points lower down. By nightfall on the 25th the Russians had a force of 60,000 men, with artillery and cavalry, in the Dobrutscha. Matchin and the other fortified places in the upper Dobrutscha were speedily captured, and the peninsula passed into the hands of the Russians from Galatz to Silistria. The latter fortress was strongly threatened, and the garrison prevented from undertaking any operation beyond the walls.

While the occupation of the Dobrutscha was in progress, a heavy cannonade was maintained upon Rutschuk, Nikopoli, and other fortified places higher up the river, and the Turkish gunboats in the Danube were completely neutralized by the Russian batteries and torpedoes.

The attention of the Turks having been drawn to the occupation of the Dobrutscha, the Russians began their main effort higher up the river. Materials for bridging the Danube were quietly collected in Simnitza, and a strong force was concentrated at that point for the purpose of forcing a passage of the stream. At a little after sunset on the 26th of June the troops moved out of Simnitza towards the river, and at the same time the artillery was thrown forward to the water's edge to cover the passage of the men. The first crossing was directed by General Dragomiroff. Promptly at one o'clock on the morning of the 27th the fifty-third regiment, with eight mountain guns, entered the boats and began the difficult and dangerous movement. When the boats were half way over the river the Turks on the opposite bank discovered their approach and opened a heavy fire upon them. The Turks had about 6,000 infantry and eight or ten guns, and the task before the Russian force was problematical in the extreme.

As the first companies of the Russians landed, the men were made to lie down in the mud in skirmish lines, and the boats returned for reinforcements. They continued plying across the river all night. When about two battalions had crossed, the order was given to attack the heights held by the Turks. The men arose, reeking with mud, and with a cheer went at the enemy. A terrific volley crashed from the Turkish line, but was fortunately too high to damage their assailants. Trusting to the bayonet, the Russians drove back the Moslems from their first position, and, being steadily reinforced, gained ground every hour.

Towards one o'clock in the afternoon of the 27th the Russian field artillery began to cross, and by two o'clock the Turks were driven out of Sistova. The heights commanding that town were next carried, and the crossing was fully secured. By nightfall the entire eighth corps was over the river and firmly lodged on the Bulgarian bank. The crossing had been conducted with such skill and precision that the Russian loss was less than a thousand men.

On the 28th the construction of a bridge was begun, and the crossing of troops in boats was continued. The work on the bridge was interrupted by a storm, but was completed on the 2d of July. The Russian infantry, artillery, and cavalry now poured in a steady stream over the bridge. The troops were moved forward promptly from the river, and on the 3d of July the Russian outposts were established twenty miles south of the Danube, and their cavalry patrols were thrown out still closer to the Balkans.

The Danube had been safely passed, and the Russian army was firmly established in Bulgaria. The force in the Dobrutscha was separated from the main body, however, by the "quadrilateral" formed by the fortresses of Rutschuk, Silistria, Varna, and Shumla. It was sufficient to neutralize these fortresses, and to prevent the Turks from directing a force from the coast of the Black Sea against the left flank of the main Russian army in Bulgaria. On the 2d of July fighting between the Russians and the Turks in the Dobrutscha began along the line of the railway from Kostendgi to Tschernavoda, to the general advantage of the former. On the 15th the Russians occupied Kostendgi.

General Gourkha, commanding the Russian advance in Bulgaria, moved rapidly southward after the passage of the Danube. On the 5th of July he occupied Bjela, and being relieved by other troops, pushed on to Tirnova, from which place he drove a considerable Turkish force of infantry and artillery. He at once occupied the town, and a day or two later was strongly reinforced.

Immediately after passing the Danube the Grand Duke Nicholas moved a column from Sistova upon Nikopoli, and attacked that place from the south, while the Russian batteries at Turna, on the north bank of the Danube, opened fire upon it. Nikopoli yielded to this combined attack, and

on the morning of the 16th surrendered to the Russians. Two Turkish gunboats were included in the capitulation. The capture of Nikopoli was of the greatest importance to the Russians, as it gave them a second crossing-place over the Danube, and enabled them to confront more promptly the Turkish left, which was advancing against them from Widdin and Plevna.

Tirnova having been successfully occupied, and the Russian communications with Roumania being made secure, the advance upon the Balkans was begun. The ninth division was directed through Dranova upon Gabrova, at the northern entrance to the Shipka Pass. At the same time General Gourkha, whose column was freed by this movement, made a reconnoissance to Osmanbasar, in order to ascertain whether the route by which he intended to cross the Balkans was covered by the Turkish left wing. He encountered considerable resistance, but ascertained that the route he had chosen across the mountains was clear. He then withdrew, leaving the Turks under the impression that they had repulsed a serious attack. The route chosen by General Gourkha was the Hainkoi Pass, about half way between Slivno and the Shipka Pass. It had been unused for generations save by the Bulgarian Christian refugees who had made their homes in the retreats of the Balkans. Under the guidance of the natives, Gourkha marched rapidly to the Hainkoi Pass, seized it on the 14th of July, and passed the mountains in safety. On the 15th his advanced guard occupied Kanaro, repulsing an attack of the enemy, and on the same day the Cossack cavalry made a dash down the Tundscha valley, captured Jeni Saghra, and destroyed the railroad and telegraph between Jamboli and the main line of the Adrianople railroad. On the 16th General Gourkha continued his advance, moving upon Kissanlik. At Uplami he encountered a strong Turkish column of infantry, cavalry, and artillery, and routed it with considerable loss. On the morning of the 17th he resumed his march, skirmishing with the enemy all day, and late in the afternoon occupied Kissanlik. The occupation of this place enabled him to close the southern outlet of the Shipka Pass, which was held by a considerable Turkish force. On the 17th a portion of the ninth Russian division attacked the pass from the north, and after a severe conflict carried the outer line of intrenchments,

in which they bivouacked for the night. On the morning of the 18th the command of General Gourkha advanced into the pass from the south, while the detachment of the ninth division renewed its attack from the north. The Turks now hung out the white flag, and negotiations were opened for the surrender of the pass. While these were in progress the Turkish force escaped under the cover of darkness during the night of the 18th, leaving the pass, their camp, and artillery in the hands of the Russians. The pass was at once occupied by the Russians, and its defences were greatly strengthened.

When General Krudener advanced from Sistova upon Nikopoli, as has been related, he neglected to occupy the important town of Plevna, which commands the line of the river Wid. It was promptly seized by the advanced forces of the army of Osman Pasha, who was marching eastward from Widdin. This movement of the Turks aroused Krudener to a sense of his error, and he sent a force of three regiments to take Plevna. The attempt was successful, but the Russians had hardly taken possession of the town before they were attacked and driven out with heavy loss by a superior force coming from the direction of Widdin.

The Grand Duke Nicholas now determined to make a more determined effort to seize Plevna, but he underrated the strength of the enemy, and his preparations were inadequate to the task before him. The Turkish force around Plevna amounted to 50,000 men, amply supplied with artillery, and their position was upon a series of commanding hills and was strongly intrenched. The grand duke reinforced General Krudener, and brought his force to a strength of 32,000 infantry, 160 guns, and three brigades of cavalry. The attack was made on the 31st of July. The Russian right wing, under General Krudener in person, accomplished nothing. It maintained an artillery fire all day, but the infantry did not attack. The left, under General Schackoskoy, made a vigorous assault, and carried three lines of Turkish intrenchments in the face of a most gallant resistance. The Turks, seeing that Krudener did not attack their left, now threw every available man against Schackoskoy, and by a determined effort drove him from the redoubts he had captured, and which he was unable to hold with his exhausted force

without support. The Russians now fell back to the Osma, and the Turks proceeded to strengthen their position at Plevna. The Russian loss in the battle of the 31st was 5,000 men; the Turkish loss was also heavy.

Early in August the position of the two armies was as follows: The left of the general Russian line consisted of the army of the czarowitch (the crown prince of Russia). Its left rested "on the Danube, close above Rutschuk, crossing the Lom near Bassarabo, and thence following in general the heights on the right bank of the Kara Lom, with outposts well forward, and the right not very far west of Osmanbasar. The head-quarters of the czarowitch were at Bjela, where the road from Tirnova to Rutschuk crosses the Jantra river. The centre of the army of operations was at Tirnova, under General Radetzky, and consisted of the eighth corps and the fourth rifle brigade. These troops were to aid in the defence of the Shipka Pass, and also to watch the roads towards Osmanbasar and Lovatz, as well as the passes debouching between Elena and Tirnova. Detachments held Drenova, Gabrova, Selvi, and other points, supporting the troops in the Shipka and Hainkoi Passes. The country south of the Balkans had been already evacuated by General Gourkha, who retired by the same pass through which he originally crossed. The Russian right held its position in front of Plevna, occupying Paradim and Tirstenik; one division of Roumanians had crossed the Danube, and were between Nikopoli and Plevna. The head-quarters of the commander-in-chief were at Gorny Studen, nearly midway between Bjela and Paradim, and about equally distant from these places and Tirnova. The fifth corps was at Gorny Studen. The Turkish right held Rutschuk, Rasgrad, and Osmanbasar. Their centre, under Suleiman Pasha, held Kissanlik, and was preparing to attack the Shipka Pass. The Turkish left, under Osman Pasha, held Plevna and Lovatz."

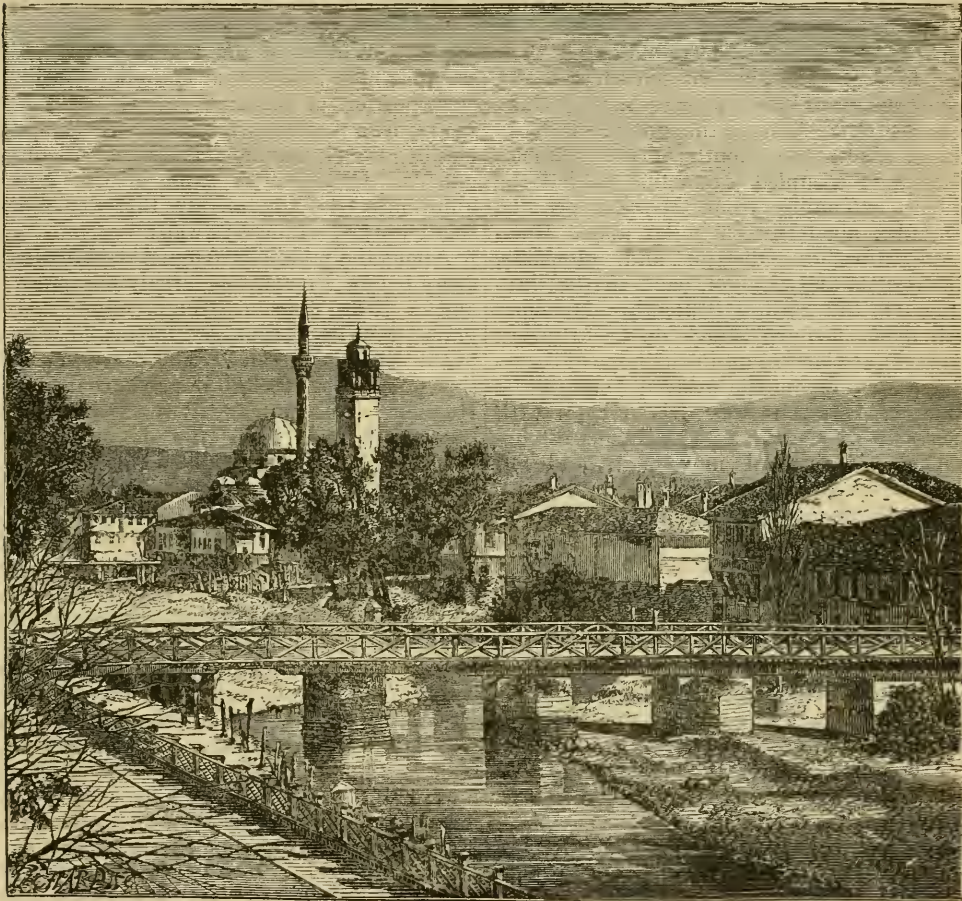
For some time the Russians remained inactive, awaiting reinforcements. In the meantime the Turkish centre, under Suleiman Pasha, made a determined effort to recover the Shipka Pass. This pass had been fortified by the Turks at the outset of the war to resist an attack from the north. Upon gaining possession of it the

Russians had strongly fortified it towards the south, from which direction the Turks would seek to recover it, and had made the roads from the north practicable for artillery and trains. "The summit of the pass is about 4,400 feet above the sea, and 2,300 feet above the village of Shipka. The highest point in the pass is a rocky hill, on which is the fort to which the Russians have given the name of St. Nicholas; on either side are ridges nearly parallel with the Gabrova road. Diverging from the summit towards the south there are many ravines and valleys, which, though impracticable for artillery, permit infantry to turn any position between the summit and base of the mountains. The same thing holds, looking towards the north. The summit, therefore, is the vital point for both parties." The defeat of the Russian column at Plevna on the 31st of July, and the approach of Suleiman Pasha upon Kissanlik, made it necessary for the command of General Gourkha to withdraw from the country south of the Balkans. This was done on the 8th of August, as has been related. Kissanlik was promptly occupied by the Turkish centre, and Suleiman Pasha prepared to drive the Russian garrison out of the Shipka Pass. The Russian force consisted of less than four battalions and sixteen guns. The Turks outnumbered them ten to one.

On the 21st of August Suleiman Pasha made a heavy attack upon the Shipka Pass, and for three days maintained it with great vigor, forcing the little garrison to great exertions to hold their positions. By the afternoon of the third day the Russians were thoroughly worn out and their ammunition almost exhausted. At this juncture the Turks were pressing heavily the positions on the flanks of the pass, which commanded the Gabrova road, and with a fair prospect of carrying them. As their line steadily advanced, a ringing cheer was heard in the valley below, and the advanced guard of the fourth rifle brigade, mounted on fleet Cossack ponies, and led by General Radetzky in person, dashed up the mountain side towards the endangered points. At once dismounting his men, Radetzky threw them into the fight, checked the Turkish advance, and held his ground until the arrival of fresh reinforcements, when he drove the Turks back down the mountain side. Not disheartened, Suleiman continued his attacks for

four days longer. He lost many excellent soldiers, but accomplished nothing. The Russians held on to the pass with a determination that nothing could shake, and the Turks dashed themselves against its rocky sides in vain. Suleiman now ceased his attacks and changed his plan of operations. He brought up fresh troops, and on the 14th of September opened a heavy fire upon the Russian works from eight-inch

bered up the steep mountain side and carried a trench some distance in advance of the main work. Until six o'clock reinforcements swarmed up the mountain to this point, bringing gabions and fascines with which to intrench the position they had won. They held their ground until noon, when the Russians by a supreme effort drove them back into the pass below, inflicting terrible losses upon them. Three



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mortars. He continued this bombardment until the morning of the 17th, when, believing that he had sufficiently weakened the Russian position, he suddenly assaulted their works. During the day he made six furious assaults. The first attack was directed against Fort St. Nicholas, which was the main object of the Turkish efforts throughout the battle. At three o'clock in the morning, the Turks suddenly clam-

bered up the steep mountain side and carried a trench some distance in advance of the main work. Until six o'clock reinforcements swarmed up the mountain to this point, bringing gabions and fascines with which to intrench the position they had won. They held their ground until noon, when the Russians by a supreme effort drove them back into the pass below, inflicting terrible losses upon them. Three

thousand Turkish soldiers were left dead on the mountain side. The Russian loss was about 1,000. The Turks fought with great gallantry in this battle, and the Russians had good reason to feel proud of their victory. During the month of August repeated efforts were made by Mehemet Ali to force the army of the czarowitch back over the Lom. On the 29th the Turks attacked the

Russians at Karahassankoi, and drove them back over the Lom. The Russians took position near Popkoi, and the Turks forebore to follow up their success. On the 4th of September a Turkish force from Rutschuk attacked the Russian position at Kadikoi, but was repulsed. On the 5th the Russian centre at Kacelyvo was attacked by an overwhelming force of Turks and driven back behind the Lom. It took position at Ostritza. On the same day the Turks made energetic efforts to drive back the Russian right from Popkoi and their left from Kadikoi, but without success. In consequence of the disaster to his centre the czarowitch abandoned the line of the Kara Lom, above the mouth of the Banicka Lom, and occupied a new line behind the Lom, extending from Metcka, on the Danube, about fifteen miles above Rutschuk, through Obertini and Monastir, Cherkovna and Covikoi, back to the Jantira. On the 20th of September Mehemet Ali made a sharp attack on the Russian position at Cherkovna in the hope of securing a footing on the western bank of the Banicka Lom, but was driven back with heavy loss. On the 24th Mehemet discontinued his forward movement, and fell back to the line of the Kara Lom.

In the meantime the efforts of the Russians to secure Plevna were pushed forward with vigor. This town, held by a strong Turkish army, was so close to the Russian lines of communication with Roumania and their own country, that they were obliged either to wrest it from the Turks or invest it with a strong army before they could resume their movement upon the Balkans. They chose the former course.

"Plevna," says General McClellan, "is not immediately upon the banks of the Wid, but about four miles to the east, in a large valley, on a branch formed by the union of the Grivitza, Radichevo, Tutchenitza, Bogot, and other small streams. The valleys of these streams have between them, or on either side, the high ridges or plateaus upon which are the great redoubts and lines of works which have so well withstood the fierce attacks of the Russians. The most northerly of these branches was the Grivitza, whose course is nearly at right angles with the Wid. Just north of the Grivitza is a high ridge bordering the stream from its head to Oponetz, on the Wid. On this ridge, close by the head of the little stream, is what has been called

the central redoubt of Grivitza; just west of this is the second great redoubt; from this there extends along the summit of the ridge a line of works reaching as far as Oponetz. . . . South of the great redoubt, which occupies a strong salient in the general line, and on the ridge between the Grivitza and the Radichevo is another work, and between the Radichevo and the Tutchenitza still another. . . . The remainder of the line, after crossing the Tutchenitza, bends square to the west, reaching the Wid near the mouth of a small stream which joins it near Dubnik. Within this portion of the line is a second line, facing also to the east. This forms a species of citadel, leaving the town of Plevna outside. On the left bank of the Wid, quite near the stream, are three or four small works looking westward."

About the middle of August the Russian army before Plevna was largely reinforced, and a little later a strong column was moved towards Lovatz, an important town to the south of Plevna. The possession of this place was of vital importance to the Russians, as it commanded the roads leading northward from the Karaul and Orchanie Passes, and enabled the Turks to threaten the left flank of the Russian army before Plevna.

On the 22d of August a strong Turkish force from Lovatz attacked the Russians at Selvi, but was repulsed. A new element now entered into the struggle. The details of the alliance between Russia and Roumania having been completed, the main body of the Roumanian army crossed the Danube on the 25th of August, and moved forward towards Plevna. On the 31st of August Osman Pasha, with 25,000 men, moved out of his lines at Plevna and attacked the Russian position at Pelisat. He was successful at first, but was finally driven back into his lines after a stubborn fight, and with heavy loss. On the 1st of September Prince Charles of Roumania assumed the immediate command of the army before Plevna, acting under the general orders of the grand duke, the commander-in-chief.

On the 2d of September the Russian commander made a successful attack upon Lovatz. A column of 22,000 men, under Prince Imeretinski, was directed upon that town, which was held by a nearly equal Turkish force. The attack was opened early in the morning by the left wing under

General Skobelev, who gained possession of two important peaks overlooking the valley in which Lovatz lies. The Turks were strongly intrenched, and held every approach to the town. During the night of the 2d and 3d the Russian troops were moved up quietly, and placed in position just in the rear of the crest of the hills, near the Selvi road, the point gained by Skobelev. The right wing was under General Dobrovolski; the left under Skobelev; and the reserve under General Engmann. At six o'clock on the morning of the 3d the battle was opened by the Russian batteries, ten in number, and an hour later General Dobrovolski began his advance upon the works on the right bank of the Osma in his front. By ten o'clock he had entire possession of them. The task of the right wing being accomplished, Skobelev moved off promptly with the left, under the cover of a tremendous artillery fire, and by one o'clock had driven the enemy from every position in his front, and was in possession of the town of Lovatz. The Turks now held only one work—a strong redoubt on a commanding ridge on the western side of the town. The approach to this work was difficult and dangerous, as it was swept by a murderous fire from the Turkish guns. The Russians promptly prepared to carry the work, and at three o'clock, after several feints to draw the attention of the Turks from the true point of attack, made an impetuous charge upon it, and carried it after a brief but fierce struggle. The whole Turkish position was now won, and its defenders were in full retreat. The Russian loss was less than one thousand men. The Turks left 2,200 dead on the field. On the 4th Osman Pasha made a furious effort to recover Lovatz, but was repulsed.

Lovatz being in their hands, the Russians were now free to press their operations against Plevna. On the morning of the 7th of September they opened a heavy fire upon the Turkish lines from their batteries, which had been placed in position during the two previous days. On the night of the 7th the batteries were advanced nearer to the Turkish lines, and the cannonade was resumed the next morning. On the afternoon of the 8th the Russians carried the heights south of Olcagas, to the southwest of Plevna, with slight loss. This was accomplished by the commands of Imeretinski and Skobelev, who held the

extreme left of the Russian line. During the morning of the 9th the Turks undertook to drive back these commands from the heights they had won, but were repulsed with heavy loss. On the same day the Roumanian army arrived from Verbitza, and took position on the north of Plevna from the river Wid to the Russian right, thus completely hemming in Plevna on the eastern side of the Wid. During the 9th and 10th new batteries were thrown up by the Russians still closer to the Turkish lines, and a heavy fire kept up from them. On the 11th, all things being in readiness, a grand assault was made upon the great redoubt at Grivitza, and upon the redoubts south of Olcagas, which commanded the Turkish line of retreat by the road to Sophia.

The attack upon the Olcagas redoubts was intrusted to the division of General Skobelev, which consisted of four regiments of the line, four battalions of rifles, and twenty pieces of artillery. In order to place his men in a position to attack the redoubt in his front, Skobelev was compelled to occupy a hill a short distance from the work. While engaged in this movement, he was furiously attacked by the Turks. He repulsed the attack, occupied the hill, brought up his artillery, and opened a heavy fire upon the enemy at short range. Late in the afternoon he advanced two regiments of the line and two battalions of rifles, with orders to storm the redoubt with the bayonet. The line advanced rapidly, with bugles sounding and bands playing, but was met by a withering fire from the Turks, and began to hesitate. Skobelev promptly sent another regiment forward to reinforce the assaulting party, and the advance was resumed. The fire of the Turks was terrible, and the line once more wavered. In an instant Skobelev placed himself at the head of his last two battalions of rifles, and dashed forward at a run. Cheered by this sight the whole line resumed the charge, reached the work, and after a terrific hand-to-hand combat, drove the survivors of the garrison from it. The Russian loss was two thousand men killed and wounded.

In the meantime the attack on the Grivitza redoubt had been made. At one o'clock the assault was made by a division of the fourth corps, but was repulsed. At four o'clock a second assault was made by

twelve battalions. This force entered the work, but after a gallant struggle was driven back. The Roumanians about the same time made three determined assaults upon the great central redoubt, but were repulsed. Towards seven o'clock a last assault was made upon the central redoubt by six Russian and one Roumanian battalion, and the work was carried after a desperate struggle. On the 12th Osman Pasha made repeated efforts to recover the central redoubt, but without success. He then concentrated his efforts upon Skobelev, who declared his position untenable without reinforcements. He also begged the commander-in-chief to reinforce him to an extent which would enable him to carry the neighboring works. His appeal was unheeded, and after repulsing five desperate assaults, he was driven, in a sixth charge, from the work he had so gallantly won. He fell back rapidly to his position of the morning of the 11th, and the Turks made no effort at pursuit.

The result of these operations was to convince the Russian commander that Plevna could be taken only by a regular siege, and it was resolved to begin this at once. The veteran General Todleben, whose heroic defence of Sevastopol in the Crimean war we have related, was given practical direction of the operations. Several weeks were spent in perfecting the preparations for the siege, and in bringing up reinforcements. During this time the Turks, who had command of the roads to Orhanie and Sophia, were able to throw reinforcements and provisions into Plevna, and Osman Pasha's army was brought to a strength of 50,000 men.

On the 24th of October the Russian imperial guard arrived at Plevna, and brought the strength of the army to about 120,000 men. On the 27th of October the siege was formally begun. The imperial guard were thrown across the river Wid to the west bank, and rapidly extending their line to the northward opened communication with the Roumanian forces at Bivolar on the east bank of the Wid, and completed the investment of Plevna. The town was now entirely surrounded. The siege was pushed forward with vigor, the Russians maintaining a steady fire upon the Turkish works, and advancing their own lines day by day by regular siege approaches. Osman Pasha conducted his defence with ability. A number of vigor-

ous sorties were made, but though the Turks won some minor advantages, they were nowhere able to break the Russian line of investment, or prevent the slow and inexorable advance of their trenches. At length the provisions of the Turkish army began to fail, and sickness appeared in their ranks. It soon became apparent to Osman Pasha that his only chance of safety lay in breaking through the Russian investment and escaping towards Widdin. In the early part of December the army of Suleiman Pasha moved westward from Rasgrad in the hope of forcing the Russians to raise the siege of Plevna. After some hard fighting the Turks succeeded in occupying Elena. The Russian commander rapidly reinforced his left, and Suleiman's advance was brought to a halt.

In the meantime the garrison of Plevna suffered severely. The bombardment was continued without intermission, and the Turkish losses from the Russian shells, sickness and desertion were more than three hundred men daily. At length Osman Pasha resolved upon a vigorous effort to break through the Russian lines and reach Widdin. By some means the Russian commanders were informed of his intention, and prepared to take advantage of it. On the night of the 9th of December Osman Pasha silently evacuated his lines and concentrated his whole force on the banks of the Wid. This movement was at once discovered by General Skobelev, who promptly threw forward his men and occupied the abandoned works on the south of Plevna. At seven o'clock on the morning of the 10th the Turkish army crossed the river Wid by two bridges, and attacked the Russian position on the west bank of that stream. Their assault was made with such fury that it was at first successful. They captured eight cannon and almost destroyed the Sibirsky grenadier regiment. This success brought them under the fire of one hundred cannon of the second Russian line, and at the same time a heavy infantry attack was directed against them. They were driven back in a hand-to-hand struggle, and were forced to take shelter under the banks of the river. The Russians in the meantime had rapidly advanced from their positions on the east bank of the Wid, and had seized the Turkish works and had occupied the town of Plevna. Osman Pasha now found himself hemmed in on all sides, with no prospect of escape.

He was severely wounded, having displayed great personal gallantry during the day. At half-past twelve o'clock he sounded a parley, and opened negotiations with the Russian commander. The result was that he surrendered his entire force unconditionally to the Emperor of Russia, who subsequently returned him his sword in recognition of his skill and bravery.

By the surrender of Plevna over thirty thousand prisoners and all the artillery, arms, military stores, etc., of Osman Pasha's army fell into the hands of the Russians. It was the most terrible disaster Turkey had experienced during the war. The entire left wing of the Turkish army was destroyed, and the road was opened to Adrianople and Constantinople.

The fall of Plevna encouraged Servia to renew the war with Turkey. On the 15th of December Prince Milan issued a proclamation declaring war against Turkey, and ordering his troops to cross the frontier. The Servian army thereupon entered the Turkish territory at Pirost, on the 16th, and advanced upon Kossova. On the 24th of December, after eight days of hard fighting, the Servians captured Ak-Palanka, on the Danube, southeast of Widdin; and on the same day they began the bombardment of Nissa, which place surrendered to them on the 11th of January. By this capture 8,000 Turkish soldiers, ninety cannon, and 12,000 rifles fell into the hands of the Servians.

Up to the fall of Plevna the Turks had maintained the contest with hopefulness as well as with vigor. They now began to despond, and the Turkish government appealed to the Queen of England to use her good offices in securing an armistice. The Turkish request was immediately presented to the czar by England; the Emperor Alexander replied that if the sultan desired an armistice, he must apply to the Russian commander-in-chief for it.

In the meantime the Russians followed up vigorously their success at Plevna. General Gourkho with a strong force was at once thrown across the Balkans. On the 31st of December he captured the Turkish position at Tashesan, after a severe battle. The Turks retreated towards Sophia, and, after a slight halt to rest his men, Gourkho pushed on in pursuit, and on the 3d of January, 1878, occupied Sophia. On the 9th of January, 1878, General Radetzky captured the entire Turkish force

defending the southern outlet of the Shipka pass, numbering forty-one battalions, ten batteries, and one regiment of cavalry. This brilliant victory gave to the Russians a free passage of the Balkans, and notwithstanding the great severity of the weather and the fact that the roads were blocked by deep snows, the Russian army was moved rapidly across the Balkans into Roumelia—Adrianople being the objective point of the whole force.

Turkey was now thoroughly alarmed, and made great efforts to bring about a suspension of hostilities. On the 9th of January, the day which witnessed the capture of the Shipka army, the Turkish commander-in-chief notified the Grand Duke Nicholas that he was authorized to conclude an armistice. The grand duke replied that he had telegraphed to St. Petersburg for instructions, and at the same time pressed his advance with vigor into Turkey. The sultan at once sent Server Pasha and Namyk Pasha to open negotiations with the Russians. They reached the headquarters of the Grand Duke Nicholas on the 18th of January, but were informed by him that he would treat only at Adrianople, which place he entered in triumph on the 26th. The discussion of the armistice was immediately begun, and at the same time the Russian army advanced rapidly upon Constantinople. By the first of February it occupied positions at Rodosto, on the Sea of Marmora, Tchornu, and Bourgas, completely commanding the peninsula on which Constantinople is situated, and threatening the capital itself. This was the state of affairs when the armistice was signed on the 3d of February, and hostilities were brought to an end.

In Armenia the investment of Erzeroum had been pressed with vigor. On the 5th of February, in accordance with the terms of the armistice, the town surrendered to the Russian forces.

In the meantime Great Britain had watched the progress of the Russian forces with grave distrust. The near approach of the conquering army to the Turkish capital at length determined the British government to intervene actively in behalf of Turkey, and Admiral Horoby, commanding the British fleet in Besika bay, was ordered to enter the Dardanelles and proceed to Constantinople. Finding that this measure would not be sustained by parliament, the government recalled the

fleet just as it was about to enter the Dardanelles. At a later period, the evident determination of Russia to occupy Constantinople entirely changed the attitude of parliament. The government was granted a credit of £6,000,000, and the fleet was ordered to enter the Dardanelles. Russia thereupon declared that if the British ships of war appeared before Constan-

tinople, thus gaining command of the city. The British fleet did not proceed to Constantinople, but anchored at Princess island, about thirty miles southeast of that city. The Russians thereupon withdrew their troops from the portion of the fortifications they had occupied, and resumed their former positions.



THE RUSSIAN FLEET UNDER FULL SAIL.

tinople, she would occupy the city with her troops. The sultan protested against the approach of the British fleet; but in vain, and the Russian forces were advanced to the defences of Constantinople. On the 13th of February Admiral Hornby passed the Dardanelles, and entered the Sea of Marmora. At the same time a Russian force

For a while it seemed probable that Austria would be drawn into the struggle, but in order to avoid this the Austrian emperor proposed a general congress of the European powers to settle the terms of the peace. The invitation was accepted, and the meeting of the conference was set for an early day in March.

BOOK XXVI.

THE HISTORY OF SPAIN.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT DAY.

Geographical Situation of Spain—Original Inhabitants—The Carthaginian Conquest—The Second Punic War—The Roman Dominion—The German Invasion—The Gothic Kingdom—The Early Kings—Theodoric I.—Euric Finds the Kingdom of Spain—Theodoric II.—His Successors—Reign of Leovigild—Wamba's Wise Rule—Reign of Roderic—Count Julian—Conquest of Spain by the Saracens—The Christians Driven to the North—The Viceroy—Abderahman Finds the Kingdom of Cordova—Spain Under the Moors—The Western Khalifate—Fall of the Kingdom of Cordova—Rise of the Smaller Moorish States—The Kingdom of Granada Founded—The Christian Kingdom of Asturias—Pelayo and his Successors—Rise of Leon, Castile, Aragon, and Navarre—Wars with the Moors—The Cid—The Portuguese Monarchy Founded—The Moors Driven Southward—Battle of the Navas de Tolosa—Rapid Advance of the Christian Kingdoms—Pedro the Cruel—Ferdinand and Isabella—The Modern Kingdom of Spain Established—The Inquisition—Conquest of Granada—Discovery of America—Charles I.—Death of Cardinal Ximenes—Charles Elected Emperor—Strengthens the Arbitrary Power of the Spanish Crown—Persecution of the Moors—Charles Punishes the Revolt of the Flemings—Abdication of Charles—Philip II.—War with France—Wealth of Spain—Philip Crushes the Reformation in Spain—The Moors Exterminated—Spain Loses her Dutch Provinces—Philip Seizes Portugal—The Invincible Armada—Its Fate—Death of Philip—Philip III. King—The Jews Driven from Spain—Philip IV.—War with France—Peace of the Pyrenees—Revolt of Portugal—Spain Acknowledges the Independence of the Dutch Republic—Charles II.—War of the Spanish Succession—Losses of Spain—Her Great Wealth—Philip V.—Wars of the Polish and Austrian Succession—Wars with England—Spain Supports the Independence of the United States of America—Charles IV.—War with the French Republic—Treaty of San Ildefonso—The Struggle with Napoleon—Ferdinand VII.—Spain Loses her American Colonies—Revolution of 1820—Death of Ferdinand—Isabella II.—The Carlist War—Marriage of the Queen—Revolution of 1868—The Provisional Government—Amadeo King—Carlist Insurrection—Abdication of Amadeo—Alfonso XII. Proclaimed King—The Cuban Insurrection.

THE Kingdom of Spain comprises the greater part of the most western of the three peninsulas of Europe, and forms, with Portugal, the Pyrenean or Iberian peninsula. It lies between latitude 36° and 43° 48' N., and longitude 3° 20' E., and 9° 21' W. Its greatest extent from north

to south is from Cape Peñas to Tarifa Point and the Strait of Gibraltar, 540 miles, and its greatest extent from east to west is from Cape Creus to Cape Finisterre, about 630 miles. Including the Canary Islands it has an area of 195,774 square miles, and a population of 16,835,506 souls.

The Spanish peninsula was first visited by the Phœnicians, who, as has been related elsewhere, established flourishing colonies on its coasts, and maintained an active and profitable trade with it. The principal of these colonies were Tartessus on the Gaudalquivir and Gadez, now Cadiz. At a later period the Greeks founded a number of colonies in the peninsula. The Greeks at first called the eastern coast Iberia, after the river Iberus, now the Ebro; the central part Celtica; and the western part Tartessus, but later on applied the name of Iberia to the whole peninsula. The Romans changed this name to Hispania, from which the modern name of Spain is derived. The original inhabitants of Spain were the Celtiberians, a race made up of the Celts and Iberians. It is believed that the Iberians were the primitive inhabitants of Spain, and that the Celts crossed the Pyrenees and established themselves in the country. They were grave in dress, sober and temperate in their habits, unyielding in their resolves, and brave and resolute in war. They were an agricultural people, and engaged in raising sheep and in the production of oil and wine. The chief wealth of the country, however, lay in its mines of gold and silver and other metals, which were worked by the Phœnicians and Carthaginians.

After the first Punic war Carthage began to make extensive settlements in Spain. Hasdrubal conquered several tribes on the south and east coast, and established the Carthaginian power firmly in the peninsula. Several new cities were founded by the Carthaginians, among which was New Carthage, which still exists under the name of Cartagena. Spain, as we have related elsewhere, was a source of great wealth to Carthage, and the government of the province was administered according to a carefully

arranged system. It was not long before the Carthaginians in their efforts to extend their dominions in the peninsula came in conflict with the Greeks. The Greek colonies of Saguntum and Emporiæ being hard pressed by the Punic forces, applied for aid to the Romans, who granted it and compelled the Carthaginians to respect the independence of Saguntum and to enter into an agreement not to seek to extend their territory beyond the Ebro. When Hannibal succeeded to the command in Spain he resolved not to observe this agreement, and in B. C. 219 captured and destroyed Saguntum. This act drew upon Carthage the vengeance of Rome, and brought on the second Punic war. During this struggle Scipio expelled the Carthaginians from Spain, B. C. 206.

Having made themselves masters of the Carthaginian dominions, the Romans undertook the conquest of the entire peninsula. This required of them a constant war of nearly two hundred years. The leading events of these wars have been related in the history of Rome, and need not be repeated here. In B. C. 19 the subjugation of the entire peninsula, with the exception of the Basques, was completed.

Augustus divided the peninsula into three provinces. Hispania Tarraconensis, the first of these, comprised the north, east, and centre; Hispania Bœtica, the second, comprised the south of Spain, with Cordova for its capital; and Lusitania, the third, was nearly identical with the modern kingdom of Portugal. Roman institutions were introduced, and under Augustus and his successors the peninsula became one of the principal seats of the civilization and learning of the empire. Christianity was introduced into Spain during the time of the apostles, and under Constantine the Great the Christianization of the peninsula was entirely accomplished.

The rapid decline of the Roman empire allowed the German tribes to pass the barrier of the Rhine and overrun Gaul. From this province they crossed the Pyrenees and entered Spain. The Suevi, under their King Hermeric, the Alans under Atace, and the Vandals under Gunderic swept over the mountains and descended upon the peninsula, A. D. 409. These barbarous tribes ravaged the peninsula with fire and sword, and spread suffering and desolation on all sides. When they had almost turned the country into a wilderness, they suddenly

paused, and divided it between them by lot. Galicia and a large part of Leon and Castile fell to the Suevi, who established a powerful kingdom there; Lusitania was given to the Alans; and Bœtica or southern Spain passed into the hands of the Vandals.

In A. D. 411 a fourth nation made its appearance in Spain. The Emperor Honorius, the reader will remember, in order to save Italy from the Goths, had offered them the tempting provinces of southern Gaul and Spain, and they had accepted the offer. Having established their dominion in southern Gaul, they now burst through the Pyrenees under their King Ataulphus, and established themselves in northeastern Spain, from which they undertook several expeditions against the Vandals. Ataulphus, who had married Placidia, the sister of Honorius, deemed it best to become the ally of the Romans. This drew upon him the hostility of his chieftains, who despised the Romans, and he was murdered within the year after his entrance into Spain. His successor, Sigeric, was a cruel ruffian, and was quickly put to death by his disgusted subjects.

The choice of the Goths now fell upon Wallia, who proved himself in every way worthy of it. He undertook an expedition against the Roman possessions in Africa, but his fleet was destroyed by a storm. This disaster induced Constantius, the imperial commander in Gaul, to advance towards the Pyrenees. Wallia prepared to meet him, but the conflict was averted by the surrender to Constantius, of Placidia, the widow of Ataulphus, of whom the imperial general was deeply enamoured. This done, Wallia formed an alliance with the Romans against the other Barbarian tribes in Spain, A. D. 417. The Vandals were expelled from the territories they had occupied, and were forced to seek an asylum among the Suevi of Galicia. The Alans of Lusitania were almost exterminated; the remnant left was incorporated with the Vandals; and from this time their name disappears from the history of Spain. The Suevi averted their doom by placing themselves under the protection of the Romans, and Wallia, who was not yet prepared to go to war with Rome, allowed them to remain in undisturbed possession of their territories. The Emperor Honorius rewarded Wallia, whom he regarded as his ally, with a gift of a portion of southern France, from Toulouse to the Mediterranean. Wallia at

once repaired to his new dominions, and from this time until the reign of Euric, the Gothic kings, while regarding Spain as a part of their dominions, remained in southern France.

Wallia was succeeded by Theodored about A. D. 420. In the reign of this king the Vandals made war upon the Suevi, who had received them so kindly in the last reign, and drove them into the mountains of Asturias, from which they were unable to move them. The Vandals then left Asturias and fought their way southward to their old homes in Boetia. There they maintained themselves in spite of the efforts of the imperial generals to dislodge them. They gave to their country the name of Vandallia, which has in time been softened into Andalusia. Having command of the sea, their fleets spread terror along the Spanish coast and the islands of the Mediterranean. In A. D. 427 they undertook the conquest of the Roman province of Africa, as has been related. The Suevi now took heart, and issuing from their mountain retreats soon regained Galicia. They extended their dominions steadily, and in 438 pushed their conquests into southern Spain, routed the Romans on the banks of the Xenil, and seized Merida and Seville. For the next ten years Richilan, the Suevic king, ruled this extensive realm with a firm hand.

Theodored in the meantime had been engaged in humbling the Roman power in southern Gaul. Having accomplished this, he was about to march against the Suevi in Spain, when he was summoned to take part in the struggle against the Huns under Attila. He was slain in the great battle of Chalons, as has been related, and the Goths conferred their crown upon his son Thorsimund. The new king was murdered within a year by his two brothers, the elder of whom succeeded him as Theodoric I. This monarch subdued the Suevi, but being obliged to return to France, his army was cut to pieces by the people of Leon, in revenge for the excesses it committed. The country now fell rapidly into a state of anarchy, and the sufferings of the people were very great. The state of affairs in France prevented Theodoric from returning to Spain. He had just tranquillized his Gallic dominions, and was preparing to return to the peninsula, when he was assassinated, it is said by his brother Euric, A. D. 466.

Euric was a great prince. He subdued the Suevi, re-established his authority in Andalusia, and brought the whole of central and northeastern Spain under his sway. He permitted the Suevi to retain Galicia, with a portion of modern Leon and Portugal, under their own kings; but made the Suevic monarch his vassal, and for the next hundred years the Suevi submitted in peace to the Gothic rule. Euric drove out the Romans, wresting from them Tarragona, their last stronghold, and made himself master of the entire peninsula. He next enlarged his dominions in Gaul at the expense of the Romans and Burgundians, and compelled Odoacer, the Gothic King of Italy, to surrender to him all the Roman possessions in Gaul beyond the Alps, as far as the Rhine and the sea. From this time the Goths regarded Gaul and Spain as constituting their proper kingdom. Euric established his capital at Arles, where he died in 483. He is justly regarded as the founder of the Gothic kingdom of Spain. His predecessors had been rulers of Gaul, having but a feeble hold on the peninsula. Euric held Spain with a firm grasp, and gave to it its first code of laws. The chief blot on his memory is the fury with which he persecuted the Roman Catholics, to whom, as an Arian, he was bitterly opposed.

Euric was succeeded by his son Alaric, a feeble prince. He reigned twenty-three years. During the latter part of his reign he became involved in a war with Clovis, the King of the Franks, who stripped him of the greater part of his possessions in France. He died in 506, leaving a son who was too young to be intrusted with the government. In view of this the Goths conferred the crown upon Gensaleic, the illegitimate brother of Alaric. He was hard pressed by the Franks and Burgundians, who besieged him in Carcassonne. Theodoric, the powerful King of the Ostrogoths, the father of the wife of Alaric, now took the field, not only against Clovis, but also against the Visigothic king, whom he regarded as having unlawfully usurped the throne of his grandson. He compelled Clovis to sue for peace, and defeated Gensaleic and put him to death. Then disregarding the rights of his grandson, he made himself King of Spain, as Theodoric II. He never established his court in Spain, but intrusted the government to Theudis, one of his ablest generals. He inaugurated

a rule of justice and order, and, though an Arian, protected the Catholics in the exercise of their religion. In 522 he resigned the Spanish crown to his grandson Amalaric, and died four years later.

Amalaric established his court at Seville, being the first Gothic King of Spain to reside in that country. He ceded to Athalaric, the successor of Theodoric, his Gallic territory between the Rhone and the Alps. He married Clotilda, the daughter of Clovis, but this princess being a Catholic, brought only trouble to her Arian husband. Their quarrels over their religious faith were so fierce, that Amalaric treated his wife with indignity, and she appealed to her brother Childebert, King of the Franks, for protection. Childebert invaded Spain, defeated and slew Amalaric in a great battle in Catalonia, and returned to France laden with the plunder of the Arian churches, A. D. 531. The Gothic crown was now conferred upon Theudis, who had governed Spain for Theodoric II. He was obliged to give up his possessions in Gaul, but succeeded in defending the peninsula against the attacks of the Frankish kings. He was a wise and able ruler, and was long remembered by his people. He was assassinated in 548. He was succeeded by Theudisdel, who had been one of his generals, but this prince treated his people so badly, that they murdered him the next year. Agilan, his successor, had a troubled reign of five years, the southern part of Spain refusing to recognize him as king. He was defeated and slain, A. D. 554.

Athana-gild, the leader of the rebels, now became King of Spain. To aid him in his revolt he had called in the troops of the Emperor Justinian. He now demanded their withdrawal from the country; but they refused to leave, and established themselves in the province of Carthagera, from which they made frequent inroads into the neighboring provinces. The Gothic king was unable to expel them, and they held the places they had seized until in the course of time they were absorbed in the Gothic nation. During this reign the Suevi, who had been converted to Arianism a century before, abandoned that faith for Catholicism, A. D. 560. In 567 Athana-gild died, after a peaceful and useful reign of fourteen years. He was succeeded by Liuva, who died three years later.

Leovigild, the brother of Liuva, came to the throne in A. D. 570. He was one of the

greatest of the Gothic kings. He drove the imperialists out of Granada, and put down several revolts against his authority. This required ten years of constant effort, but at length his authority was firmly established throughout Spain. In 582 he associated his oldest son, Ermenigild, in the government with him, and secured for him the hand of the Frankish Princess Ingunda. This princess was a Catholic, and won her husband over to that faith. Ermenigild soon after took up arms against his father, but was conquered after a desperate struggle and forced to submit. He was pardoned, but deprived of his royal dignity, and soon rebelled again. He was again subdued, and this time was put to death by his father's order. The Catholic Church has always regarded him as a martyr for his religion, and has canonized him. Upon the death of Ermenigild, the Frankish king, the brother of his widow, took up arms to avenge him, and the Suevi threw off their allegiance and joined the Franks. With the aid of his second son, Recared, Leovigild beat back the Franks and subdued the Suevi. He put an end to the Suevic kingdom, and annexed their possessions to the crown of Spain. Leovigild was a violent persecutor of the Catholic party. He plundered their churches, and with the riches thus amassed surrounded himself with a brilliant court. He did much for the improvement of his kingdom, and is the first of the Visigothic kings represented in the ancient coins with the royal crown upon his head. He died in 587.

Recared I. succeeded his father as sole king of the Goths, and was promptly acknowledged throughout the peninsula. In 589 he renounced Arianism and embraced Catholicism. His example was followed by the entire Gothic nation. This step put an end to religious dissensions in Spain, and did much to unite the Goths, the Latins, and the native Spaniards into one Spanish nationality, with a general prevalence of the Latin element. He defeated the efforts of the Franks to invade Spain, subdued the Basques, and chastised the imperialists and confined them to their fortresses on the coast. It is one of the inconsistencies of Spanish history that this handful of imperialists should have been able to maintain themselves on the coasts of so powerful a kingdom, in defiance of an able king and a warlike nation. Recared's reign was highly beneficial to his people, to whom he

was a liberal and enlightened sovereign. He died in 601.

The reigns of the eleven kings who followed Recared were uneventful and but little is known of them. Their names and the dates of their reigns are as follows: Liuva, 601 to 603; Witeric, 603 to 610; Gundemar, 610 to 612; Sisebert, 612 to 621; Recared II., who reigned three months; Swintila, 621 to 631; Sisenand, 631 to 636; Chintila, 636 to 640; Tulga, 640 to 642; Chindaswind, 642 to 649; Receswind, 649 to 672. Of these kings the most noted were Sisebert, who won signal successes over the Basques, wrested a number of fortresses from the imperialists, and persecuted the Jews; Swintila, who reduced all the fortresses of the imperialists, and so ended forever their influence in Spain; and Receswind, who ruled his kingdom with a firm hand, putting down all opposition to him with vigor and promptness, and who caused the enactment of a law by which future kings were required to transmit their wealth to their *successors on the throne*, and not to their children.

At the death of Receswind the choice of the Gothic electors fell upon Wamba, whose virtues and wisdom were well known to the whole nation. For a long time he refused the crown, but was at length compelled to accept it by the threat of death in case of his continued refusal. Soon after his accession, in 673, revolts broke out in various parts of the kingdom. Wamba, who had accepted the crown with so much reluctance, was prompt, now that he had assumed it, to maintain its authority. He put down the outbreaks with rapidity and firmness, and compelled the rebels to sue for mercy. He banished from his kingdom all the Jews who refused to be baptized, and so drove many into nominal baptism to escape exile, but left them greatly exasperated against him. He defeated an attempt of the Arabs, who had conquered the northern shore of Africa, to invade Spain, and had he been succeeded by monarchs of equal vigor and prudence, the subsequent conquest of Spain by the Saracens would have been impossible. He was rigidly just and incorruptible in the administration of his kingdom, uniting moderation with firmness, and was greatly beloved by his people. On the 14th of October, 680, the king fell ill and quickly passed into a comatose state. His attendants, supposing him dead, prepared him for burial, in

accordance with the custom of the times, by shaving his head and enveloping him in a penitential habit. "In other words, he was transformed from a layman into a member of the monastic profession," and was thus rendered incapable of holding the throne. He recovered his consciousness within twenty-four hours, but his fate had been irrevocably decided for him, and he was compelled to retire into a monastery, where he died some years later.

Wamba was succeeded by Ervigius, a nephew of King Chindaswind. His reign was uneventful; he died in 687 and was succeeded by Egica, a brother of Wamba, whose reign is memorable chiefly for the severe laws against the Jews, who were suspected of seeking to induce the Arabs of northern Africa to invade Spain. Witiza, the son of Egica, came to the throne in 701. The first part of his reign appears to have been just and prosperous, but in the end he became a cruel and lustful tyrant. His last years are enveloped in uncertainty, but it seems that his cruelties provoked a rebellion against him, headed by Roderic, a powerful noble. All that is known with certainty is, that in 709 Witiza's reign came to an end and Roderic ascended the throne of the Goths.

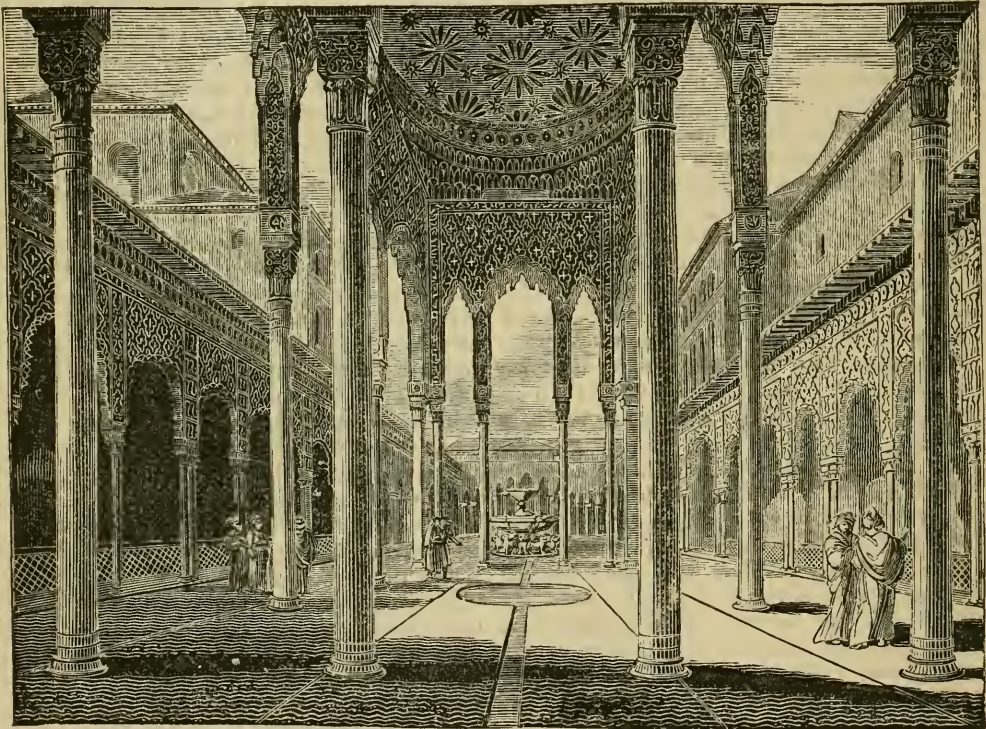
Roderic does not appear to have been much better than his predecessor. He soon raised up a powerful opposition. The relatives of Witiza, at the head of whom was Count Julian, refused to recognize his authority. According to some writers, Count Julian was governor of the fortresses of Tangier and Ceuta, on the African shore opposite Gibraltar. King Roderic, having dishonored the Lady Florinda, the only daughter of Julian, the father resolved to be revenged upon the Gothic king, and invited the Saracens to invade Spain, and placed in their hands the African fortresses commanding the entrance into that country. Other authorities deny the story of Florinda, and state that Julian was influenced in making his offer by his loyalty to the house of Witiza and his hatred of Roderic, whom he regarded as a usurper. Be this as it may, it is certain that Julian, as one of the leaders of the opposition to Roderic, placed the African fortresses in the hands of the Saracen General Muza. It can hardly be supposed that the discontented Goths desired the conquest or possession of the peninsula by the Moslems, or that they clearly foresaw that such would

be the result. The Spanish writers generally intimate that Count Julian "little expected the horrors which ensued."

Muza, the Mohammedan leader in Africa, acted with caution even after he had gotten the African fortresses into his hands. At length, having satisfied himself that the splendor of the Gothic monarchy merely covered a state rotten to the core, he prepared for the invasion of Spain. On the 30th of April, 711, a strong force under Tarik, a veteran and skilful leader, landed at Gibraltar, which obtains its name (Gibaltarik, mountain of Tarik) from him. The

before them. Within ten years from the landing of Tarik the Moslems had overrun all of Spain save the mountainous districts of Asturias, Cantabria, and Navarre. Into this region the Christians retired, and under their King Pelayo, whom they chose as Roderic's successor, successfully resisted all the efforts of the Saracens to dislodge them.

The Saracen conquest of Spain was accompanied with great cruelty on the part of the conquerors. The country was at first held as a province of the Eastern khalifate, and was governed by viceroys. In 732, as



COURT OF LIONS—ALHAMBRA.

first resistance of the Goths was overcome, and Tarik advanced rapidly northward. Roderic assembled all his forces to meet him, but was defeated and slain in a great battle at Xeres de la Frontera, on the western bank of the Gaudaleta. This victory was followed by the rapid conquest of southern Spain. Cordova, Malaga, and Toledo were taken, and, Tarik having been joined by Muza, his superior, with fresh forces, Seville and Merida were taken. In spite of the dissensions between Muza and Tarik, the Arabs steadily pushed their conquests northward, forcing the Goths back

has been related, the Saracens felt themselves strong enough to attempt the conquest of western Europe. An immense host, recruited from all parts of Asia and Africa, passed the Pyrenees, and entered southern France. It was utterly routed by the Franks under Charles Martel, in the great battle of Tours, and driven back into Spain.

The reigns of the viceroys lasted forty years, and in the whole of that period there was little else but civil war among the Mohammedan factions. "So mutable had been the government that twenty different

emirs had been called or had raised themselves to direct it. Jealousy, hatred, distrust of one another, open revolt, successful rebellions, forced submission, and a longing for revenge, with regard to the viceroys, had perpetually signalized the administration of the Arabs. The khalifs were too remote and too much occupied with nearer interests to apply a reasonable remedy to those evils; the Governors of Almagreb had lost their delegated jurisdiction; yet at this very time, when no sheik or wali would recognize a superior—when the Mohammedan society of the peninsula was thus fearfully disorganized—the Christians of the Asturias were consolidating their infant power, and were naturally alive to every advantage that could be gained over the odious strangers." The more thoughtful of the Arab chiefs recognized the danger to which the unsettled state of their conquests exposed them, and resolved to avert it by erecting Spain into an independent monarchy. Accordingly about eighty of them assembled at Cordova, and agreed to offer the crown of the new kingdom to Abderahman, the last surviving son of the last khalif of the line of the Ommiyades (or descendants of Omar), who had escaped the massacre of his family by the Khalif Abbas, and was then in concealment in northern Africa. It was necessary to act with secrecy, however, lest the matter should come to the ears of Yussuf, the reigning Viceroy of the Khalif of Damascus. A deputation was sent to Africa, and the crown was offered to Abderahman, who promptly accepted it, and set out for Spain accompanied by a force of 750 well-armed horsemen. He landed on the coast of Andalusia early in 755, and was received by the people with enthusiasm. He soon found himself at the head of a considerable army. During the year he defeated the forces of the viceroy in several hard-fought battles, and finally compelled him to surrender. The entire peninsula, except the northern mountains, which were held by the Christians, now acknowledged Abderahman as king. He fixed his capital at Cordova, which he greatly improved and strengthened. Though the great bulk of the Mohammedans in Spain were warmly attached to Abderahman, the house of Abbas still had many partisans in the peninsula. These greatly disturbed the reign of the king by their frequent insurrections, to quell which required many active and hard-fought cam-

paigns. In one of these struggles Charlemagne made an expedition into Spain in aid of the rebels, as we have related. The result was the addition of a portion of Spain to the empire of the Frankish monarch. Soon after the return of Charlemagne to his own dominions Abderahman recovered the territory thus lost. The Saracen king had several wars with the Christian kingdom of Asturias, but did not succeed in conquering it. In A. D. 787 Abderahman died. He was a just and generous king, scrupulously honorable in all his dealings, a lover of justice, and a promoter of religion. He founded schools and encouraged literature in his kingdom. "Mohammedan Spain wanted a hero and legislator to lay the first stone of her prosperity, and she found both in him."

Abderahman was succeeded by his youngest son, Hixem the Good. This monarch endeavored to conquer the Christian kingdom of Asturias, but was defeated. He died in 796, and was succeeded by his son, Alhakem, a whimsical tyrant. In 807 Louis, the son of Charlemagne, invaded Spain, and took a number of fortified places. The territory thus acquired was erected by Charlemagne into "the Spanish March," and a governor was appointed, whose residence was fixed at Barcelona.

The Moorish kingdom of Spain lasted for three centuries. At first its spiritual allegiance was paid to the Khalif of Bagdad (the Eastern khalif having removed from Damascus to Bagdad in the reign of Abderahman I.), but in A. D. 912 Abderahman III. took the title of khalif, and from this time until the decay of the Moorish power there was a Khalif of Cordova as well as a Khalif of Bagdad. Under the Moorish sovereigns of Spain the peninsula attained a high degree of prosperity; agriculture, commerce, science and art flourished, and the schools of the Spanish Mohammedans became so justly celebrated that they attracted students from all parts of Christian Europe. Under these sovereigns the Jews of Spain passed their happiest days in Europe, and it was during this period that the mediæval literature of the Hebrews reached its highest development. The Moors deprived the Christians who remained among them of their civil rights, but protected them in the free exercise of their religion. The manners and customs of the Moors prevailed throughout the greater part of Spain, and during these

centuries the peninsula was as thoroughly Arab as the opposite shores of Africa.

Early in the eleventh century the khalifate of Cordova became the prey of internal dissensions. These rapidly sapped its power, and in 1031, only thirty years after the reign of Almansor, one of the most powerful of the khalifs, it ceased to exist. "It can scarcely be said to have declined; it fell at once. . . . Other kingdoms, indeed, as powerful as Cordova, have been as speedily, perhaps, deprived of their independence; but if they have been subdued by invading enemies, their resources, their vigor, to a certain extent their greatness, have long survived their loss of that blessing. Cordova, in the very fulness of her strength, was torn to pieces by her turbulent children."

Upon the ruins of the khalifate of Cordova a number of petty states sprang up, always at variance among themselves; and thus affording the Christians of the north the opportunity of extending their dominions at the expense of the Saracens. For two centuries—from A. D. 1031 to 1238—Mohammedan Spain continued thus divided.

At length, in 1238, the kingdom of Granada was founded by Mohammed Ben Alhamar, a great and warlike sovereign, who collected in his new realm the great body of his countrymen whom the steadily advancing arms of the Christians had driven southward. For two centuries Granada continued a prosperous and powerful state, inhabited by a numerous population. It became celebrated for its culture and refinement, of which the beautiful Castle of the Alhambra is a lasting monument; art and science flourished; and the kingdom was adorned with noble and useful public works.

In the meantime the Christian kingdom of Asturias and Leon, founded by Pelayo, had flourished in spite of all the efforts of the Saracens to crush it. It was at first confined to the district of Oviedo. A state of constant war was maintained with the Saracens, and in the course of time the Christians were enabled to extend their territories southward. Alfonso I., called "the Catholic," the third sovereign, and the son-in-law of Pelayo, came to the throne in 739. He conquered Galicia, and parts of Leon and Castile, annexed them to his dominions, and took the title of King of Asturias. Alfonso III., who became king

in 866, conquered the whole of Leon, and removed his capital to the city of Leon. During his reign, in the year 873, Navarre became independent of Asturias, and eventually grew into a powerful kingdom. About 982 Castile, which had been subject to Leon, recovered its independence, and early in the next century it was erected by its rulers into a kingdom. In 1037 Ferdinand I., called the Great, united the kingdom of Leon with Castile, and the new state was from this time the strongest power in Spain. In 1035 Aragon, which had formed a part of the kingdom of Navarre, became an independent kingdom under Ramiro I. Fernando I., at his death, in 1065, gave his crown of Asturias and Leon to his son, Alfonso VI., and Castile to Sancho II., his eldest son. In 1071, at the death of Sancho, between whom and his brother there had been almost constant war, Alfonso VI. secured the crown of Castile, and so united the two kingdoms again. At his death he divided his dominions among his children.

During all this time the Christian kings of the north had been pressing the Moors farther southward. The growing weakness and divisions of the khalifate of Cordova enabled them to do this with comparative ease, and the state of affairs which followed the fall of that monarchy gave them an opportunity of greatly increasing their dominions, by which they were quick to profit. Alfonso VI., of Leon and Castile, won back the old capital of Toledo, and came near driving the Moors out of Spain. To this reign belong the romantic exploits of the Cid, the great hero of Spanish history, whose career belongs more to the realms of fiction than to the domain of sober history. Alfonso destroyed the Moorish kingdom of Toledo, made that city his residence, and gave to his conquests the name of New Castile. About 1095 Alfonso erected Portugal into a separate county. In 1139 it renounced its allegiance to Leon and Castile, and became a separate kingdom.

During the twelfth century the kingdom of Aragon grew rapidly in strength and importance. In 1118 Alfonso I. of Aragon took Saragossa, the chief city of eastern Spain, from the Moors.

Little by little the Christians pushed the Moors southward, and made themselves masters of Spain. Towards the middle of the twelfth century the peninsula contained the Moorish kingdoms of Cordova and Granada, and the Christian kingdoms of

Aragon, Navarre, Castile, Leon, and Portugal. The Christian kingdoms were generally divided against each other, especially after the death of Alfonso VIII. in 1159. The Saracens on the other hand, though divided among themselves, presented a solid front to the Christians, and with the aid of fresh recruits from Africa, maintained their hold upon Andalusia. Towards the close of the eleventh century the Moorish sect of the Almoravides, who had established their dynasty in Morocco, invaded Spain, overthrew the kingdom of Seville, and rapidly brought the other Moorish territories in Spain under their sway. Towards the latter part of the twelfth century this dynasty was overthrown in Africa by the Almohades, to whom Moorish Spain was compelled to submit. The khalifs of this house were enabled by the dissensions of the Christian states to win back some of the territory that had been lost by the Moors.

The death of the Almohade Khalif Jacob (Yacub Ben Yusef), the greatest of his line, in A. D. 1198, relieved the Christians of a formidable enemy. Putting an end to their quarrels they combined, and inflicted a severe defeat upon the Moors in the great battle of the Navas de Tolosa, in 1212. This terrible blow was fatal to the Moorish power in Spain, which from this time declined steadily.

In 1217 Ferdinand III., called Saint Ferdinand, came to the throne of Castile. He reigned until 1252. In 1230 he united the crowns of Castile and Leon, which were never again separated, and extending his territories southward at the expense of the Moors, won back a large portion of the peninsula, including the cities of Seville and Cordova.

While Castile and Leon were thus advancing, Aragon and Portugal were steadily pushing their conquests in the east and west of the peninsula. Aragon, as we have seen in narrating the history of other countries, was the only Spanish kingdom which concerned itself with European affairs at this period. The greatest of the Kings of Aragon was James the Conqueror, who reigned from 1213 to 1276. His son Pedro married the daughter of Manfred, King of Sicily, and thus began the connection between Aragon and the Sicilies. Castile and Portugal were the principal states engaged in the work of redeeming the peninsula from the Moors, who were finally driven

within the southern part of Spain, where in 1238 they set up the kingdom of Granada. The northern frontier of this kingdom was formed by a chain of high mountains, which protected it like a wall, and for two centuries enabled it to resist the attacks of the Christians.

The history of the Spanish kingdoms during the fourteenth century is unimportant. The Moors were confined to their kingdom of Granada, and though there were several wars between them and the kingdom of Castile and Leon, now the most powerful of the Spanish states, yet were they compelled to remain within the line of the southern mountains. The Christian kingdoms passed the century in quarrelling with each other. In Castile Pedro the Cruel came to the throne in 1350. His cruelties rendered him odious to his people, and his murder of his wife, Blanche of Bourbon, sister of the Queen of France, drew upon him the hostility of the French king. At length his brother, Henry of Trastamara, took up arms against him, but was driven out of the kingdom. He fled to the French court, and asked aid of Charles V., who sent Du Guesclin with an army to assist him. As has been related, the expedition was successful. Pedro was forced to fly the kingdom, and Henry ascended the throne. Pedro fled to Bordeaux and engaged the assistance of the Black Prince, who marched into Spain, defeated Henry and Du Guesclin at Navarrette, in April, 1367, and restored Pedro to his throne. Pedro had promised to pay the expenses of the war, but upon regaining his throne broke his word, and left the Black Prince to bear the burden alone, thus alienating his only friend. The next year the King of France sent Du Guesclin again into Spain, and Pedro was driven from the throne of Castile, and was soon after slain by Henry, who was formally acknowledged King of Castile and Leon.

The fifteenth century saw Spain suddenly come into prominence as one of the great powers of Europe. During the long minority of John II. the kingdom of Castile and Leon was ruled by the Constable Alvaro de Luna, the most powerful noble of the kingdom, as regent. His rule was so oppressive that the nobles, with John at their head, rose against him and caused him to be executed at Valladolid. John was succeeded by his son Henry IV., who died in 1474. As Henry left no

male heirs, his sister Isabella inherited the crown.

Aragon, to which kingdom Catalonia had been united since 1137, was the third naval power of Europe, ranking next to Venice

ried Blanche, Queen of Navarre. The son by this marriage, Charles, was at the death of Queen Blanche the rightful heir to the crown of Navarre, but his father refused to allow him to ascend the throne. Charles



MARRIAGE OF FERDINAND AND ISABELLA.

and Genoa. The King of Aragon was also King of Naples and Sicily. Alfonso V. resided in his Italian kingdom, and his brother John II., of Aragon, governed his Spanish possessions as viceroy. John mar-

then took refuge with his uncle Alfonso in Naples. After Alfonso's death he was recalled to Spain and made to believe that no opposition would be offered to his accession to the Navarrese throne. Soon after

his arrival in Spain he died, poisoned, it was thought, by his stepmother Joanna, John's second wife. The true heir to Navarre was now Charles' sister Blanche, but the kingdom had been promised by treaty to the Count of Foix, who had married Eleanor, the younger sister of Charles. Blanche fell into the hands of her sister, by whom she was poisoned in 1464. John II. was succeeded by his son Ferdinand. The Catalans believing that Queen Joanna, Ferdinand's mother, was the real author of the crimes just mentioned, refused to swear allegiance to him. A civil war ensued, which lasted eleven years. The Catalans were forced to submit, and Ferdinand became undisputed King of Aragon in 1479. Previous to this, Ferdinand married Queen Isabella of Castile and Leon, in 1471, and from this time, except for a very short period, the crowns of Aragon and Castile were united. Thus was formed the modern kingdom of Spain.

The first efforts of Ferdinand and Isabella were to curb the power of the lawless nobles and establish the reign of law in their dominions. It was the custom in both realms for the sovereign to preside once a week over a court of justice, in which the poor, who were unable to employ counsel, might plead their own cause. In 1480 Isabella, after a long and painful hesitation, consented to join her more bigoted husband in establishing the Inquisition in Spain as a royal court for the punishment of heresy and similar offences. The next year 2,000 persons were burned at the stake in Spain, and 17,000 others suffered punishments less severe, by order of this terrible tribunal.

The Spanish sovereigns did not confine their efforts to the ignoble work of persecuting their subjects. A more glorious enterprise now claimed their zeal. For several centuries the Moors had been confined to the kingdom of Granada. In the arts and sciences they had far surpassed their Christian rivals, and in architecture especially they had attained a degree of beauty, at which travellers still wonder. In spite of these achievements, however, the Moors had not escaped the fate of other nations. Dissensions had greatly weakened them, and at length the rebellion of Boabdil against his father, the reigning king, plunged the kingdom into a disastrous civil war. Taking advantage of this war, the Spanish sovereigns began to push their conquests beyond the mountains. In 1487

Malaga was captured after a siege of three months; other places followed, and at last, in 1492, Granada, the capital of the Moorish kingdom, after a gallant but fruitless defence, surrendered to Ferdinand and Isabella. The Moors passed over to the African shore to rejoin their countrymen, and all Spain was united under Ferdinand and Isabella. The conquest of the Moorish kingdom was regarded as a fitting offset to the loss of Constantinople. Unhappily, Ferdinand and Isabella signalized their victory by expelling all the Jews from their dominions. Several hundred thousand Jews were obliged to quit the kingdom, and the little time allowed them for their preparations entailed the greatest hardships and suffering upon them. Spain thus lost one of the most useful, and one of the wealthiest classes of her people. The exiles settled principally in the Mohammedan dominions, where they were kindly received. "You call this a wise sovereign," said Bajazet II. scornfully, "who impoverishes his kingdom to enrich mine."

It was during this reign that Columbus discovered America under the auspices of the crown of Castile and Leon. The narration of his voyages belongs to another portion of this work.

The union of the Spanish states by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella was the beginning of the greatness of Spain, which must be from this time counted among the great powers of Europe. The expulsion of the French from Naples by Gonsalvo of Cordova, in 1503, gave the crown of the Two Sicilies to Ferdinand, whose power was thereby greatly increased. In A. D. 1504 Queen Isabella died, and the last check upon the selfishness and meanness of Ferdinand was removed. Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, was married to Philip, Archduke of Austria, the son of the Emperor Maximilian and Mary of Burgundy. Philip and Joanna succeeded Isabella in Castile and Leon, while Ferdinand continued to reign in Aragon and the Two Sicilies. Philip died in 1506, and, as Joanna was insane, Ferdinand became once more the actual ruler of all Spain. Joanna's son Charles remained under the guardianship of his grandfather Maximilian. The part which Ferdinand played in the affairs of Italy and France has been related in the history of those countries. Towards the close of his reign he was able to increase his dominions

by the conquest of the little kingdom of Navarre, which became a part of the kingdom of Castile. The Kings of Navarre from this time were restricted to the principality of Bearn, on the French side of the Pyrenees. Ferdinand died in 1516.

Sicilies, for his mother's mental condition was hopeless. In 1520, upon the death of his paternal grandfather Maximilian, he was elected emperor, as has been related. He was Charles I. of Spain; but as emperor, was Charles V. of Germany, by



MALAGA.

Charles, the son of Philip of Austria and Joanna of Spain, had assumed in 1515 the government of the Low Countries which he had inherited from his father. Upon the death of his grandfather Ferdinand he inherited the crowns of Spain and the Two

which name he is known in history. The events of his reign have been related already as far as they concern other countries. It remains to mention those connected with the history of Spain.

At the death of Ferdinand Charles was

in the Netherlands. He was at once proclaimed king at Madrid by the Spanish prime minister, Cardinal Ximenes. To the energy and fidelity of this able minister Charles owed his undisputed accession. It was not until the autumn of 1517, however, that Charles visited Spain. He took with him a large train of Flemings, who made themselves very unpopular in that country by their insolence and rapacity. Cardinal Ximenes, venturing to remonstrate with the king, was removed from his offices, and this ingratitude caused his death. Charles now advanced his Flemish favorites to the offices and dignities of the kingdom with such recklessness that the Castilian cities addressed to him a remonstrance upon the subject, which he treated with contempt. The Spaniards were greatly displeased by the acceptance of the imperial crown by Charles, and the cortes could scarcely be prevailed upon to grant him the means of maintaining his new dignity.

During the absence of Charles in Germany, Andrew de Foix, a relative of the deposed King of Navarre, invaded and made himself master of the greater part of that kingdom. About the same time the Spaniards, indignant at the absence of Charles from Spain, rose in insurrection, and, obtaining possession of the insane Queen Joanna, endeavored to use her authority in their attempt to expel the regent appointed by the king. The junta of the insurgents presented a memorial to Charles demanding that he should reside in Spain, and should not confer any office, civil or ecclesiastical, upon a foreigner. They also required that he should summon a cortes or legislative assembly at least once in three years, and that no member of this body should receive any reward or pension from the king. Other measures, equally just, were demanded; but the demands were all rejected by Charles, and a civil war ensued, which resulted in the triumph of the king and in the more complete establishment of the royal authority.

Profiting by the lessons of this rebellion, Charles fixed his permanent residence in Spain, and by treating the rebels with great clemency made himself extremely popular with his subjects. He adopted the dress, language and manners of the country, and excluded foreigners from office in the church as well as the state. While thus complying with the just wishes of his people, he took care to strengthen his own

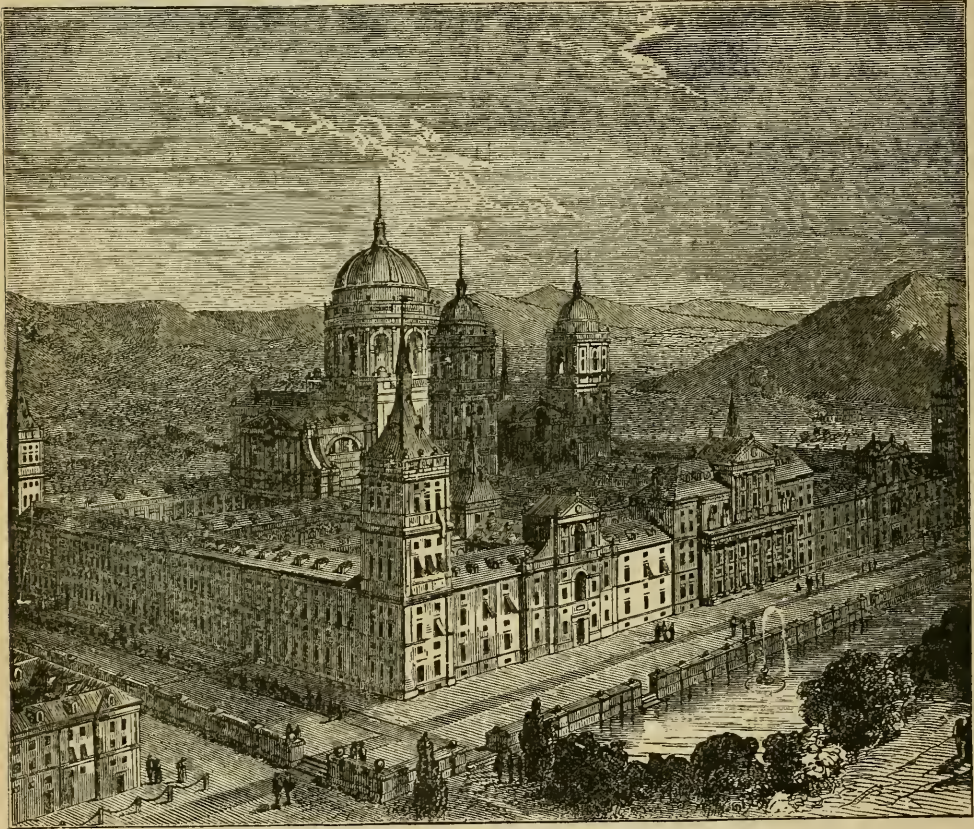
power at their expense. He compelled the three houses of the cortes to meet in separate places, thus preventing a concert of action between them, and permitted no debate except in the presence of a presiding officer appointed by himself. In contrast with his condescension to the Spaniards was his treatment of the Moors, a large number of whom still remained in Spain. These had been promised at the conquest of Granada the free exercise of their religion. Charles, who scrupled at no disgraceful act where he thought he could derive advantage from it, now broke the pledge of his predecessors, and in 1525 commanded the Moors to change their faith or quit the kingdom. Their mosques were closed, and their copies of the Koran confiscated. In order to prevent them from reaching Africa all the ports but Corunna, in the extreme north, were closed to them. Somewhat later an edict was issued consigning all, who refused to change their faith, to slavery. The Moors were a refined and cultivated people—the superiors of the Spaniards in this respect—and this inhuman order threw them into despair. About 100,000 succeeded in reaching Africa, but others took up arms, and large numbers were slain. Some adopted the religion and language of the country, but were, even after this, reduced to the most humiliating condition of life. The cruelty of the king struck a severe blow at the prosperity of his kingdom, to which prosperity the Moors had contributed in a marked degree.

Charles remained eight years in Spain, during which time his wars with the French in Italy were conducted by his able generals. In 1529 he went to Italy to settle the affairs of that country and to receive the imperial crown from the pope. After his return he undertook an expedition against the famous Barbarossa, the King of Algiers, who had seized Tunis, and was keeping the whole Mediterranean region in terror by his piracies. Barbarossa was driven out of Tunis, the rightful king of that country was restored, and he engaged to suppress piracy and protect the Christians in the exercise of their religion. Thousands of captives were liberated by the emperor, who fed, clothed, and sent them back to Europe. This spirited expedition raised the emperor's credit to a high state throughout Europe.

In 1539 the people of the Netherlands,

which were a part of the Spanish possessions, having been inherited by Charles from his father, were driven into rebellion by the excessive taxation to which they were subjected. They appealed to Francis I. for aid, but the French king betrayed them to the emperor, and gave Charles a passage through his dominions into Flanders, as has been related. Charles entered Ghent, his native city, on the 1st of January, 1540. He was met by the principal

In the mean time the fleet of Barbarossa had become so troublesome in the Mediterranean that the emperor, in 1541, undertook a second expedition to Africa against him. His fleet was wrecked, the expedition was defeated by storms and pestilence, and in December, 1541, he returned with the wreck of his once formidable force to Spain. The Spaniards, who had not been molested at home by the pirates, had refused to grant supplies for this expedition.



THE ESCURIAL—THE RESIDENCE OF THE KINGS OF SPAIN.

citizens, who asked pardon on their knees. They found they had to deal with a master in whose breast neither forgiveness nor generosity had any place. The emperor caused twenty of the principal magistrates to be beheaded. The old Abbey of St. Bavon, in whose tower hung the great bell Roland, the notes of which had often roused the Flemings to the defence of their rights, was destroyed. The commercial prosperity of Ghent was ended by the transfer of its privileges to Antwerp.

In return the emperor ceased to convoke the cortes, and, as neither the sovereign nor the nobles would make any concession to the other side, the will of the king began to be the only law which prevailed in the kingdom.

The events of the latter part of the reign of Charles concerned Italy and Germany more than Spain, and have been related in connection with the history of those countries. In 1555 the emperor, who was worn out with the cares and disap-

pointments which had been gradually thickening about him, began to put in execution the design he had long contemplated, of withdrawing from public life. In October of that year he recalled his son Philip, who had married Mary of England, and in an assembly at Brussels conferred upon him the sovereignty of the Netherlands. The seventeen provinces thus confided to Philip comprised the duchies of Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg, and Guelders; the counties of Artois, Flanders, Hainault, Namur, Zutphen, Holland, and Zealand; the margravate of Antwerp; and the baronies of Mechlin, Utrecht, Friesland, Overysse, and Groningen. A few weeks later the emperor resigned to Philip the crowns of Spain and the Two Sicilies, with the Spanish dominions in Asia, Africa and America. Then, resigning the imperial crown in favor of his brother Ferdinand, Charles sailed from Flushing to Spain, where he entered the monastery of San Yuste, in Estramadura. He died there on the 21st of September, 1558.

Philip II. began his reign with a war with the pope, as has been related. His conscience troubled him sorely about this struggle, which he regarded as impious, and he was glad to make peace. He had married Mary of England, and had resided some years in that country, where he was hated. It was a relief to him to return to his own dominions when summoned by his father, and notwithstanding his wife's appeals, he was fully determined to remain away from her. In 1557, in order to draw England into an alliance with him in his war with France, he made a last brief visit to that country, and secured his object by threatening to desert his wife if she refused to help him. His army was commanded by Emmanuel Filibert, Duke of Savoy, and the war resulted to his advantage and England's loss, as has been related. During the wars of the Emperor Charles and those of the early part of Philip's reign the Spanish infantry acquired a renown which caused them to be regarded as invincible. The Spanish conquests in America had become a source of great wealth to the crown, and it was believed would yield still greater riches. This wealth and the valor of her troops made Spain the most formidable power in Europe during this century.

By the treaty of Catteau Cambresis the sovereigns of France and Spain had bound themselves by a secret article to take vigor-

ous measures for the suppression of heresy within their dominions. Philip was a man of gloomy and morose disposition, stern, haughty, and cruel, and withal a most bigoted Catholic. As may be supposed the spirit of the Reformation, which had affected all Europe so powerfully, had not left Spain entirely untouched. The constant intercourse between that country and Germany during the reign of Charles V. had caused the Lutheran doctrines to be well known in Spain, and many persons had adopted them. Bibles in the Castilian tongue were generally to be found in the houses of the nobles and the middle class.



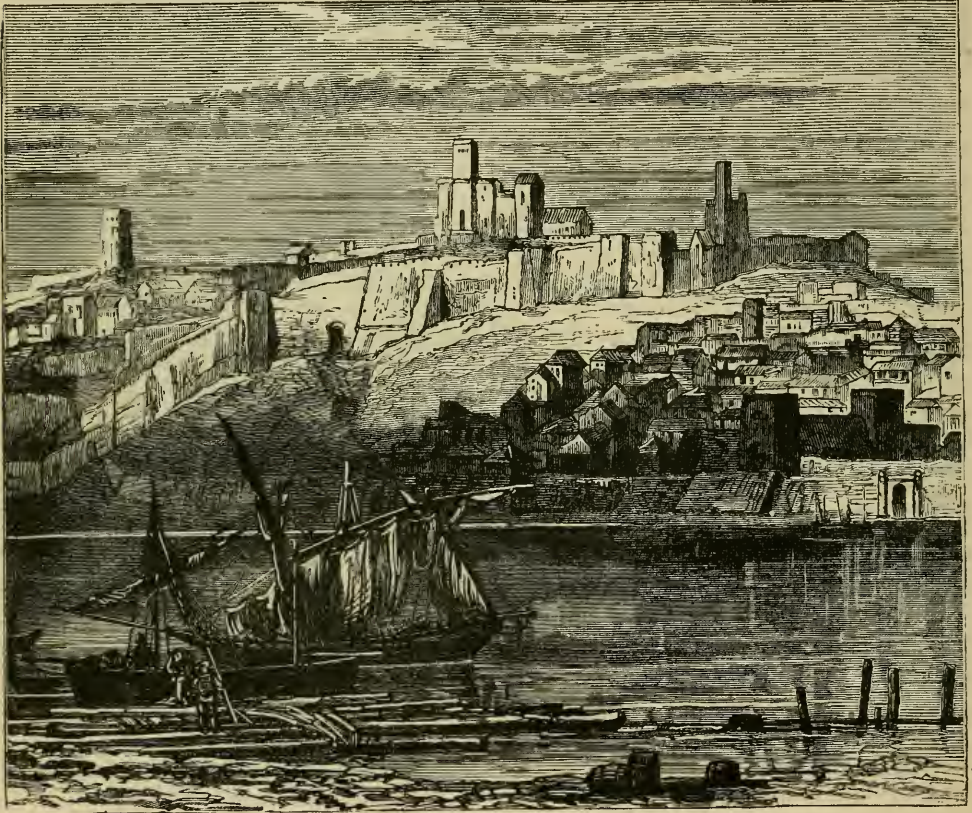
PHILIP II.

Philip was greatly alarmed by these signs of heresy, and at once set the Inquisition to work to rid his kingdom of the evil. By a cruel persecution he succeeded in banishing the Bible and the Protestant doctrines from Spain. He also struck down by the same blow freedom of thought, and threw his kingdom back into the barbarism from which it has never yet emerged.

At the same time Philip revived the cruelties of his father toward the Christian Moors who still remained in Spain. They inhabited the region of the Alpujarras, and were known as Moriscoes. Though they were nominally Christians, they secretly maintained their old faith. In 1566 Philip,

by an edict ordered them to discontinue the use of their native language, to cease to bestow Moorish names upon their offspring, and to send all their children between the ages of three and fifteen to Spanish schools. In 1567 the Moors, driven to despair, took up arms, and murdered the Christian inhabitants of the region. The war which Philip had thus provoked raged with great cruelty for four years. The Moors were almost exterminated, and in 1571 the revolt came to an end.

In 1580, the throne of Portugal being vacant, was claimed by several candidates. The most powerful of these was Philip of Spain. Dom Antonio, the nephew of Sebastian, the last king, was crowned by the Portuguese party, but Philip sent an army into Portugal under the Duke of Alva, who soon drove out Dom Antonio, conquered the country, and compelled the Portuguese to acknowledge Philip as their sovereign. He conducted the war with a brutality and cruelty equalled only by his conduct in the



BADAJOZ.

In the Netherlands Philip was not so successful. His efforts to force the Roman Catholic religion upon the people cost him, as we shall see in another part of this work, the larger part of that rich and prosperous country, which was forever lost to Spain, and brought ruin and suffering upon the provinces that remained in the possession of the Spanish crown. The events of the struggle between Spain and the Netherlands will be related in the history of the latter country, and we pass them by for the present.

Netherlands. With the kingdom the foreign possessions of Portugal in Brazil, Africa, and the Indies passed into Philip's hands.

In the summer of 1588 Philip despatched against England the expedition known as the Invincible Armada. The fate of this expedition has been related. He intended the conquest of England as a preliminary to a similar attempt upon Holland. He spent large sums upon the preparation of the fleet, and its failure caused him serious financial embarrassment. In 1589 the

English attacked Lisbon, and destroyed a number of vessels laden with supplies for a new armada. In 1595 a combined English and Dutch fleet attacked the Spanish fleet in the harbor of Cadiz, defeated it and captured the town. In 1596 a second armada which Philip had collected for the invasion of England was scattered by a tempest.

On the 13th of September, 1598, Philip II. died, after a reign of forty-two years. He inherited from his father the most powerful monarchy in Christendom. He was a diligent ruler, but he did nothing but bring misfortune upon his people. He ruthlessly crushed the freedom and civilization of Spain, and drove that country back into the depths of mediæval ignorance from which it was seeking to escape; he ruined Portugal; lost the provinces of the Netherlands which formed the Dutch republic; and reduced those which he succeeded in retaining to beggary. Notwithstanding his possession of the wealth of the Indies, the Spanish treasury at his death was bankrupt. He made himself odious to the whole world by his cruelties, and among his victims was his eldest son Don Carlos, whom he drove to madness and death. He seemed to delight in the sufferings of others, and was insensible to the better and nobler feelings of our nature. He was a devoted Catholic, and the greater part of his cruelties was due to his bigoted determination to crush the Reformation in his dominions. He was succeeded by his youngest and only surviving son, who ascended the throne as Philip III.

A considerable part of the history of Spain during the seventeenth century has been related in connection with the history of Germany, France, and England, and need not be repeated here. At the commencement of the reign of Philip III., Spain, which had passed out of the hands of the Emperor Charles V. at the height of her power and glory, had fairly entered upon her decline. The bigoted policy of Philip II. had robbed her of her great advantages and had laid the foundations of her ruin; but she was still a great and formidable state at his death. It remained for his successors to complete his work.

Philip III. continued his father's policy of ruin. Within two years after his accession to the throne, he brought the persecution of the Moriscoes, which had continued throughout the reign of Philip II., to a summary end by commanding the survivors

to depart from Spain. The export of gold from the kingdom was forbidden, and the unhappy people were thus compelled to abandon the greater part of their property, which was seized by the state. Their exile was conducted with the greatest cruelty. Over 130,000 set out for Africa. Of these over 95,000 died of hunger and exhaustion on the way; 100,000 others passed into France, but were required to adopt the Roman Catholic religion as a condition of their remaining in the kingdom. They refused to do so, and were ordered to withdraw. While seeking the means of leaving France, so many died in the ports of that kingdom that only a wreck of the multitude that had entered it succeeded in getting out of it. Their loss was severely felt in Spain. Whole districts among the most productive in the kingdom lay idle for want of cultivators, and the prosperity of the country received a severe blow. Philip III. died in March, 1621, and was succeeded by his son Philip IV., then sixteen years old.

Under the new king, who was in many respects superior to his father, the decay of the greatness of Spain went on with rapidity. The part which Spain took in the Thirty Years' War has been related. She gained nothing by this contest, all her earlier advantages being wrested from her as the war progressed. During the latter part of the war the Spanish forces were obliged to suppress a revolt in their own country. During the campaign of 1639-40 the outrages of the Spanish army quartered in Biscay and Catalonia drove those provinces into revolt. An army of 20,000 Spanish troops was sent to put down the outbreak, and did so with such merciless fury that the rebels transferred their allegiance to France in 1641. Biscay and Catalonia were formally united to the French crown. The war with France went on until 1659, when it was closed by the peace of the Pyrenees. Spain was compelled to cede to France Rousillon and the county of Artois. She still held possession of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, the duchy of Milan, the county of Burgundy, and the southern Netherlands. By this treaty the Infanta Maria Theresa was contracted in marriage to Louis XIV. of France.

Until the beginning of the war with France Spain had held possession of Portugal, which had been seized by Philip II. in the last century, as related. For sixty

garrisons the little kingdom was crushed to the earth by the merciless tyranny of Spain. Upon the commencement of the Catalonian insurrection the Portuguese troops were ordered to march against the insurgents. Instead of obeying, they attacked the Spanish forces in their country, defeated them, and proclaimed the Duke of Braganza king, as John IV., A. D. 1640. The Portuguese colonies, with the exception of Ceuta, in Africa, drove out their Spanish garrisons and renewed their allegiance to their mother country. Thus was the independence of Portugal re-established. The house of Braganza still holds the throne in that country, and a branch of it is the reigning family of Brazil.

In 1647 Naples revolted, but was compelled to submit to Spain the next year. This revolt, and the great strain put upon his resources by the Thirty Years' War, compelled Philip IV. to make peace with the United Netherlands, and in January, 1648, Spain signed a treaty with the seven northern provinces of the Netherlands, comprising the Dutch republic, in which she acknowledged them as free and independent states, and made over to them the towns of Dutch Flanders and the conquests of Holland in Asia, Africa, and America.

The treaty of Westphalia did not restore peace between Spain and France, and the war between those countries went on, as has been related, until 1659, and was closed by the peace of the Pyrenees. The events of this part of the war have been related in the *History of France*. By this treaty Spain surrendered the last vestige of the supremacy she had enjoyed in European affairs since the days of Charles V.

Philip IV. died in 1665, and was succeeded by his son Charles II. As Charles was the son of Philip IV. by a second marriage, Louis XIV. of France, whose wife was the eldest child of Philip, claimed the Spanish Netherlands in her right. This brought on a new war between France and Spain, known as the War of the Spanish Succession, the events of which are narrated in the French history of this period. With the exception of this war, the reign of Charles was uneventful.

The treaty of Utrecht stripped Spain of her Italian possessions and the Spanish Netherlands, which were transferred to the house of Austria; Gibraltar and Minorca were ceded to the English; and Spain and Portugal resumed their former boundaries.

Though stripped of her greatness, Spain was still regarded as a formidable power, and her American possessions poured into her coffers a ceaseless stream of wealth. Precious metals to the amount of \$20,000,000 were annually exported to Spain from America, and the products of Central America, the West Indies, Mexico, and South America found their way to the markets of Europe only through the ports of Spain. A fleet was sent once a year from Spain to the ports of Cartagena, Porto Bello, and Vera Cruz, and returned laden with the products of the colonies. A few commercial houses in the mother country controlled this vast trade, and by the laws of the kingdom no foreign vessels could enter any Spanish colonial port for purposes of trade, save once a year, when an English ship was allowed to visit Porto Bello. These narrow-minded restrictions gave rise to an extensive smuggling trade, and filled the waters of the West Indies with pirates.

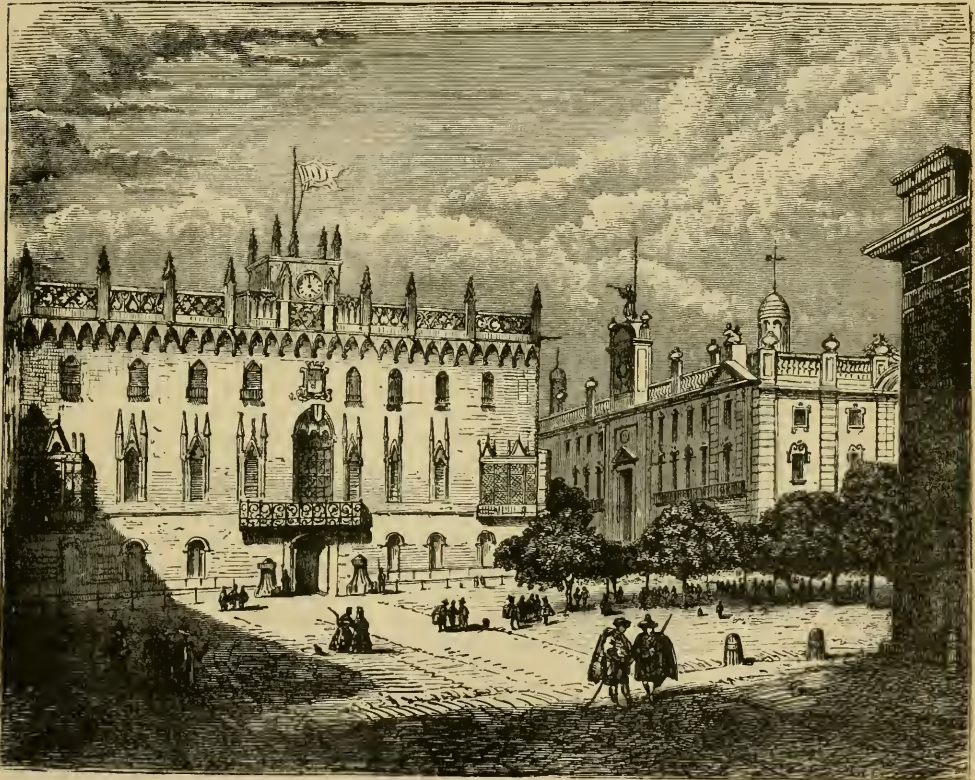
Philip V. was as narrow-minded and bigoted as his predecessors. He placed himself entirely in the hands of the Jesuits, and during his reign 2,346 persons were burned at the stake for their religious views. Philip cherished the hope of succeeding to the French crown in case of the death of Louis XV., whose health was very feeble. In 1723, believing that event close at hand, he abdicated the Spanish throne in favor of his eldest son, Don Louis. The French king suddenly recovered his health, Don Louis died, and Philip resumed the Spanish crown. His daughter had been betrothed to Louis XV., and had been sent to France to reside, as has been related. She was now sent back to Madrid, and Louis XV. married Marie Leszczynski.

In the war of the Polish succession Philip seized Naples and Sicily, where the Austrian rule was detested, and conferred them upon Don Carlos, his son by his second wife, Elizabeth of Parma. He became king as Charles III., and with him began the reign of the Spanish Bourbons at Naples.

In the war of the Austrian succession Philip, as has been related, was the ally of France. Spain was not very successful in this struggle. Philip died suddenly in 1745, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand VI., who withdrew from the alliance and abandoned northern Italy to the Austrians. Spain gained nothing by this war.

During his reign Ferdinand took no part in European affairs. He died in 1759, and was succeeded by his brother, Charles III., who resigned the crown of the Two Sicilies to his third son, who became Ferdinand IV. Charles renewed the alliance with France, and a third family compact bound France and Spain together. Spain agreed to declare war against England in May, 1762, unless peace should be concluded before then. A Spanish army was sent to the Portuguese frontier, and that kingdom was ordered to renounce the

land, in alliance with France, and made great efforts to regain Gibraltar. That post was defended for three years and seven months by the English garrison, under General Elliott, against the most determined assaults, and in the face of extraordinary hardships. During this period Admiral Rodney defeated a Spanish fleet of superior force off Cape St. Vincent. Peace between Spain, France, the United States, and England was signed at Paris on the 3d of September, 1783. Spain received Minorca and Florida, but could not obtain



ROYAL PALACE AT BARCELONA.

English alliance for that of the Bourbons. The Portuguese king at once declared war against Spain and France, and appealed to England for aid. An English fleet and a German and English army were sent to his assistance, and the Spaniards were driven out of Portugal. The allies then invaded Spain, and captured several towns by way of reprisals. At the opposite sides of the world, the English fleet captured Havana, in Cuba, Manilla, and the Philippine islands.

In 1779 Spain declared war against Eng-

Gibraltar, though she offered to purchase it. In 1788 Charles III. died, and was succeeded by his son Charles IV. In 1791 the Spanish king joined the general European movement for the assistance of the dethroned royal family of France and the restoration of the Bourbon monarchy of that country. In 1793 the Convention declared war against Spain. The death of the unhappy young Louis XVII. in the Temple opened the way for a peace between Spain and France, and a treaty was signed between those two countries in July, 1795,

as has been related. This treaty was due mainly to the exertions of the favorite Godoy, a worthless profligate, who received the high-sounding title of "Prince of the Peace." In August, 1796, the treaty of San Ildefonso was signed between France and Spain, and placed the resources of Spain at the disposal of the former country in the war with England. Godoy, in order to secure the favor of the Directory, which pensioned him liberally, made the affairs of Spain entirely subservient to the interests of France. Spanish influence succeeded in withdrawing Portugal from the coalition against France. Thus matters stood at the close of the century.

The history of Spain from the opening of the century until the downfall of Napoleon, in 1815, has been told in the French history of this period, and need not be repeated here.

Upon the return of peace, in 1815, Ferdinand VII. was restored to the throne of his fathers. He at once re-established the Inquisition and the convents, which had been suppressed by the French. Tyranny was restored in its most odious form, and the Spanish people found that all their struggles against Napoleon had ended in the loss of their freedom.

The Spanish colonies in America, encouraged by the example of the United States, had renounced their allegiance to Spain in 1810, upon the fall of Ferdinand, and had proclaimed their independence. Upon his return to his throne Ferdinand set to work to recover these colonies. He made great exertions and spent large sums to reconquer them, but in the end failed, and the dominion of Spain on the American continent came to an end. The struggle with the colonies exhausted the Spanish treasury and left the army unpaid and half mutinous and the nation discontented. The result was a revolution in 1820, which compelled Ferdinand to abolish the Inquisition and the convents, and restore the liberal constitution of 1812. The Holy Alliance now intervened, and demanded the abolition of this constitution and the restoration of absolutism. The cortes refused to comply with this demand, and Spain was invaded in 1823 by a French army under the Duke of Angoulême. The liberals were defeated in every quarter, and Cadiz, their last stronghold, was taken in 1823. Ferdinand VII. was restored to his absolute rule, and proceeded to take vengeance upon

his enemies. The French generals endeavored to incline him to a more liberal course, but he turned a deaf ear to them and punished the liberal leaders that fell into his power with savage cruelty. So great was the discontent of the Spanish people that Ferdinand was only upheld on his throne by the French troops, who remained in Spain for seven years.

In 1833 Ferdinand died, leaving two daughters, the elder of whom was but three years old. In September, 1830, he had issued a pragmatic sanction, which annulled the law excluding women from the Spanish throne. Upon his death his brother, Don Carlos, produced a paper which he claimed was signed by Ferdinand, which revoked the pragmatic sanction, and which Don Carlos offered in support of his own claim to the crown. Spain was at once divided between two parties—the liberals, who supported the regency of the queen-mother, Christina of Naples, and the Carlists, or partisans of Don Carlos. England and France favored the former, but the pope and the northern powers sustained Don Carlos. A civil war ensued, and the liberals finally triumphed, and procured the acknowledgment of the young queen, Isabella II. Don Carlos, however, continued the war until 1840, when he was finally defeated and forced to abandon the struggle.

A considerable party desired that the young queen should marry her cousin, the Count of Montemolin, the son and heir of Don Carlos, a union which would have united all the claims to the crown, and have restored peace to Spain. France and England, however, opposed this union, and Louis Philippe, as we have seen, resolved to make Queen Isabella's marriage the means of strengthening his dynasty. He succeeded in inducing her to marry her cousin, Don Francisco of Assis, who was little better than an idiot, and at the same time married his youngest son, the Duke of Montpensier, to the Princess Maria Louisa, the sister of Queen Isabella, and who, from her more vigorous health, seemed likely to outlive her sister. This cunning scheme, so characteristic of the selfish King of the French, resulted, as we have seen, in more injury than benefit to the Orleans monarchy.

In 1843 Queen Isabella was declared of age, and from this time Spain was governed as a constitutional state. The queen, who was a woman of notoriously evil life,

took but little part in the government, which was administered principally by her favorites and a succession of popular generals. The result was that the kingdom was almost constantly in a state of civil war. In 1868 Gonzales Bravo became prime minister. He caused the arrest and banishment of seven of the leading generals of the army, and also of the Duke and Duchess of Montpensier, the latter of whom the reader will remember was the sister of the queen. The banished generals each had adherents in the army, and a revolution at once broke out. The queen's troops were defeated, and she herself was driven out of Spain. She took refuge in France. The Bourbon dynasty was declared at an end in Spain, and a provisional government was set up in Madrid, with Marshal Serrano, one of the banished generals, at its head.

The unhappy kingdom was once more divided as to the form of government it should adopt. A small, cultivated class, wished to set up a republic, but the great body of the nation desired a constitutional monarchy. Don Carlos, a grandson of the queen's uncle of the same name, proclaimed himself king as Charles VII., and was supported by a considerable party. In June, 1870, Queen Isabella abdicated her crown in favor of her son, the Prince of Asturias, then eleven years old, and his claims were supported by the French government, which hoped through him to establish its influence in Spain. The Spanish nation, however, refused to accept him. The crown was then offered to the King of Portugal, who declined it for both himself and his brother. General Prim, who had become the ruling spirit of the Spanish government, then selected Prince Frederick of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, a distant relative of the King of Prussia. The invitation was declined by Prince Frederick in the summer of 1870,

and was transferred to his younger brother, Prince Leopold. The French government, as we have seen, made this choice the pretext for war with Prussia. Prince Leopold, in consequence of this, declined the Spanish invitation.

After this the Spanish crown was offered to Amadeo, Duke of Aosta, the second son of Victor Emmanuel, King of Italy, and was accepted by him. He was formally chosen by the cortes on the 16th of December, 1870. A few days later he set out for Spain, landing at Carthagena. The festivities attending his arrival were brought to an end by the assassination of General Prim, the wisest and best of Spanish statesmen of the time, on the 29th of December. On the 30th King Amadeo was crowned, and gave his consent to a liberal constitution, which guaranteed civil and religious liberty to the nation. Amadeo found his throne anything but a bed of roses. The liberal party desired still greater changes, and the adherents of Don Carlos, supported by the constant intrigues of the priests, were plotting the overthrow of the liberal monarchy. In April, 1872, the Carlists rose in open rebellion in the northern provinces; and on the 19th of July in the same year a dastardly attempt was made to assassinate the king and queen. Thoroughly disgusted with his subjects, Amadeo resigned his crown on the 11th of February, 1873. His abdication was followed by the proclamation of a republic, which, in 1875, gave place to a monarchy under Alfonso, the young Prince of Asturias, who is the present reigning sovereign.

In 1868 a revolution broke out in Cuba. The patriot party proclaimed their independence of Spain, and organized a republic. The war still (in 1877) drags its slow course, the patriots having failed to hold more than a small part of the island.



BOOK XXVII.

THE HISTORY OF PORTUGAL.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT DAY.

Geographical Position of Portugal—Earliest Inhabitants—Subdued by the Romans—The Saracen Conquest—Recovered by the Christians—Erected into a County—Origin of the Name Portugal—Sancho I. Makes Portugal a Kingdom—Reigns of Alfonso II. and Dinis I.—Alfonso IV.—Murder of Iñes de Castro—Fury of Dom Pedro—Reign of Pedro I.—Fernando I.—Reign of Joam I.—His Conquests in Africa—Maritime Enterprises and Discoveries of the Portuguese—Reign of Alfonso V.—Dom Pedro Driven into Rebellion—Joam II.—His Great Reign—His Reforms—Failure of the Plots Against him—Prosperity of Portugal—The Cape of Good Hope Doubled—Manuel—The Portuguese in India—Their Possessions and Influence in the East—Discovery of Brazil—Joam III.—Brazil Colonized—Sebastian—Invades Africa—Is Defeated and Slain—Reign of Dom Henry—Philip II. of Spain Seizes Portugal—The Kingdom Declines under Spanish Rule—Revolution of 1640—The Duke of Braganza Made King—War with Spain—Alfonso VI.—Battle of Villaviciosa—Alliance with England—Reigns of Pedro II. and Joam V.—Reign of Maria—Dom Joam Regent—Declares War Against the French Republic—Napoleon Attacks Portugal—Flight of the Court to Brazil—The Peninsular War—Joam VI.—Revolution of 1820—Return of the King—Maria da Gloria—Brazil Becomes Independent—Reigns of Pedro V. and Luiz I.

PORTUGAL comprises the most of the western portion of the Iberian peninsula of Europe. It is bounded on the north and east by Spain, and on the south and west by the Atlantic Ocean. It lies between latitude $36^{\circ} 57'$ and $42^{\circ} 8'$ north, and longitude $6^{\circ} 12'$ to $9^{\circ} 32'$ west. Its greatest length from north to south is 366 miles; its greatest breadth from east to west 137 miles, with a general breadth of 100 miles. It embraces an area of 34,500 square miles. The Azores and Madeira, which form a part of the kingdom, comprise an area of 1,237 square miles additional. The population of Portugal proper is 4,298,881; with the Azores and Madeira the population of the kingdom is 4,677,562.

Portugal was originally inhabited by Celtic tribes, and at an early day a profitable trade with them was carried on by the Phœnicians, the Carthaginians, and the Greeks. The Romans knew the country as Lusitania, from its chief tribe, the Lusitani. We have already related, in the his-

tory of Rome, the subjugation of Lusitania by the Romans, which was completed about B. C. 140. As we have also seen, it remained a Roman province until the fifth century of the Christian era, when it was seized by the Alans upon the irruption of the German barbarians into the Spanish peninsula. It subsequently passed into the hands of the Visigoths, who made it a part of their kingdom. At the fall of the Gothic kingdom, in the eighth century, Lusitania was conquered by the Saracens or Moors, who held it for more than two hundred years. As the kingdom of Leon and Castile grew in strength, the Christians, as we have seen, pressed the Moors backward. Near the close of the eleventh century Alfonso VI. of Leon and Castile recovered a large part of Lusitania from the Moors, and held it firmly against them. In A. D. 1095 Alfonso gave the country between the Minho and Douro to Henry of Burgundy, his son-in-law, who took the title of Count of Portugal—from *Portus Cale*, the ancient name of the town of Oporto. Henry made Guimaraens his capital, and in several vigorous campaigns extended his dominions southward at the expense of the Saracens.

Henry died in 1112, and was succeeded by his son, Alfonso Henriquez, who also won great successes over the Moors. In 1137 he defeated them in the great battle of Ourique, near the Tagus. He then assumed the royal title, and ascended the throne as Alfonso I. Thus was founded the kingdom of Portugal. The title of Alfonso was acknowledged by the King of Leon and Castile, and was confirmed by the pope. He continued his wars against the Moors, and on the 25th of October, 1147, took Lisbon by storm. He extended his authority over fully one-half of the modern kingdom of Portugal, and successfully laid the foundations of his country's greatness. In 1143 he assembled a diet at Lamego, which drew up the first code of laws of the kingdom. He died in 1185.

Sancho I. became king at the death of his father. He continued the wars against the Moors, and succeeded in extending his kingdom to its present size. He transferred his capital to Coimbra, and brought

Portugal to a high degree of prosperity and power. At his death, in 1211, he was succeeded by his son, Alfonso II., the chief event of whose reign was a war with Leon and Castile, in which he suffered many reverses. He died in 1223, and was succeeded by his son, Sancho II., who, after winning several important successes over the Moors and conquering a large part of Algarve, the extreme southern part of Portugal, became involved in a quarrel with the church. He was never very scru-

marriage invalid, but on the death of the queen issued a bull legitimating the second marriage and the issue arising from it. Alfonso died in 1279.

Dinis I., the son of Alfonso, succeeded to the crown. Like his predecessors he soon became embroiled in a quarrel with the church, but managed to effect a reconciliation with the pope on terms advantageous to himself. He was one of the greatest of the Portuguese kings. He founded upwards of forty cities, was a liberal friend of



VIEW OF OPORTO.

pulous in his dealings with ecclesiastics, and now seized their revenues and property without compunction, and appointed his favorites to the vacancies in the church. He was deposed by the Council of Lyons, in 1245, and retired to Castile, where he died. He was succeeded by his brother, Alfonso III., who conquered Algarve, and annexed it to his dominions. He drew upon himself the censure of the church by marrying a second wife while his first was still alive. Pope Alexander IV. declared the second

learning, industry, and commerce, and began for Portugal the career of navigation and commercial enterprise which subsequently rendered her illustrious and wealthy. "With great zeal in the administration of justice, he combined a liberality truly royal, and a capacity of mind truly comprehensive." He was termed "the father of his country" by his subjects. He died in 1325. He was succeeded by his son, Alfonso IV., called "The Brave." His reign would have been unimportant but

for the war he waged with Alfonso of Castile to avenge the wrongs of his daughter, who was the wife of the Castilian king.

Pedro, the son and heir of the Portuguese king, had formed a guilty connection with Iñes de Castro, a lady of his court. Fearing that Pedro would seek to marry Iñes after the death of his wife, Alfonso caused Iñes to hold over the baptismal font a child of Pedro—thus forcing her to contract what was supposed to be a spiritual affinity to Pedro, too near to permit him to marry her. Pedro paid no attention to this, and after the death of his wife was privately married to Iñes on the 1st of January, 1354. She had already borne him four children. When questioned by his father, Pedro denied the marriage, but firmly refused to abandon Iñes or to marry again. Alfonso was fearful that Pedro's infatuation for Iñes would cause him to set aside his son by his first wife, who was his true heir, in favor of one of his children by Iñes. He consulted his courtiers, who were already jealous of the favor shown by Pedro to the Castros, and was advised to put Iñes to death. He reluctantly consented. The queen and the Archbishop of Braga learned of the plot, and warned Pedro of it, but he disregarded their warnings, as he could not believe that his father would even harbor the thought of such a crime. Several months later, during Pedro's absence on a hunting excursion, Alfonso went to the Convent of St. Clair at Coimbra, where Iñes was residing, to put his horrid plan in execution; but the tears, the youth, and beauty of Iñes, and the sight of her little ones, his own grandchildren, so moved him that he departed, leaving them unharmed. After his departure his attendants reproached him for what they termed his weakness, and drew from him an order to carry out the plan themselves. They at once returned to the convent, and the unhappy Iñes perished beneath their daggers. Pedro returned from his hunting expedition soon after the assassins departed. His grief and rage at finding his wife barbarously murdered were wild. As he could not revenge the deed on the persons of the assassins, who were protected by his father, he took up arms and ravaged with fire and sword the provinces where their chief possessions lay. Alfonso, alarmed by this formidable outbreak, endeavored to pacify his son, and though he refused to deliver up the murderers of Iñes, agreed to

banish them from the kingdom as the price of peace. Pedro then consented to a reconciliation, deferring the completion of his revenge until he should have become king. Alfonso died in 1357, two years after the murder of Iñes. His death is said to have been hastened by his remorse for his share in that tragic event.

Pedro I. now came to the throne. He at once demanded of his namesake, Pedro the Cruel, of Castile, the surrender of the murderers of Iñes, who had taken refuge in that country, offering to surrender certain Castilian nobles who had obtained an asylum in Portugal, and whom Pedro the Cruel was anxious to get into his power. The offer was accepted. One of the murderers of Iñes escaped, but the other two were arrested and surrendered to the Portuguese king, who on his part seized the Castilian refugees and delivered them to their sovereign. Having gotten his victims into his power, Pedro put them to death with horrible torments, which he helped with his own hand to inflict. The king now caused his marriage with Iñes to be made public, and the states of the kingdom solemnly declared that Iñes was entitled to the honors usually paid to the queens of Portugal. Pedro next caused the dead body of his wife to be disinterred and arrayed in royal robes, with crown and sceptre, and seated on a superb throne in the Church of St. Clair, at Coimbra. Then taking his stand by the side of the corpse, he compelled his nobles and clergy to do homage to the dead body, sternly eying each one as he approached to see that he failed not in fulfilling the duty of a subject to his queen. He then buried Iñes with solemn pomp in the monastery of Alcobaça.

Pedro's reign lasted ten years. He executed the laws sternly and mercilessly, his chief wrath being directed against those who were guilty of the excesses that had marked his own youth. He died in 1367.

Fernando I., the son of Pedro by his first wife, succeeded him. He was cruel and licentious. He compelled one of his nobles to divorce his wife in order that he might marry her himself, and during his whole reign was under the influence of this unprincipled woman. The marriage gave great offence to the nation. Though Fernando's reign was, on the whole, infamous, he did some things worthy of a king. He put down the bandits who were causing much trouble in some of the provinces; pro-

hibited the clergy from succeeding by testamentary bequest to landed property; improved the government of the cities; brought the fleet to a higher degree of efficiency, and rebuilt the walls of Coimbra and Lisbon. His only child was a daughter, who was married to the King of Castile.

The death of Fernando in 1383 was followed by an interregnum of two years, during which the kingdom was torn by the violence of the contending parties. The result was that Joam (or John), the illegitimate son of Pedro I. by a lady of Galicia, who had made himself regent, seized the throne, and on the 6th of April, 1385, was proclaimed king as Joam I.

Joam was a man of considerable ability, and was cunning and unscrupulous. He defeated the efforts of the King of Castile to conquer Portugal, the crown of which that monarch claimed in right of his wife, who was the daughter of Fernando I. He administered justice faithfully, and did much to suppress brigandage. He married Philippa, the daughter of the English Duke of Lancaster, by whom he had five sons and several daughters. In order to give these sons an opportunity to distinguish themselves he undertook a war against the Moors on the African side of the Straits of Gibraltar. The fortified city of Ceuta was taken in 1415. The Moors made repeated and desperate efforts to regain the city, but it was held against them by the Portuguese garrison. It remained in the hands of Portugal until seizure of the kingdom by Philip II. of Spain, when it became a possession of that country, which still holds it. Joam I. died in 1433.

In the reign of Joam I. the Portuguese began their remarkable career of maritime discovery. Prince Henrique, or Henry, the fourth son of King Joam, devoted himself with ardor to the advancement of nautical science. He established an observatory near Cape St. Vincent, where he gathered about him men of all countries skilled in mathematics and astronomy, and consulted them concerning his favorite scheme, which was to find a passage to the East Indies by sailing around the most southern point of Africa. He supported with great liberality the various attempts that were made at maritime discovery, and his zeal was at length rewarded by the discovery in 1419 of the Madeira Islands, and later still of the Azores, the Cape de Verde Islands, and the coast of Guinea. Before his death, in

1463, the Portuguese discoveries had been pushed to within five degrees of the equator. The popes, as the heirs of the Cæsars, claimed the right to dispose of all islands and newly discovered lands, and Pope Eugenius IV. conferred upon the King of Portugal all the countries between Cape Non and the Indies.

Duarte (or Edward), the son of Joam, came to the throne at his father's death in 1433. He reigned five years. He undertook an unsuccessful war against the Moors of Africa. His army was beaten and his brother Don Fernando was taken prisoner. He was treated with great cruelty by the Moors, and died, after a captivity of several years, from the severities imposed upon him. Duarte died of the plague.

Alfonso V., son of Duarte, was proclaimed king at his father's death in 1438. Being a minor, his mother, Queen Leonora, claimed the regency. She was driven from this position by the king's uncle, Dom Pedro, and forced to retire into Castile. Pedro governed the kingdom wisely during the eight years of his regency, and the grateful people of Lisbon would have erected a statue to him had he not forbidden them to do so. In 1446 Alfonso, being fourteen years old, was declared of age. He continued Pedro at the head of the state for some time, and married his daughter Isabel. His favorites at length succeeded in poisoning his mind against Dom Pedro, and he came to regard his father-in-law as his most dangerous enemy. Perceiving this change, Pedro requested leave to resign his place in the government and retire to Coimbra, of which he was duke. His request was granted, but he was soon horrified by being charged by his enemies with having poisoned the late king and queen. Alfonso accepted the charge as true, ordered Pedro to remain on his estates, and forbade his subjects to hold any communication with him. The duke was subjected to other insults, and was finally driven to take up arms, as it was plain to him that he must choose between death on the field or on the scaffold. His forces were defeated by the royal army, and he was slain. Alfonso brutally refused his body burial. It was privately interred by some peasants. Five years later Alfonso, who had been brought to his senses by the indignant remonstrances of the pope and the European sovereigns, acknowledged the innocence of Dom Pedro, and interred his bones with great pomp

in the burial-place of the kings of Portugal. In revenge for the fate of the unhappy Dom Fernando, Alfonso renewed the war with the Moors, and invaded Africa in 1471. He took Tangier, which was held by the Portuguese until 1662, when it was ceded to England as a part of the dowry of the bride of Charles II. Alfonso next became involved in a war with Castile, in the hope of obtaining the crown of that country by marrying Juana, the reputed daughter of Enrique IV. He was compelled to make peace in 1479, and to relinquish his pretensions to the Castilian crown. He died in 1481.

Joam, or John II., succeeded his father. He was the greatest of the kings of Portugal, and his reign was the most brilliant in the history of that country. He was a man of broad and liberal views, vigorous in the execution of his designs, yet politic and cautious; a lover of justice, and sincerely anxious to promote the happiness and prosperity of his people. Upon coming to the throne he found the royal revenues so much exhausted by the extravagance of his father that the state was nearly bankrupt. He at once inaugurated reforms which filled the treasury without oppressing the people. He next introduced a series of measures by which he broke the power of the feudal nobility, and rendered them entirely dependent upon the crown. He took from them the power of life and death over their vassals, and restricted it to himself and to the royal courts—a great gain for the people. He compelled all who had received grants, whether of lands or dignities, from his predecessors to produce their title deeds and other necessary instruments. Where the title was defective the claimant was deprived of it; where the concession was extravagant it was greatly modified. He also took from the nobles the right to nominate the local magistrates, who had been until now chosen from this order, and vested the nomination in the crown and threw the office open to all classes, the only qualifications demanded being learning and merit. These reforms, so necessary to the welfare not only of the commons but of the entire kingdom, gave great offence to the nobles, and several conspiracies were formed by them against the king. The first of these was headed by the Duke of Braganza. It was detected by Joam, and the duke was beheaded. Another conspiracy was formed by a number

of the leading nobles, and had for its object the elevation of the Duke of Visco, the king's cousin, to the throne. The plot was betrayed by the mistress of the Bishop of Evora, one of the leading conspirators. Joam with his own hand slew the Duke of Visco, and sent the other conspirators to the block and to prison.

Joam prosecuted the war with the African Moors with vigor, and his generals won many brilliant successes over them. At home he introduced industry and comfort among his people, and greatly increased the wealth and resources of his kingdom.

In this reign the maritime enterprises of the Portuguese were pushed forward with vigor. Joam was a wise and liberal friend to these undertakings, which contributed so largely to the prosperity of his kingdom. He built up an active and lucrative trade with the tribes on the coast of Guinea, from which the crown derived a great revenue of gold and ivory. Exploring expeditions were sent along the African coast, which discovered the African kingdoms of Benin and Congo, with which profitable commercial relations were established, the Portuguese in each case erecting a fort and trading post in the newly discovered country. In 1487 Bartholomew Diaz doubled the most southern cape of Africa, and found that the eastern coast of that continent stretched away from the cape to the northeast. In consequence of the terrible weather he experienced he named it the Cape of Storms, but the discovery so encouraged the King of Portugal in his hope of reaching the Indies by sea that he changed the name to the Cape of Good Hope.

The last years of Joam were saddened by the death of his only son, in 1491. He did not long survive this affliction, but died in 1495, sincerely mourned by all classes of his subjects.

Manuel, the brother of the Duke of Visco, and cousin to Joam, succeeded him on the throne. He proved himself a great king, and maintained the prosperity of his kingdom at home, and its renown abroad. He vigorously carried out Joam's policy of establishing the influence of Portugal in the East. In 1497 the great Admiral Vasco da Gama sailed from Lisbon, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and reached Calicut, in Malabar, or Western India, in May, 1498. In spite of the hostility of the Mohammedan rulers of India, the Portuguese, in this and other expeditions, succeeded in

establishing themselves at Goa and other places on the Indian coast, from which in the sixteenth century they built up a large and lucrative trade with their own country, which rendered Portugal one of the richest kingdoms in Europe. Until now the products of the Indies had been brought to Europe from Alexandria by the Venetian traders. The success of the Portuguese diverted the commerce of the East from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic, and contributed more than any other cause to the decline of Venice. The Portuguese wisely avoided a policy of territorial acquisition, and confined themselves to commercial establishments on the coast. For nearly a century they were masters of the Indian Ocean. Their possessions in that quarter were governed by a number of viceroys, of whom Don Alfonso d'Albuquerque was the most gifted. In 1500 a new field for Portuguese enterprise was opened by the discovery of Brazil by Cabral, an admiral of King Manuel.

Manuel died in 1521, and was succeeded by Joam or John III. Early in the reign of this prince Brazil was colonized by Portugal. He passed his reign in extending his power in Asia, but lost ground in northern Africa. He introduced the Inquisition into Portugal against the protests and entreaties of his people; but his reign was, on the whole, a good one. He died in 1557.

Sebastian, the grandson of Joam, succeeded to the crown. Being only three years old, the government was for a while administered for him by his grandmother, the wife of Joam, who was the sister of the Emperor Charles V. She resigned the regency in a few years to Cardinal Henrique. In 1568, the king having reached the age of fourteen, assumed the government himself. He at once engaged in an ill-advised war against the kingdom of Morocco, for the support of which he laid heavy burdens upon his people. The war was unpopular, and the king was implored by his counselors to abandon it; but he persisted, and in 1578 invaded Morocco at the head of an army of 15,000 men. On the 4th of August he was defeated and slain by the Moors in the battle of Alcazar-Seguer.

Dom Henry, the uncle of Sebastian, ascended the throne of Portugal immediately upon the receipt of the news of the king's death. His reign was brief, and in 1580 he died without heirs.

A number of claimants of the Portuguese crown now appeared. Of these the most powerful was Philip II. of Spain, whose mother was the daughter of King Manuel, and whose first wife was Maria, the eldest daughter of Joam III. Philip's power enabled him, as we have related in *The History of Spain*, to seize the Portuguese kingdom and triumph over his rivals. He was proclaimed King of Portugal in 1580, and for the next sixty years that country formed a part of the Spanish monarchy. Under the Spanish rule the greatness of Portugal steadily declined. Her possessions in northern Africa passed into the hands of Spain, and were lost to her forever. On the western coast of Africa the Dutch became formidable rivals of Portugal, and drew from her much of her trade. In Asia they also made great gains, and put an end to the Portuguese supremacy in that quarter of the world. At the end of the Spanish ascendancy the Portuguese settlements in the East were reduced to half their former number, and those which remained were in great peril. The English also began now to lay the foundations of their Eastern empire, which was one day to overshadow the power of both the Portuguese and the Dutch.

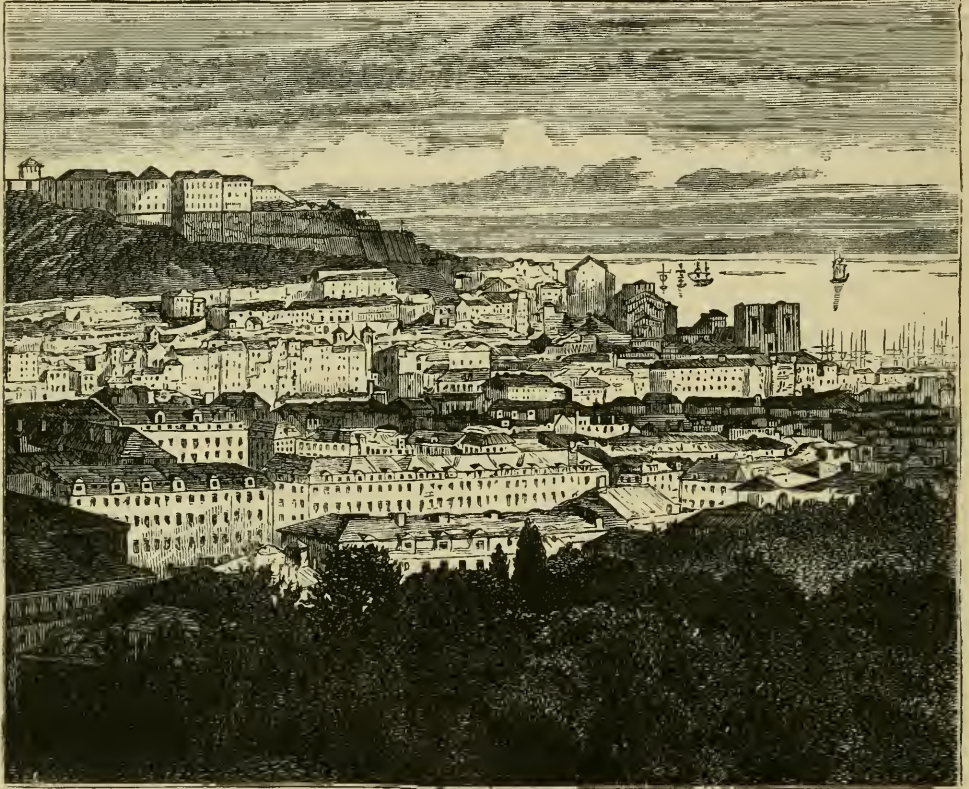
The Spaniards were universally detested by the Portuguese, and their rule bore so heavily upon the country that the popular discontent steadily increased. In 1640 the entire nation rose in revolt, and proclaimed the Duke of Braganza king as Joam IV. The new king was recognized by England, France and Holland, all of whom were hostile to Spain. Joam did not depend on the favor of other powers, however, but prepared to meet the efforts he knew Spain would make to recover her lost authority. A desultory war with that country began in 1641, and continued until the death of Joam, which took place in 1656.

Alfonso VI., the second son of Joam, succeeded to the throne, his elder brother having died some time previous. He was so weak and contemptible a king that the Spaniards were induced to prosecute the war against Portugal more vigorously. Success declared in favor of the smaller kingdom, and the Spaniards were decisively defeated in the battle of Villaviciosa, in 1666. From this time the independence of Portugal was secure, though Spain as yet refused to acknowledge it. In 1661 a treaty of alliance was concluded with Eng-

land, and Catharine, the daughter of Alfonso, was married to Charles II. of England. Tangier and Bombay were ceded to the English as the dowry of the Princess Catharine. This treaty was the beginning of a long connection between Portugal and England, which had a marked effect upon the fortunes of the former country. In 1667 the Portuguese, who had become disgusted with Alfonso, set him aside as an imbecile, and made his brother Pedro regent. A dispensation was obtained from

the throne at the death of his father, in 1706. The principal event of his reign was the conclusion of a treaty with Spain, in 1737, by which that power recognized the independence of Portugal. Joam died in 1750, and was succeeded by his son José, or Joseph.

José was one of the best of the Portuguese kings, but his reign was marked by many calamities to his country. The most important of these was the terrible earthquake of November, 1755, which laid one-



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the pope which annulled the marriage between Alfonso and his queen. The queen at once married Pedro. Alfonso was kept a prisoner until 1683, when he died.

The regent now ascended the throne as Pedro II. The greater part of his reign was peaceful and uneventful. In 1703 an offensive and defensive alliance was concluded with England, and Portugal was thus drawn into the war of the Spanish succession. Three years later, during the progress of the war, Pedro died.

Joam V., the son of Pedro II., came to

half of Lisbon in ruins, and caused great loss of life among the inhabitants. The chief efforts of the king were directed to restoring the agricultural and commercial prosperity of his kingdom. By the various treaties with England many important concessions had been made to that country, and the commerce of Portugal was rapidly passing into English hands. José endeavored to put an end to the English monopoly, though not with entire success. He was ably seconded by his prime minister, the famous Marquess of Pombal. He expelled

the Jesuits from Portugal, as he regarded their influence as detrimental to the prosperity of the country. He died in 1777, leaving a daughter to inherit his crown.

Maria was forty-two years old at the time of her accession to the throne. Some opposition was shown to her, as she was the first female sovereign Portugal had had, but this was put down and her authority generally acknowledged. As he had no son, King José, her father, in order to secure the succession to her, had married her to his brother, and her uncle, the Infante Dom Pedro. She reigned conjointly with him until his death, in 1786. In 1792 she began to show symptoms of insanity, and her eldest surviving son, Dom Joam, was intrusted with the government, which was administered in her name until 1799, when Joam was declared regent of the kingdom. In 1793 he was induced by the English government to declare war against the French republic. This step led to a severe commercial panic and a general bankruptcy in Portugal, and Joam was glad to make peace with France in 1797. In 1799 the regent again yielded to the persuasions of England, and joined that country and Russia in a second war with France. This caused as much loss and suffering to Portugal as the first war had done. In 1801 Spain became the ally of France, and Portugal was exposed to the full power of her stronger neighbor. The treaty of Badajoz, signed in 1802, shortly after the peace of Amiens, compelled Portugal to cede Olivença to Spain, and to pay to that power a considerable indemnity.

For the next five years Portugal was at peace. The commercial relations existing between that country and Great Britain soon drew upon it the anger of Napoleon, who had for some time cherished the design of seizing both Spain and Portugal, and making them merely provinces of his empire. In 1807 he ordered the Portuguese regent to close the ports of that kingdom against British vessels, to arrest all British subjects, and to confiscate all British property within his dominions, threatening war as the alternative. The regent obeyed hesitatingly and under protest, and thus offended Napoleon, who proclaimed that "the house of Braganza had ceased to reign in Europe," and sent General Junot with 30,000 men to take possession of Lisbon. Being unable to oppose the French, the regent and the royal family embarked on board the

fleet and sailed for South America to fix the seat of the Portuguese government in Brazil. On the same day—November 30th, 1807—the French entered Lisbon. The presence of the French was hateful to the Portuguese, and in 1808 they rose against them. They were several times defeated, but kept up their resistance and appealed to England for aid. The British government sent a force under Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards the Duke of Wellington) into Portugal. The French were beaten in the battle of Vimiera, on the 21st of August, 1808, and on the 30th of August Junot was compelled to sign the convention of Cintra, by which he agreed to evacuate Portugal with his whole army. On the 12th of September the English entered Lisbon in triumph. As we have related elsewhere, the French under Marshal Soult overran Portugal in 1809. Sir Arthur Wellesley was strongly reinforced from England, and in the course of a few weeks forced the French back into Spain. The events of the peninsular war have been related elsewhere, and need not be repeated here. Portugal was protected during this struggle by the English arms, and the French did not again succeed in gaining a footing in it. At the downfall of Napoleon, as Portugal was freed from the danger of conquest, the English forces were withdrawn, and she was left to manage her own affairs.

All this while the Portuguese court had been established in Rio de Janeiro, in Brazil. In 1815 Brazil was made a kingdom. In 1816 Maria died, and her son, the regent, became King of Portugal and Brazil as Joam VI. The king continued to reside in Brazil, and this gave great offence to the Portuguese. In 1820 a revolution occurred, in which the army and people acted together, and so avoided bloodshed. A liberal constitution was adopted, and an appeal was addressed to the king to return to Portugal. Joam responded to the wish of the nation, and leaving his son Pedro in Brazil as regent returned to Portugal in 1821. Before being allowed to land at Lisbon the king was obliged to swear fealty to the new constitution, which considerably curtailed the royal power, and secured for the people freedom of person and property, liberty of the press, equality of all citizens before the law, the abolition of privileges, and the eligibility of all Portuguese to offices. In

1822 a revolution occurred in Brazil, which country declared itself an independent empire. The regent was proclaimed emperor as Pedro I. Portugal was not able to undo this action, and the two countries finally separated.

Joam VI. died in 1826. Dom Pedro, the Emperor of Brazil, was his lawful successor. He relinquished the Portuguese crown to his daughter, Maria da Gloria, and established a tolerably liberal constitution for that kingdom. Maria immediately sailed for Portugal, but before her arrival her uncle, Dom Miguel, Pedro's youngest brother, who had been intrusted with the regency, declared himself king, and began to rule in defiance of the constitution. The result was a civil war. Dom Pedro repaired to Portugal and raised an army and fleet in support of the claims of his daughter. He took Oporto on the 8th of July, 1832, and occupied Lisbon in July, 1833. On the 29th of May, 1834, Dom Miguel submitted to him. On the 15th of September Maria II. was declared of age, and on the 24th Dom Pedro died.

Maria's reign was vexed by a number of revolutions, one of which, in 1846-47,

would have overturned her throne had it not been checked by the intervention of England, France, and Spain. Maria died in 1853.

Pedro V. succeeded his mother. From her death until his majority, in 1855, the kingdom was governed by his father, Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg, as regent. Ferdinand was a sincere lover of free institutions, and inspired his son with the same feelings. Upon coming to the throne Pedro exerted himself to repair the evils of the revolutions and wars of the previous reigns, and to promote the prosperity of the country. In 1861 Lisbon was visited with a severe epidemic of yellow fever. The young king in his efforts to aid the sufferers exposed himself to the plague, and died on the 11th of November.

Luiz, or Louis I., became king at the death of his brother, and still holds the throne. The principal events of his reign have been the abolition of slavery in the colonies in 1868, the industrial exhibitions at Oporto in 1866 and 1872, the consolidation of the floating debt in 1873, and the extension of railway and telegraph lines throughout the kingdom.

BOOK XXVIII.

THE HISTORY OF THE NETHERLANDS.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT DAY.

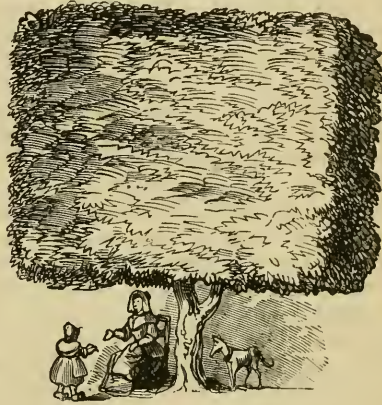
Geographical Position of Holland—Formation of the Country—Primitive Inhabitants—The Netherlands Under the Romans and the Franks—Reclaiming the Lands—Growth of the Towns—Rise of Flanders—Character of the People—Their Industry—Love of Freedom—Revolt of the Flemings—Battle of Courtrai—James Van Artevelde—Philip the Bold—Mary of Burgundy—Charles Becomes Ruler of the Netherlands—His Treatment of them—Philip II. of Spain—His Policy in the Netherlands—Prosperity of the Country at the Accession of Philip—Margaret of Parma Appointed Regent—Persecution of the Protestants Begun—The Duke of Alba sent to the Netherlands—His Cruelties—Return of the Prince of Orange—Revolt of the Netherlands—The War

for Independence—The Dutch Republic Established—Siege of Haarlem—Don Louis de Requesens—Extremity of Leyden—The Dikes Cut—Leyden Relieved—Outrages of the Spaniards—The Pacification of Ghent—Prince of Parma made Regent—The Flemings Choose Charles of Anjou as their Leader—Murder of William the Silent—Antwerp Taken—Belgium Ruined—Prince Maurice—Internal Dissensions—Execution of Barneveldt—The Thirty Years' War—Spain Recognizes the Independence of the Dutch Republic—War with England—William of Orange—Becomes Stadtholder—Is Made King of England—Holland Shelters the French Protestant Refugees—Wars with France—The Seven Years' War—Holland Recognizes the Independence of the United States of America—War with England—Internal Troubles—Conquest of Holland by the French Republican Forces—The Treaty of Vienna—The Kingdom of the Netherlands Organized—Revolt of the Belgians—Separation of Belgium from Holland—Subsequent History.

THE kingdom of the Netherlands, or Holland, lies between latitude $50^{\circ} 45'$ and $53^{\circ} 35' N.$, and longitude $3^{\circ} 24'$ and $7^{\circ} 12' E.$ It is bounded on the north and west by the North Sea, on the east by Germany, and on the south by Belgium. Its greatest length from north to south is about 190 miles; its width varies from about 60 to 120 miles. It covers an area of 12,680 square miles; and has a population of 3,809,527 souls. The kingdom possesses extensive and valuable colonies in the East and West Indies, which contain a population of over twenty-four millions. Holland was originally a marshy district, the greater part of which was exposed to the high tides of the sea, which swept over it. It was won back from the waves by the patient labors of the inhabitants, who, by erecting dikes along the coast and the river shores, preserved the land from the encroachment of the sea, and confined the rivers within their proper channels. The country is still protected from the sea by means of dikes. These are built partly of blocks of granite brought from Norway, and partly of timbers, fagots, turf, and clay. They are usually thirty feet high, seventy feet broad at the bottom, and wide enough at the top for a roadway. They are the work of centuries, and are watched with the greatest care and kept in perfect repair. Holland originally abounded in lakes, but about ninety of these have been drained and converted into farming land. The surface of the country is a dead level, broken by only a few sandy hillocks.

The Netherlands until 1830 included also the country now known as Belgium. The first historical mention of it is made by Julius Cæsar in his account of his conquest of Gaul. Belgium was then covered with dense forests and marshy districts, and was inhabited by a number of tribes mostly of the Gallic race, though in some parts of the country tribes of Germanic origin had obtained the supremacy. The principal of these were the Batavians. Cæsar conquered Belgium, but made the Batavians the allies, and not the subjects, of Rome. They always furnished a strong body of troops to the Roman army from this time, and these were considered by the emperors their most trusted soldiers. The country now known as Holland was then little more than a series of half-submerged islands, over which the North Sea swept furiously. It was in-

habited by a race of hardy and independent people. In the first Christian century Pliny, the naturalist, visited this region, and has left us the following picture of it: "There the ocean pours in its flood twice every day, and produces a perpetual uncertainty whether the country may be considered as a part of the continent or of the sea. The wretched inhabitants take refuge on the sand-hills, or in little huts, which they construct on the summits of lofty stakes, whose elevation is conformable to that of the highest tides. When the sea rises they appear like navigators; when it retires they seem as though they had been shipwrecked. They subsist on the fish left by the reflux waters, and which they catch in nets formed of rushes or seaweed. Neither tree nor shrub is visible on these shores. The



A DUTCH TREE.

drink of the people is rain water, which they preserve with great care; their fuel, a sort of turf, which they gather and form with the hand." As late as the third century, Eumenius states that this was the condition of the country. The people showed no tendency to mix with foreigners, and preferred their marshy country and their constant struggle with the sea to the benefits of a connection with Rome, such as that enjoyed by the Batavians. They were known as Frisians, and were always noted for their love of liberty, their patient courage and their industry. About the third century of our era they began by degrees to cultivate the beans that grew wild among their marshes, and to tend and feed a small and coarse breed of horned cattle. From this first step in civilization they passed to the work of reclaiming their country from the sea by building dikes. They made slow progress, but they never went

backward from any step taken. By degrees also the Frisians began to cross the sea and trade with England, which was then a Roman province.

During the civil war between Vespasian and Vitellius, Claudius Civilis, a Batavian, who had received a Roman education and had served with distinction in the Roman army, formed a confederation of all the tribes of the Netherlands against the Romans, A. D. 69. He was defeated after a gallant struggle, and the Netherlands remained a part of the empire until they were overrun by the Germanic tribes in the fifth century. In the sixth and seventh centuries the Netherlands became a part of the kingdom of the Franks. In the eighth century the Frisians revolted, but were subdued by Charles Martel. Charles endeavored to establish Christianity among the Frisians, and St. Willebrod went among them as a missionary. Towards the middle of the century their conversion was completed. The Netherlands formed a part of Charlemagne's empire, and derived considerable advantages from his liberal treatment of them. The portion which is now Holland was especially benefited. At the death of Charlemagne that country had fairly entered upon its career of prosperity. "The marshes and fens which had arrested and repulsed the progress of imperial Rome had disappeared in every part of the interior. The Meuse and the Scheldt no longer joined at their outlets to desolate the neighboring lands, whether this change was produced by the labors of man or merely by the accumulation of sand deposited by either stream and forming barriers to both. The towns of Courtrai, Bruges, Ghent, Antwerp, Bergen-op-Zoom and Thiel had already a flourishing trade. The last-mentioned town contained in the following century fifty-five churches; a fact from which, in the absence of other evidence, the extent of the population may be conjectured. The formation of dikes for the protection of lands formerly submerged was already well understood and regulated by uniform custom. The plains thus reconquered from the waters were distributed in portions, according to their labor, by those who reclaimed them, except the parts reserved for the chieftain, the church, and the poor. This vital necessity for the construction of dikes had given to the Frisian and Flemish population a particular habit of union, good will, and reciprocal justice, because it

was necessary to make common cause in this great work for their mutual preservation. In all other points the detail of the laws and manners of this united people presents a picture similar to that of the Saxons of England, with the sole exception that the people of the Netherlands were milder than the Saxon race properly so called—their long habit of laborious industry exercising its happy influence on the martial spirit original to both. The manufacturing arts were also somewhat more advanced in this part of the continent than in Great Britain. The Frisians, for example, were the only persons who could succeed in making the costly mantles in use among the wealthy Franks."

After the disruption of Charlemagne's empire the whole of the Netherlands was divided among a number of petty princes, some of whom owed allegiance to the German empire and some to the kings of France. About 864 Judith, the daughter of Charles the Bald of France, and widow of Ethelwolf, King of England, became attached to a powerful Flemish chieftain named Baldwin. As her father opposed the union, Baldwin carried her off and married her. Charles was obliged to sanction the act, as Baldwin was too formidable to be allowed to become his enemy. He created his son-in-law Count of Flanders, and confirmed to him the hereditary government of the region between the Scheldt and the Somme. This was the beginning of the famous county of Flanders, and its founder is known in history as "Baldwin Bras-de-fer," or Baldwin of the Iron Arm. In 922 Charles the Simple by letters patent created the county of Holland. The country improved rapidly during these centuries in wealth and population. In what is now Holland more land was reclaimed and brought under cultivation and new towns were built. The thirteenth century saw the Netherlands divided into a number of dukedoms and countships, whose rulers claimed to be independent princes, and acknowledged only a nominal allegiance to the emperor or to the French king.

The most powerful of these states was Flanders, which under the descendants of Baldwin Bras-de-fer grew rapidly in population, wealth and importance. It contained the towns of Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, and Brussels, each of which was the centre of an important trade. Indeed all the Netherlands shared in this growing

prosperity, one of the chief sources of which was the weaving of woollen and linen cloths. An immense quantity of these was manufactured in all parts of the Netherlands, and found a ready market in every country in Europe. A large and lucrative carrying trade had also grown steadily. "Whole fleets of Dutch and Flemish merchant ships repaired regularly to the coasts of Spain and Languedoc. Flanders was already become the great market for England and all the north of Europe. The great increase of population forced all parts of the country into cultivation; so much so, that lands were in those times sold at a high price which are to-day left waste from imputed sterility." The commercial cities had acquired a commanding influence in the government, and within their own walls the burghers enjoyed almost democratic freedom. The people of the Netherlands were from the first noted for their sturdy love of liberty and their readiness to defend their rights with arms. The citizens were careful to maintain these rights against the nobles. "They appointed their own judges and magistrates, and attached to their authority the old custom of ordering all the citizens to assemble or march when the summons of the feudal lord sounded the signal for their assemblage or service. By this means each municipal magistracy had the disposal of a force far superior to those of the nobles, for the population of the towns exceeded both in number and in discipline the vassals of the seignorial lands. And these trained bands of the towns made war in a way very different from that hitherto practised; for the chivalry of the country making the trade of arms a profession for life, the feuds of the chieftains produced hereditary struggles, almost always slow, and mutually disastrous. But the townsmen, forced to tear themselves from every association of home and its manifold endearments, advanced boldly to the object of the contest, never shrinking from the dangers of war from fear of that still greater to be found in a prolonged struggle."

In 1300, as we have seen in our account of the history of France, the Flemings abandoned their own sovereign, Count Guy, and transferred their allegiance to Philip the Fair of France. They soon had cause to repent this course, and in 1302 the people of Bruges rose under the leadership of Peter de Koning, a weaver, and John Breydel, a

butcher, and drove out the French garrison, putting 3,000 of them to death. The other cities followed the example of Bruges. Philip sent a splendid army into Flanders to chastise the rebellious burghers, but it was defeated by them under the walls of Courtrai on the 11th of July, 1302, in which battle the flower of the French chivalry perished. The war was brought to an end on the 5th of June, 1305, by a treaty between Philip and the Flemings. The French king released the eldest son of the late Count Guy, and recognized him as Count of Flanders. The young prince on his part agreed to hold his county as a fief of France. The new count proved as tyrannical as his father, and the Flemings rebelled against him. He sought aid of his feudal lord, Philip VI. of France. Philip granted his request, and the Flemings were defeated in the battle of Cassel, August 23d, 1328, and forced to submit. Count Louis now gave free rein to his tyranny, and in 1338 the Flemings again rebelled, this time under James Van Artevelde, the famous brewer of Ghent. At his advice the Flemings recognized as valid the claim of Edward III. of England to the French crown, and transferred their allegiance to him. They joined him with an army of 60,000 men, and a Flemish squadron decided the great naval battle of Helvoetsluys in favor of the English, June 23d, 1340. A Flemish army covered the siege of Calais, and defeated the Dauphin of France, who was marching to the relief of that place, 1348. A truce was concluded between France and England soon after the fall of Calais. Edward abandoned his Flemish allies to the French king, but the sturdy burghers, left to their own resources, compelled the King of France and young Louis de Malle, the heir of their count, to recognize their right of self-government according to the ancient privileges. In 1384 Count Louis of Flanders died. He had no sons, and his title of Count of Flanders passed, with the province itself, to Philip the Bold of Burgundy, who had married his daughter and heiress. The next year Philip effected a settlement with the Flemings, and was acknowledged by them. In the same year the Duchess of Brabant died, and Philip being her heir came into possession of that duchy, which, added to his other possessions of Burgundy and Flanders, made him one of the most powerful sovereigns in Europe. He proved an excellent ruler to the Flem-

ings, who were from this time subject to the house of Burgundy. In 1437 Philip the Good of Burgundy became master of Hainault, Holland, and Zealand, thus acquiring almost the whole of the Netherlands. His successors brought the rest under their authority.

In 1477 Mary of Burgundy, daughter of Charles the Bold, married Maximilian, Archduke of Austria. By this marriage the Netherlands, now the richest and most populous part of Europe, became a possession of the house of Hapsburg. At her death her son Philip came into possession of the Netherlands. His reign was uneventful, and he is chiefly noted in history as the father of the Emperor Charles V. Philip died in 1506, and the regency of the Netherlands reverting to the Emperor Maximilian, that monarch appointed his daughter Margaret to the government of that country. She was a woman of talent and courage, and successfully maintained her position against the intrigues of France. In 1515 Charles, the son of Philip and Joanna of Spain, having attained the age of fifteen, succeeded to his inheritance of the Netherlands. The next year he was recognized as the heir to the crown of Spain and the Indies. In 1519 he was chosen Emperor of Germany, and so became the most powerful monarch on the globe. The part played by the Netherlands in the wars between Charles and Francis I. of France has been related. The Netherlands suffered severely from the ravages of the French fleet, which almost entirely destroyed the herring fisheries of Holland and Zealand. We have also related the rebellion of the Flemings against Charles, and his merciless punishment of the rebels, 1539-40. In 1555 Charles, as has been stated, abdicated his sovereignty of the Netherlands, in favor of his son Philip, and the next year transferred to him his crown of Spain and the Indies.

At the time of the accession of Philip II. of Spain, the Netherlands comprised the dukedoms of Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg, and Guelderland, and the counties of Artois, Hainault, Flanders, Namur, Zutphen, Holland, and Zealand, the baronies of Friesland, Mechlin, Utrecht, Overysse, and Groningen, and the margravate of Antwerp—making seventeen provinces in all. These contained over 200 walled cities, 150 chartered towns, 6,300 small towns and villages, 60 strong fortresses,

and a large number of castles, hamlets and farms. The great prosperity of the country, which was now at its highest point, was due to the intelligence as well as to the industry of the people; for the inhabitants of the Low Countries were the most generally enlightened people in Europe. A person who could not read and write was an exception among them. Agriculture was carried to a high degree of perfection, and the people were largely engaged in commerce and manufactures. The cities of Antwerp, Amsterdam and Rotterdam were the principal commercial centres of northern Europe. The various provinces differed from each other in language, laws, and customs. The four Walloon provinces, which lay nearest France, spoke a corrupted French; the central provinces spoke the Flemish, which was a branch of the German tongue; and in the northern provinces the Dutch language was spoken. Besides the common tie of industry and interest, they were united by their allegiance to the same sovereign, the King of Spain. They had also a common legislative assembly, or states general, which met at irregular periods.

The people of the Netherlands, as we have seen, had long been among the freest in Europe, and, as they were the most intelligent, the doctrines of the Reformation had received a careful consideration by them, and had been adopted by a large part of the population. The Emperor Charles was greatly annoyed by this, and endeavored, by a number of severe measures, to stop the growth of Protestantism in this region. These failing, the Inquisition was set up in the Netherlands. The emperor greatly restricted its powers, and endeavored to deprive it of many of the cruel features which had marked it in Spain. It was impossible to change its character, however, and during Charles' reign several thousand Protestants were put to death in the Low Countries, by its orders.

In 1559 Philip appointed his half-sister Margaret, Duchess of Parma, Regent of the Netherlands. Returning to Spain, he prepared to put in force the scheme he had long meditated, for the extirpation of heresy in these provinces. Henry II. of France, after the treaty of Catteau Cambresis, had revealed this intention to William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, the principal dignitary of the Low Countries. William was

then a Catholic, but he shrank in horror from the plot. Philip soon began the execution of his part of the agreement, by ordering the Inquisition to proceed with more rigor against heretics. The Prince of Orange, who was governor of Holland and Zealand, at once took his stand as the champion of his country, by refusing to allow his people to be burned in his provinces; and his example was imitated by the governors of some of the other provinces. The more prudent Flemings fled the country, carrying with them their industry and their skill in manufac-

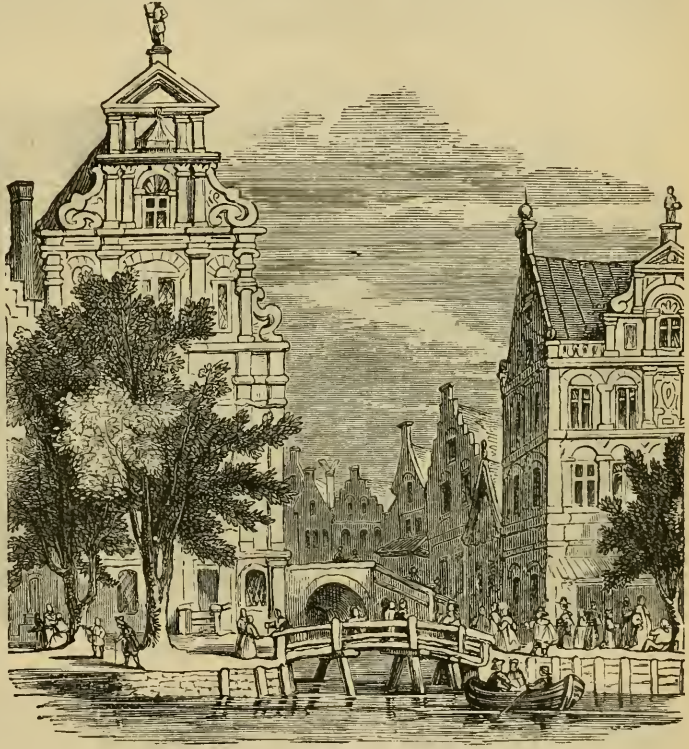
tures. Those who remained were thrown into a frenzy of alarm, and a petition was addressed to the regent, setting forth their grievances; but the only notice she took of it was to issue an edict which changed the punishment of heretics from burning to hanging. The cruelties of the Inquisition and the determination of the king to compel his subjects to adopt his faith, kept the excitement at its highest pitch. At last it burst all bounds, and in four days four hundred churches were destroyed, with all their contents. The regent was soon afterwards obliged to grant the Protestants permission to worship in public in their own manner, 1566.

Philip's anger was very great when the news of these acts reached him.

He at once prepared to punish the Low Countries for their resistance. The Prince of Orange, whose religious views had been greatly modified, and who subsequently became a Protestant, endeavored to mediate between the king and his subjects; but failing in his efforts, withdrew into Germany with a number of the Flemish nobles. The Duke of Alva, a man of inflexible will and brutal character, was sent to Brussels with a strong force of Spanish troops to crush the insurrection, 1567. Alva executed his orders to the letter. A tribunal, known as the "Council of Blood," was established

at Brussels, and hundreds of the Flemings, of all ranks and ages, were executed by its orders. Nobles were beheaded; common criminals were shot or hanged; and obstinate heretics were burned. During the six years of his administration, Alva boasted that he had sent 18,000 persons to the scaffold and the stake.

In 1568 the Inquisition sentenced the entire population of the Netherlands, with a few designated exceptions, to death for heresy; and this monstrous sentence was confirmed by a royal edict ten days later.



AMSTERDAM IN 1639.

Philip frequently declared that he would rather see the provinces depopulated than held by heretics. Though the Spanish governor never enforced this decree literally, it was made the cover for cruelty and oppression of all kinds. The property of the victims was confiscated, and it is said that for some years the wealth of the proscribed and murdered Protestants of the Low Countries brought into the treasury of Philip twenty millions of dollars annually. Commerce ceased; the towns were deserted; people fled from the country; the woods swarmed with fugitives who were forced

into brigandage to obtain food; and the sea was covered with piratical cruisers.

In this sad state of affairs the Prince of Orange collected an army in Germany, and marched into the Netherlands to the assistance of his countrymen. His forces were divided into three armies, two of which were defeated by the Spaniards. The third, under Count Louis of Nassau, gained a victory over the enemy, at Groningen. In order to strike terror to the patriots, Alva now caused Counts Egmont and Horn, two of the principal Flemish nobles, to be executed, in violation of their rights, and of the laws of the land. He then marched against

ern provinces, at once rose in revolt against the Spaniards; and on the 15th of July, 1572, an assembly was held at Dort, and the Dutch republic was definitely organized. William of Orange was declared chief magistrate of Holland, Zealand, Friesland and Utrecht, with the title of stadtholder.

Alva now exerted himself with vigor, and succeeded in reducing the southern provinces to submission. Brabant and Flanders were conquered, and Mechlin was given up to the horrors of pillage and massacre for three days. The northern provinces, however, maintained their position unshaken. William of Orange assumed the government, and successfully maintained the independence of the republic.

In the winter of 1572-73 Alva attempted to capture the Dutch fleet, which was frozen up in the harbor of Amsterdam; but his troops were defeated by a Dutch force on skates. He next laid siege to Haarlem, which was taken after a memorable defence. Between two and three thousand citizens were put to death after the surrender of



THE STADTHOLDER'S HOUSE, HAARLEM, 1635.

the forces of the Prince of Orange, and compelled him to disband them and withdraw into France, where he took service with the Huguenots.

The Flemish cruisers continued their depredations upon the Spanish commerce, and carried their prizes into English ports, where they obtained the supplies they needed. At length Elizabeth, finding that a continuance of this aid would involve her in a war with Spain, forbade her subjects to sell supplies to the Flemings. Thereupon De La Marck, a Flemish captain, left England with twenty-four vessels, and proceeding to the most northern island of Zealand, captured Brille, its capital, and made it the rendezvous of the privateers. Walcheren, and a number of towns in the north-

the city. Alkmaar was next besieged; but warned by the fate of Haarlem, it held out with such stubbornness that Alva was obliged to raise the siege. The constancy and patience of the Dutch had now convinced him that their subjugation was an impossibility, and he asked to be recalled. He was succeeded by Don Louis de Requesens, a man of nobler character. He suppressed the robberies and murders that had become a part of the daily task of the Spanish soldiery; but continued the Council of Blood, and pressed the war with vigor.

Leyden was now invested by the Spaniards. The garrison was small, but the heroic citizens supplied this deficiency by their own services. In June, 1574, the provisions began to run low, and in a little

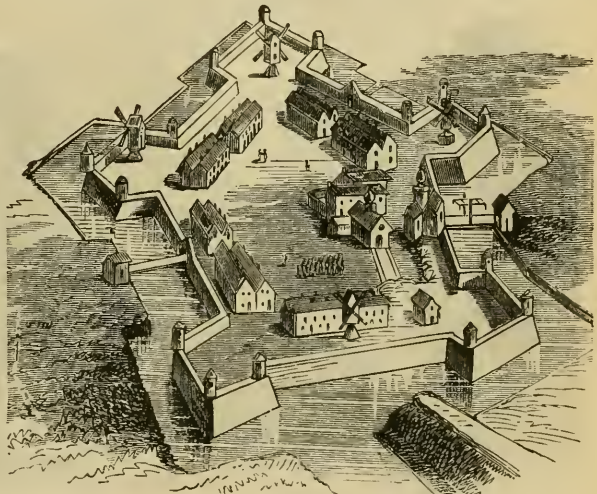
while a famine set in. Still the city held out. July, August and September passed away, and the sufferings of the inhabitants were terrible. William of Orange was anxiously watching the enemy from Delft and Amsterdam, and finding that he could save Leyden in no other way, obtained the consent of the states to a desperate measure. The dikes were cut, and the waters of the German ocean poured in upon the country, flooding the Spanish camp, and enabling the Dutch fleet to throw supplies into Leyden. The next day a strong northeasterly gale drove back the waters, and the dikes were at once repaired.

In March, 1576, Requesens died, and the Spanish soldiery, who had not been paid for a long time, broke into open mutiny, and inflicted the greatest suffering upon the provinces by plundering and destroying wherever they went. Alost, Ghent, Utrecht, Valenciennes and Maestricht were captured by them in the order named, and plundered; and Antwerp was sacked for three days, and suffered a loss of 8,000 citizens and 1,000 houses. These outrages compelled all the provinces to form a union, which was known as the Pacification of Ghent. It was agreed to summon the states general, to take measures for expelling the Spaniards and establishing universal toleration in religious affairs; A. D. 1576.

Philip now sent his brother, Don John of Austria, the hero of Lepanto, to conduct the war in the Netherlands. He was not able to accomplish anything decisive, and Philip soon sent his nephew, Alexander Farnese, Prince of Parma, the greatest general of the age, with reinforcements, to take charge of the military operations. In the autumn of 1578 Don John of Austria died, and the Prince of Parma succeeded him as regent. Previous to this the popular party had set up the Archduke Mathias, the brother of the emperor, as Governor General of the Netherlands. Finding him a weak and worthless person, they set him aside and made the Duke of Anjou, brother of Charles IX. and afterwards Henry III. of France, "defender of the liberties of the Netherlands." The riotous conduct

of the popular party soon produced a sharp quarrel among the patriots, which was more injurious to them than the efforts of the Spaniards. The Catholic provinces withdrew from the league. The seven Protestant states of Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Guelders, Overijssel, Friesland, and Groningen, organized themselves into a confederation by an agreement known as the Union of Utrecht. Thus the Dutch republic was made a certainty, 1579.

Philip now offered a reward for the murder of the Prince of Orange, who was the soul of the patriotic movement. The prince met this offer with a spirited reply, in which he charged Philip with having previously sought to effect his assassination. On the 26th of October, 1581, the states general



CITADEL OF ANTWERP IN 1585.

proclaimed the Duke of Anjou sovereign lord of the Netherlands, and formally renounced their allegiance to Philip of Spain. Holland and Zealand, which were reserved for the Prince of Orange, were exempted from his rule. Anjou compelled the Prince of Parma to raise the siege of Cambray, and entered Antwerp in triumph. He was dissatisfied with his limited sovereignty, and was jealous of the superior influence of the Prince of Orange. In 1583 he attempted to seize the city of Antwerp, but was driven out of the country by the indignant Flemings.

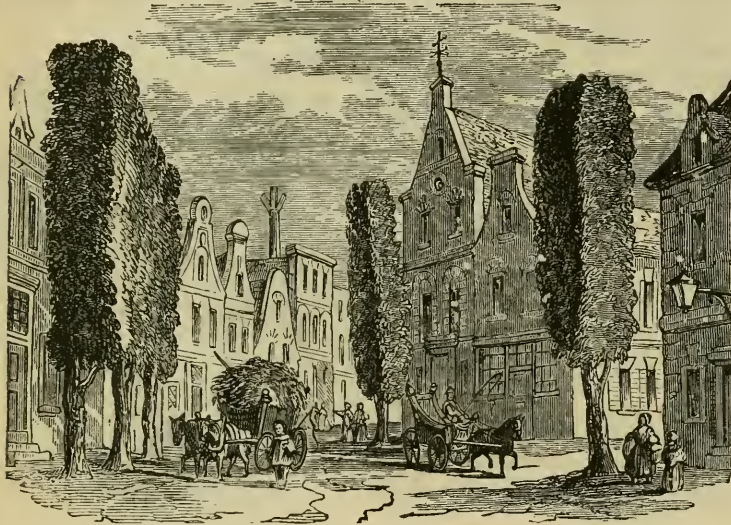
Philip, who scrupled at nothing to accomplish his ends, had, as we have stated, offered a reward for the assassination of the Prince of Orange, and within two years

five separate attempts had been made upon William's life by the agents of the King of Spain. A sixth was successful. In July, 1584, he was shot by Balthazar Gerard, a Burgundian. The assassin was put to death by the Dutch; but his parents were ennobled and richly rewarded by Philip. The death of William was a terrible blow to the patriots. He was the first statesman, and one of the ablest military leaders of his time, and a man of the most unswerving integrity and patriotism. Still his people had learned too deeply the lessons of civic virtue to be ruined even by so great a misfortune. The struggle went on. William's second son, Prince Maurice, though but eighteen years old (the elder son was a

the ruin of his best provinces with satisfaction. The cruelty of the Spaniards compelled the people to make at least a nominal submission to the Roman Church, and the king wrote to Parma, expressing his great satisfaction at the results of the war.

Elizabeth now made an open alliance with the Netherlands, but her assistance did not amount to much. Whatever was gained was due to the exertions of Prince Maurice, for the English commander, the Earl of Leicester, was incompetent. The Spaniards were crippled by a lack of supplies, and their troops were unpaid. These things neutralized to a considerable extent the genius of Parma, and enabled Prince Maurice to reunite the seven provinces of the Dutch republic into a compact state, and to extend his territories to the Meuse and the Scheldt. The accession of Henry IV. to the French throne compelled Philip to send the Prince of Parma and his army into France. We have already seen the results of this campaign. In 1592 Parma died.

The Dutch war for independence was continued under the leadership of Prince Maurice, the son and successor



STREET SCENE IN HAARLEM.

prisoner in Spain), was made his successor. In 1585 Antwerp was taken by the Prince of Parma, after one of the most memorable defences on record. It was garrisoned with Spanish troops, the Jesuits were restored to power, and Antwerp was ruined. Philip's generals had succeeded in retaining the provinces south of the Scheldt, and in banishing the Protestants from those regions; but at the same time they "ruined the industry of Flanders, destroyed its trade, and reduced the Catholics themselves to beggary. Bruges and Ghent became crowded with thieves and paupers. The busy quays of Antwerp were deserted, and its industrious artisans, tradesmen and merchants fled from the place, leaving their property behind them a prey to the spoiler." Philip beheld

of William the Silent. A twelve years' truce was at length negotiated with Spain, and at the expiration of this term, Richelieu, whose constant policy was the humiliation of the house of Austria, concluded an alliance between France and Holland in 1624. In consequence of this alliance the Dutch sent a fleet to assist the French in the siege of Rochelle. On the whole, the reign of Prince Maurice was favorable to his country. The worst feature of it was his partisanship in the unhappy religious controversy which broke out early in the century between the Calvinists and Arminians of Holland. Among the latter were Olden Barneveldt, the grand pensionary, the friend and compatriot of William the Silent, and Hugo Grotius, the great jurist. Barn-

eveltd regarded the ambition of Maurice as dangerous to the country, and sought to place it within restraints. The controversy terminated in the overthrow of the Arminians, who were condemned without a hearing by the Calvinistic Synod of Dort, and their pastors were deprived of their charges or banished. Barneveldt and Grotius were brought to trial before a council of their enemies. The latter was sentenced to imprisonment for life; the former, who had done more for the freedom of Holland than any man save the murdered William, was condemned to death, and was executed on the 14th of May, 1619. Maurice of Nassau could have saved him had he chosen to interfere; but he declined to do so, and Barneveldt could not stoop to beg his life.

Maurice died in April, 1625, and his brother, Prince Frederick Henry, was chosen his successor. The war with Spain went on without any change in its general conduct until the year 1634, when a close alliance was formed between Holland and France for a combined invasion of the Spanish Netherlands from the north and south. An invitation was extended to these provinces to throw off the Spanish yoke and form an independent state. As the price of their deliverance they were to cede a strip of their territories on each side to their deliverers. In case of a refusal of this invitation their country was to be conquered, and divided between France and Holland.

Holland took an active part in the last period of the Thirty Years' War, and endeavored to assist the Elector Palatine to recover his territories, but the army sent to his assistance was annihilated by the imperialist General Hatzfeld. In 1644 the victories of Enghien and Condé gave the French the whole of the Rhine valley from Basle to Coblenz, and opened the way for a more successful campaign on the part of the Dutch. These events have been related, and it only remains to add that the conquests of the combined forces of France and Holland were checked in mid career by the misfortunes of the Prince of Orange, who became insane, and was unable to co-operate effectively with the French. Spain had been gradually growing weaker, and her enemies were pressing her so heavily that it now became necessary for her to make peace with Holland. In January, 1648, a treaty was signed between the two powers, by which Spain acknowledged the seven

provinces of the Dutch republic as free and independent states, and made over to them all the towns in Dutch Flanders and acknowledged their right to their possessions in Asia, Africa, and America.

Thus the long Eighty Years' War of independence was brought to a triumphal close, and Holland took her place among the nations of the world. The bravery and energy of her people had more than compensated for her smallness of territory, and she had become a power whose alliance was desired by all the leading states of Europe. The Dutch had not neglected their natural advantages, and Holland now disputed with England the rank of the first naval power of the world. Her fleet was strong, and was manned by officers and men of tried skill and courage. Her industry had built up a rich commerce with all parts of the world, and she had obtained a footing in Asia and Africa by planting there trading colonies of her own people, and in North America had begun the settlement of the magnificent region watered by the Hudson and the Delaware.

This activity in commercial enterprises at length brought the Dutch in conflict with the English, to whom they were now superior in naval strength. In 1652 the English parliament passed the famous navigation act, which prohibited any foreign vessel from bringing the products of any country save its own into English ports. Holland was chiefly engaged in the carrying trade, and England was her best market. This act therefore struck a terrible blow to her commerce, and the two republics soon drifted into war. The events of this war occurred at sea, and have been related in the history of England. Peace was signed in April, 1654.

Louis XIV., in order to strengthen himself in his designs against the Spanish Netherlands, made an alliance and established friendly relations with Holland. Charles II. of England was anxious to place his nephew, the Prince of Orange, at the head of the Dutch republic, but the grand pensionary, De Witt, opposed this scheme with great energy. War soon followed between England and Holland, in which the Dutch possessions on the Hudson and Delaware were seized by the English. In June, 1665, the Dutch fleet was defeated by the Duke of York near Lowestoff, and the Bishop of Munster, an ally of the English, ravaged the territories of the republic

from the eastward. Louis XIV., much against his will, had been compelled to send assistance to the Dutch, and he now joined the German allies of Holland in compelling the bishop to cease hostilities. Several naval engagements were fought between the Dutch and English forces, and the Dutch fleet entered the Medway and blockaded the Thames, as related. The war was closed by the peace of Breda, July 31st, 1667. The Dutch colonies in America were ceded to England.

In spite of this loss Holland was now at the height of her power and glory. She had held her own against England, and had rescued Denmark from Sweden, as we shall see; and she now joined the coalition

of the Dutch was aroused. The Pensionary De Witt and his brother, the admiral, were murdered by the mob, and William of Orange was placed at the head of affairs, with dictatorial powers. The history of his gallant defence of his country, and the gradual release of Holland from her troubles, has been related in connection with the French history of this period, to which the reader is referred. In February, 1674, England, the alliance of which country had been sold to Louis by Charles II., made peace with Holland, and France was left with no ally but Sweden. In 1677 Charles II. was forced by the English parliament to declare war against France in support of Holland, and the alliance was cemented

by the marriage of the Prince of Orange to Mary, the eldest daughter of the Duke of York, and the niece of the king. The war was closed by the treaty of Nimwegen, August 14th, 1678. By this treaty Holland ceded to France her settlements in Senegal and Guiana, which had been conquered by the French.

In spite of her wars Holland prospered under the wise and firm rule of William of Orange. William's life-long policy was to check the ambition of Louis XIV., and to compel



VIEW OF DORT.

which sought to check the ambition of Louis XIV., and set bounds to his acquisition of territory. By so doing she incurred the deadly vengeance of the French king, who had also begun to hate the republic for giving to the fugitives from his tyranny a safe and sure asylum. In April, 1672, the French army invaded and rapidly overran the Dutch territories. The young Prince William of Orange had been appointed captain-general for the campaign, and in the general panic which seized upon the Dutch at this invasion, he was the only person who retained his calmness and courage. The government in dismay offered through the Grand Pensionary De Witt the most abject terms. Louis answered with haughty insults, and the spirit

him to respect the rights of his neighbors, and it was owing to him that Louis did not succeed in rendering all western Europe subservient to France. Upon the commencement of the persecutions of the Huguenots, large numbers of the fugitive Protestants sought refuge in Holland, where they were protected. Thus the cruel policy of Louis greatly strengthened the hands of his ablest and most determined rival. Repeated coalitions were formed against the French king by the genius and determination of William, who gained another advantage over his rival in 1688 by his accession to the crown of England, the circumstances of which have been related. Holland retained her independence and separate government after this

event, but gained immeasurably in being able to count on the unwavering and determined support of the powerful English kingdom in her opposition to Louis. The war with France, which followed this event, was fought outside the limits of the republic, and was closed in May, 1697, by the peace of Ryswick. In 1698 Holland entered into a secret treaty with France and England for the partition of the Spanish dominions upon the death of Charles II. of Spain, thus becoming a participant in the war of the Spanish succession. Her share in it has been related. Holland gained nothing by this war, and her losses during its existence were very great. In the war of the Austrian succession Holland espoused the cause of Maria Theresa, and in 1747 her territory was invaded by the French army under Count Lowendahl. The only important result of this invasion was to seat the hereditary stadtholder, William IV. of Nassau-Dietz, on the Dutch throne. He was the son-in-law of the King of England. The war required great sacrifices of Holland, and gained little or nothing for her. It was closed by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in October, 1748.

The republic took no part in the Seven Years' War, and remained at peace until 1780, when a secret commercial treaty was negotiated with the United States of America, then struggling to establish their independence. This treaty was discovered by Great Britain, and as it fully recognized the independence of the United States, it was held to be a sufficient cause for hostilities. War was therefore declared against Holland by Great Britain. The English fleet inflicted great losses upon the Dutch. Several of the Dutch West India islands were taken by the English, who also, in 1781, captured a fleet of thirty richly laden Dutch merchantmen. These ships were retaken by a French fleet, and sent into Brest. Demerara and Essequibo were captured, but the English fleet sent against the Cape of Good Hope was defeated by the French. The war closed in 1783.

The Dutch had been placed by the treaty of Utrecht in possession of a line of frontier fortresses between France and the Austrian Netherlands, which were erected as a barrier between the possessions of France and Austria. This arrangement was continued until the reign of the Emperor Joseph II., who peremptorily ordered the Dutch to withdraw their forces from these fortresses,

which he demolished. War was prevented only by the armed intervention of France, which secured the conclusion of the treaty of Fontainebleau.

Holland was now divided internally between two parties, which were very hostile to each other, and which came to an open rupture during the long minority of William V., the hereditary stadtholder. The republican, or patriot party, encouraged by the French, wished to make the dignities of stadtholder, high-admiral, and captain-general elective, and thus weaken the house of Orange. The Orange party maintained the hereditary nature of these dignities, and was sustained by England and Prussia. The patriot party at length obtained the mastery, and William V. of Orange, the hereditary stadtholder, was expelled from the fortress of the Hague, and his wife was treated as a prisoner. The Princess of Orange was the sister of Frederick William II., King of Prussia. The Prussian monarch at once invaded Holland with an army of 30,000 men, and restored the stadtholder. Holland now renounced the French alliance for that of England and Prussia. This was accomplished by the treaty of Loo, in June, 1788.

Upon the execution of Louis XVI. of France, Holland made common cause with her allies against France, and in 1792 the French convention declared war against her. Later in the year the French army under General Dumouriez invaded the Dutch territory and seized Breda, Klundert, and Gertruydenberg. The attempted arrest and sudden flight of the French commander to the Austrian camp gave the Dutch a brief respite. The next year the invasion was resumed by Pichegru, as has been related. The republican party openly welcomed the French, who by a series of easy victories obtained possession of the country. The Prince of Orange fled to England, and the states general abolished the office of stadtholder, and proclaimed the Batavian republic, the form of government being modelled upon that of republican France. A close alliance was made with France, and Holland became involved in a war with Great Britain, by which she lost her colonies in the West Indies, the East Indies and at the Cape of Good Hope, which were wrested from her by the English.

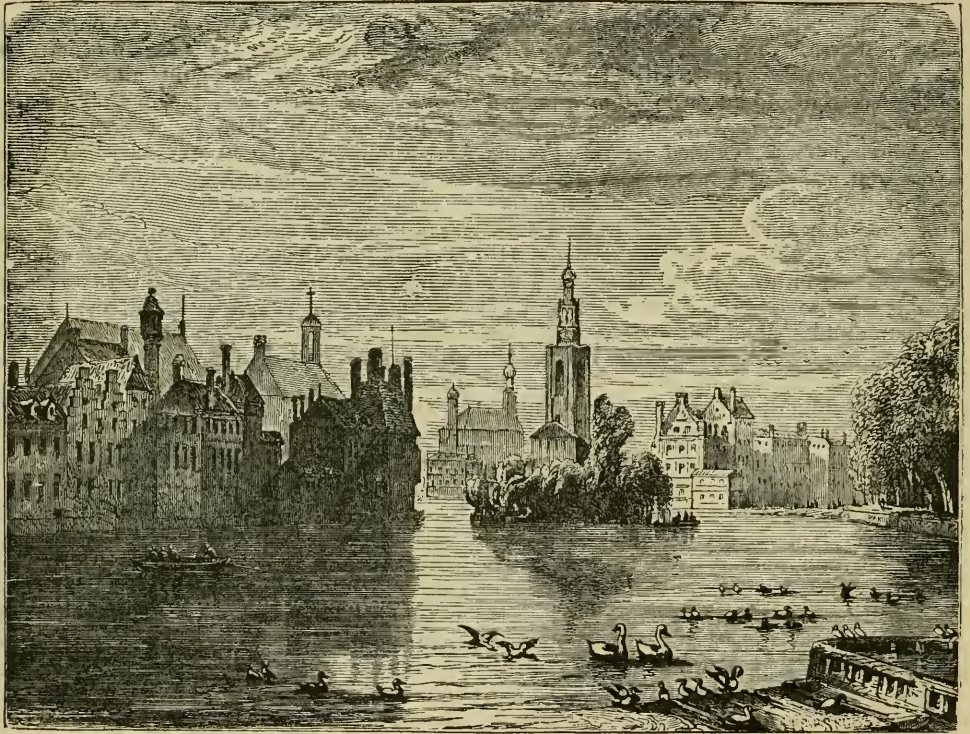
The history of Holland from the commencement of the nineteenth century to the downfall of Napoleon I. has been related

in connection with that of France. At the return of peace, in 1815, the whole of the Low Countries, including the Austrian provinces, but excepting the districts which had been conquered by Louis XIV., which France was allowed to retain, were formed into the kingdom of the Netherlands, and the crown was conferred upon William, Prince of Orange, who also held the grand duchy of Luxemburg, which formed a part of the German confederation.

The northern and southern provinces,

A conference of the representatives of these powers was held at London, and a plan for the separation of Belgium from Holland was agreed upon. Holland was allowed to retain Luxemburg, but with this exception was confined to the limits it had occupied in 1790. In June, 1831, a Belgian congress met at Brussels, and conferred the crown upon Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg.

The King of Holland refused to be bound by these arrangements, and held Antwerp



VIEW OF THE HAGUE.

however, did not agree well, and after a long series of disputes the southern provinces, which had formerly constituted the Austrian Netherlands, rebelled against the rule of the Dutch, from whom they differed in religion, language, and customs. The disturbances began with a riot in the College of Louvain. The French revolution of 1830 greatly encouraged the Belgians, and all the cities of the southern provinces joined the revolt. The Dutch troops were everywhere expelled, and a provisional government was set up in Brussels. The independence of Belgium was proclaimed, and was recognized by the five great powers.

with a garrison of 4,000 men under General Chassé. Dutch garrisons also occupied other points along the Scheldt. In November, 1831, a French army of 50,000 men laid siege to Antwerp, which maintained a vigorous defence until the 23d of December, when it surrendered, as the French were about to carry it by assault. The Dutch troops were then withdrawn from the Scheldt, the navigation of which became free to the Belgians. Holland in 1839 recognized the independence of Belgium.

Since that period the history of Holland has been peaceful and uneventful. In 1840 King William I. abdicated his crown in

favor of his son, William II., who died in 1849, and was succeeded by his son, William III., the present king. In 1862 slavery was abolished in the Dutch West India possessions. In 1866, upon the disruption of the German confederation, the grand duchies of Limburg and Luxemburg ceased to be members of the German league. The next year the King of Holland, being

greatly in need of money, offered to sell Luxemburg to France. This offer produced serious complications in Europe, as we have seen, and the sale was prevented by the interposition of Prussia. In 1870 capital punishment was abolished throughout the kingdom. Since this event the history of the country has been peaceful and uneventful.

BOOK XXIX.

THE HISTORY OF BELGIUM.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE FORMATION OF THE KINGDOM TO THE PRESENT DAY.

Geographical Situation of Belgium—Population—Belgium Retained by Spain After the Dutch War of Independence—Becomes a Possession of Austria—Its History Under Austrian Rule—Conquered by the French Republic—Becomes a Part of France—Is Made by the Treaty of Vienna a Part of the Kingdom of the Netherlands—Dissatisfaction of the Belgians—Revolution of 1830—The Petition to the King—It is Unheeded—Prince Frederick at Brussels—The Revolt Spreads—The Dutch Troops Driven from Brussels—General Chassé Opens Fire Upon Antwerp—A Provisional Government Established by the Patriots—The National Congress—The Independent Kingdom of Belgium Proclaimed—Intervention of the Great Powers—Belgian Independence Sustained—Leopold of Saxe-Coburg Chosen King—Holland Renews the War—France Aids Belgium—Siege and Surrender of Antwerp—Subsequent History of Belgium.

THE kingdom of Belgium lies south of the Netherlands, between latitude 49° 30' and 51° N., and longitude 2° 33' and 6° 6' E. It is bounded on the north by the Netherlands, on the east by Germany, on the south by France, and on the west by France and the North Sea. Its greatest length, from southeast to northwest, is 180 miles, and its greatest breadth, from the northern border of the province of Antwerp to the southern extremity of Hainault, is 124 miles. It covers an area of 11,372 miles. The population in December, 1874, was 5,336,634.

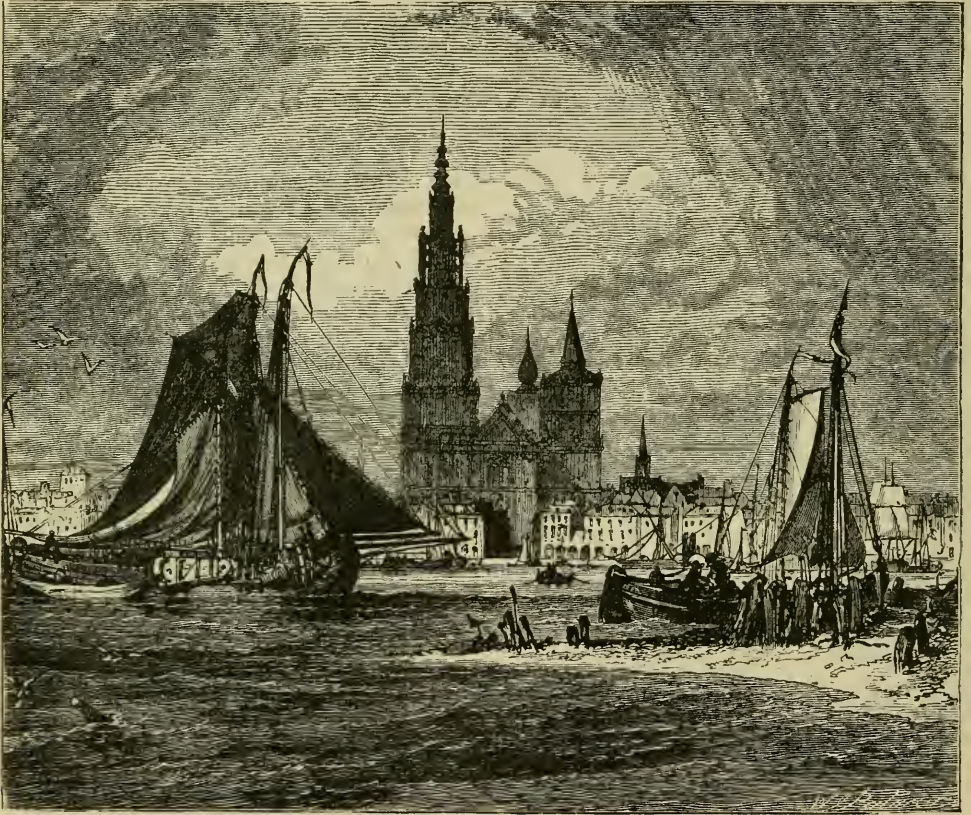
The history of Belgium, from the time of the conquest of the Belgæ by Julius Cæsar to the establishment of the independence of the Dutch republic, has been re-

lated in the preceding portions of this work, and need not be repeated here.

During the latter part of the Dutch war of independence, the southern provinces of the Netherlands, which now comprise the kingdom of Belgium, adhered to the cause of Spain. In 1648 Spain acknowledged the independence of the Dutch republic, and the two portions of the Low Countries were definitely separated, Spain retaining the provinces south of the Scheldt, and confirming Holland in the possession of those north of that river. For at least a century the southern provinces were the battle-field of Europe; many of the conflicts of the Thirty Years' War, the war between Louis XIV. and Spain, and the war of the Spanish succession being fought in the various provinces. The treaties of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1668; Nimwegen, in 1678; and Ryswick, in 1697, passed the provinces from the hands of one power to the other, and the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, which closed the war of the Spanish succession, gave the Spanish Netherlands to Austria. In 1715 a supplementary treaty was concluded, which required that a line of frontier fortresses, from Furnes on the coast, to Charleroi and Namur, should be garrisoned by the Dutch as a perpetual barrier between France and the Low Countries. Somewhat later Holland closed the Scheldt to any but her own vessels, and so diverted to Amsterdam the trade of Antwerp, which had begun to revive from the injuries inflicted upon it by the bigoted policy of Philip II. of Spain. Charles, Duke of Lorraine, was appointed by the Empress Maria Theresa Viceroy of the

Austrian Netherlands, as they were now called. His rule was just and liberal, and under him the people began to enjoy some degree of their former prosperity. Joseph II. put an end to the occupation of the frontier forts by the Dutch, and compelled them to withdraw into their own country. He endeavored to secure the reopening of the navigation of the Scheldt, but did not succeed in doing so. His efforts to reform the abuses existing in the government of the Netherlands, while well meant, were

the authority of the emperor in the provinces. In 1795 General Pichegru was ordered by the directory to enter Belgium with a French army to the assistance of the republicans. The Austrians were driven back at all points, and a decree was issued by the French government declaring Belgium (as the Austrian Netherlands were now called) an integral part of the French republic. At the formation of the empire Belgium became a part of that monarchy. Upon the abdication of Napoleon, in 1814,



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too violent, and aroused a strong popular opposition which was greatly encouraged by the success of the French Revolution. On the 11th of December, 1789, the people of Brussels rose against the Austrian garrison and forced it to surrender. Joseph, and his successor Leopold II., offered liberal terms to the provinces in their efforts to settle the differences, but the Belgian leaders refused to accept them, and declared their intention to establish an independent Belgian republic. In the contest which followed, the Austrian forces re-established

Austria reasserted her claim to the country, and it was placed under an Austrian viceroy. By the treaty of Vienna, in 1815, Belgium was united with Holland. The two countries were styled the kingdom of the Netherlands, and were placed under the sovereignty of William Frederick of Orange-Nassau, who became the first monarch of the new kingdom, which was designed by the allies to form one of the chief bulwarks against France.

This union was particularly distasteful to the people of Belgium, who were not con-

sulted by the allies in the formation of the new kingdom. The Belgians were separated from the Dutch by differences in national character, language, religion, and commercial pursuits. Holland had a population of about 2,500,000, but in the states general her representation was equal to that of Belgium, the population of which was about 4,000,000. In addition to this, at the time of the union the public debt of Belgium was only 4,000,000 florins; that of Holland was 1,200,000,000 florins, for which the Belgians became responsible. The use of the French language in judicial proceedings and the acts of the government was discontinued, and there were many other measures adopted which were odious to the Belgians and served to keep alive the popular discontent.

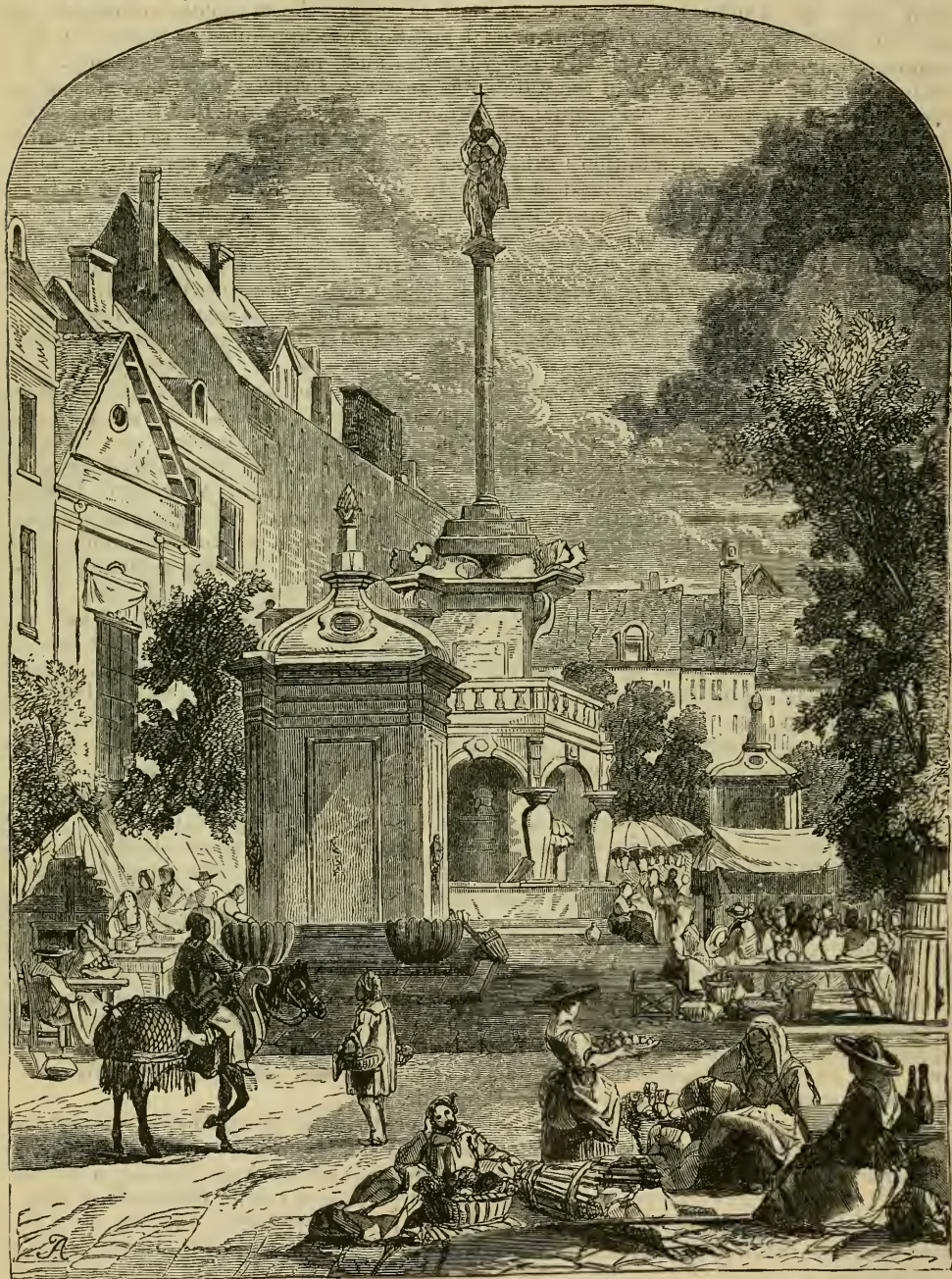
Matters came to a crisis in May, 1830, when the government, in the face of 640 petitions, adopted a new and rigorous press law. At the same time officials holding sentiments favorable to Belgium were dismissed from their positions. A subscription was opened by the leaders of the Belgian party for the benefit of the discharged officials, and was liberally supported. M. de Potter and his co-workers, Tielemans, Bartels, and De Nève, the leaders of the Belgian party and the prime movers in this subscription, were arrested on a charge of sedition, and being found guilty, were banished from the kingdom. This sentence was received by the people of Belgium with the greatest indignation, and in the midst of this excitement the news came of the successful revolution of July at Paris, and the flight of Charles X. The agitation spread rapidly, and on the night of the 25th of August, 1830, during the performance of the opera of "Masaniello" at the grand opera house of Brussels, the audience rose *en masse* and gave the signal for the revolution. The excited spectators rushed from the theatre, sacked the office of the *National* newspaper, the government organ, plundered the gun-shops, and erected barricades in the streets. The outbreak was put down the next day by the civic guard, but the revolution had spread, and in all the principal towns of Belgium similar scenes were enacted.

On the 28th of August a congress of citizens met at the town hall of Brussels and adopted an address to the king, in which they appealed to him to make certain reforms in the system of government,

to grant trial by jury in criminal prosecutions and in proceedings affecting the press, and to remove the unpopular ministers. A deputation was appointed to proceed to the Hague, and present these demands. It was received by the king, who refused to promise anything until the Belgians submitted to his authority, but said he would consider the matter at an early day. This reply only increased the excitement in Belgium. At length the Crown Prince Frederick was prevailed upon to visit Brussels and try to effect a settlement of the troubles. He held a conference with the leading men of that city, but could accomplish nothing. A deputation from Liège plainly told him that the people of Belgium would be satisfied with nothing less than a total separation from Holland. On the 13th of September the states general met in extraordinary session and a new ministry was appointed by the king. An army of 14,000 men, under Prince Frederick, was sent to suppress the revolt at Brussels, and after three days of hard fighting gained possession of the principal part of the city, September 23d-26th. The revolutionists were rapidly reinforced from Liège and other towns, and Prince Frederick was compelled to retreat from Brussels. Other leading cities of Belgium followed the example of Brussels, and on the 6th of October the Dutch garrison of Liège capitulated. Antwerp alone held out for Holland. General Chassé had occupied the citadel of that town with several thousand Dutch troops, and the magistrates had concluded an armistice with him in the hope of saving the city. The insurgent leaders repudiated this arrangement and summoned the Dutch forces to surrender. General Chassé replied by opening fire upon the quarter of the town occupied by the insurgents. The city was much damaged and a great amount of property was destroyed by this cannonade.

A provisional government was established by the revolutionists at Brussels, and proceeded to the work of framing a constitution for Belgium as an independent kingdom. Prince Frederick, who was at Antwerp, agreed to consent to this arrangement on condition that he should be made king, but the Belgians declined his offer. He thereupon left Antwerp, and on the 25th of October General Chassé opened a two days' bombardment of the city, inflicting great damage upon it. By this useless act

of barbarity he put an end forever to all | visional government in establishing the
hope of a friendly settlement with Holland. | monarchical form of government, and de-



MARKET-PLACE AT LIÈGE.

On the 10th of November a national congress was held at Brussels. This body proclaimed the independence of the kingdom of Belgium, ratified the work of the pro- | clared the house of Orange forever ex-
cluded from the Belgian throne.
King William of Holland now appealed to the great powers, from whom he had re-

ceived Belgium, to compel the Belgians to adhere to the arrangement, and at his request a conference of the representatives of these powers was held at London. The Dutch and Belgians were ordered to withdraw their troops within their respective frontiers and to engage in no further hostilities until the result of the conference should be made known. On the 20th of January, 1831, the conference acknowledged the independence of Belgium, and bound that country to assume a share of the national debt of the Netherlands, which was to be paid by monthly instalments.

The national congress of the Belgians now offered the crown of the new kingdom to the Duke de Nemours, the son of Louis Philippe of France, but the prince declined it as the European powers opposed his acceptance of it. A regency, with the Baron Surlet de Choquier at its head, was established in the place of the provisional government. The crown was then offered to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, the son-in-law of George IV. of England. He accepted the offer, and on the 21st of July, 1831, was crowned King of the Belgians. Not long after this a Dutch army invaded the Belgian dominions in defiance of the armistice. The new kingdom was in too unsettled a condition to meet this danger, and Leopold appealed to France for aid. A French army, under Marshal Gerard, entered Belgium, drove out the Dutch forces, and compelled General Chassé to surrender the citadel of Antwerp, December 23d, 1832. This brought the actual hostilities to a close, but the final treaty of peace between Belgium and Holland was not signed until April 19th, 1839, and then only at the dictation of the European powers. By this treaty Luxemburg and Limburg were divided between the contending parties, Holland's share being the eastern portion of these provinces, with the fortresses of Maastricht, Venloo, and Lux-

emburg. On the 9th of August, 1832, King Leopold married the Princess Louise, the daughter of Louis Philippe, by whom he had several children.

Leopold devoted himself earnestly to promoting the prosperity and freedom of his kingdom. Liberal institutions were established, and Belgium entered upon the career of prosperous industry which has made her one of the richest nations of Europe. Being so close to France, the kingdom did not entirely escape the agitation caused by the revolution of 1848, but this movement, so far as Belgium was concerned, resulted only in certain reforms in the electoral system and the abolition of the newspaper duty. The coup d'état of Napoleon in 1851 drove large numbers of French refugees into Belgium, and these caused the government considerable embarrassment. The liberal journals were very bitter in their denunciations of the course of Napoleon, and the government was obliged to suppress some of the most obnoxious of these, to expel a few of the refugees, and to procure the passage of a law punishing attempts against the lives of foreign sovereigns. Leopold died on the 9th of December, 1865, after a peaceful and prosperous reign of thirty-four years.

Leopold II., the eldest son of the first king, succeeded his father. His reign has been prosperous and peaceful. During the Franco-German war of 1870-71 Belgium observed a rigid neutrality between the combatants, forbidding even the exportation of arms, ammunition, or materials of war. On the 9th of August, 1870, England, which, since the formation of the kingdom, has been recognized as the special protector of Belgium, concluded a treaty with France and Prussia, by which those powers agreed to respect the neutrality of Belgium. Since the close of this war the history of the country has been uneventful.



BOOK XXX.

THE HISTORY OF DENMARK.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT DAY.

Geographical Position of Denmark—Early History Mythical—Origin of the Name—Gorm the Old—Queen Thyra—Builds the Dannevirke—Harald Blue Tooth—Svend—Conquers a Part of England—Canute the Great—Abolishes Paganism—Conversion of the Danes to Christianity—Denmark Joined to Norway—Magnus the Good—Division of the Kingdoms—Reign of Svend II.—His Successors—Valdemar I.—Valdemar II.—Converts the Esthonians—His Captivity—His Successors—Rise of the Commons—Christopher I.—Decline of the Royal Power—War with Schleswig—Valdemar III.—Olaf—Margaret—Her Good Reign—Her Successors—Christian of Oldenburg Becomes King—Christian II.—Loses Sweden—Is Deposed—Frederick I.—Denmark Becomes Protestant—The Wars of the Seventeenth Century—Christian VII.—War with England—Defeat of the Danish Fleet by Lord Nelson—Bombardment of Copenhagen—Denmark Joins the Coalition Against Napoleon—Loses Norway—Frederick VII.—The Schleswig-Holstein Wars—Denmark Loses the Duchies—The Millennial Celebration of Iceland.

THE kingdom of Denmark is situated in the north of Europe, and lies between latitude $54^{\circ} 30'$ and $57^{\circ} 45' N.$, and longitude $8^{\circ} 5'$ and $12^{\circ} 45' E.$ It includes also the small island of Bornholm, in the Baltic, which lies in longitude $15^{\circ} E.$ The kingdom is bounded on the north by the Skager Rack, on the northeast and east by the Cattogat, the Sound, and the Baltic, on the south by the Strait of Femern, the Little Belt, and Schleswig, and on the west by the North Sea. The kingdom consists of the peninsula of Jutland and the islands of Seeland, Fünen, Laaland, Falster, Langeland, Møen, Samsø, Läsö, Arrö, Bornholm, and some other smaller islands. It possesses also the Faroe Islands, Iceland and Greenland, and the islands of Santa Cruz, St. Thomas, and St. John, in the West Indies. The area of the kingdom proper is 14,752 square miles, and its population 1,903,000. Including the colonies the area is 87,161 square miles, and the population 2,032,000.

The early history of Denmark is full of uncertainty. According to the national traditions the country received its name from Dan Mykillati, or "Dan the Famous," one of its earliest kings, who taught

his people many useful arts, and made all the neighboring princes tributary to him. The date and the events of his reign are unknown. He was followed by a long line of kings, one of whom, Stoerkodder, is the Northern Hercules, and many legends are related of his great strength and prowess. He is believed to have reigned about A. D. 600. Another of these legendary heroes was Sigurd Ring, whose son, Regner Lodbrog, even surpassed him in valor.

Towards the end of the ninth century Denmark, which had been until then divided among a number of petty rulers, became united in a single kingdom. The first king of the new state was Gorm the Old, who reigned between A. D. 860 and 936. By this time the Northmen, of whom the Danes were the foremost, had made themselves a terror to all the coasts of Europe. In their strong, swift-sailing galleys they descended upon all the exposed points of the coast, and marked their progress by their violence. We have related their ravages elsewhere, and need not repeat the account here. Gorm was one of the principal leaders of these plundering bands. He invaded Germany, ravaged the northern coast with fire and sword, and even carried his arms as far south as Aix-la-Chapelle, where he plundered the chapel in which Charlemagne lay buried. He also took part in the first siege of Paris by the Northmen, in 885. In 891 he headed his troops in the battle of Louvain, in which the Northmen were overwhelmingly beaten by the German king, Arnulf.

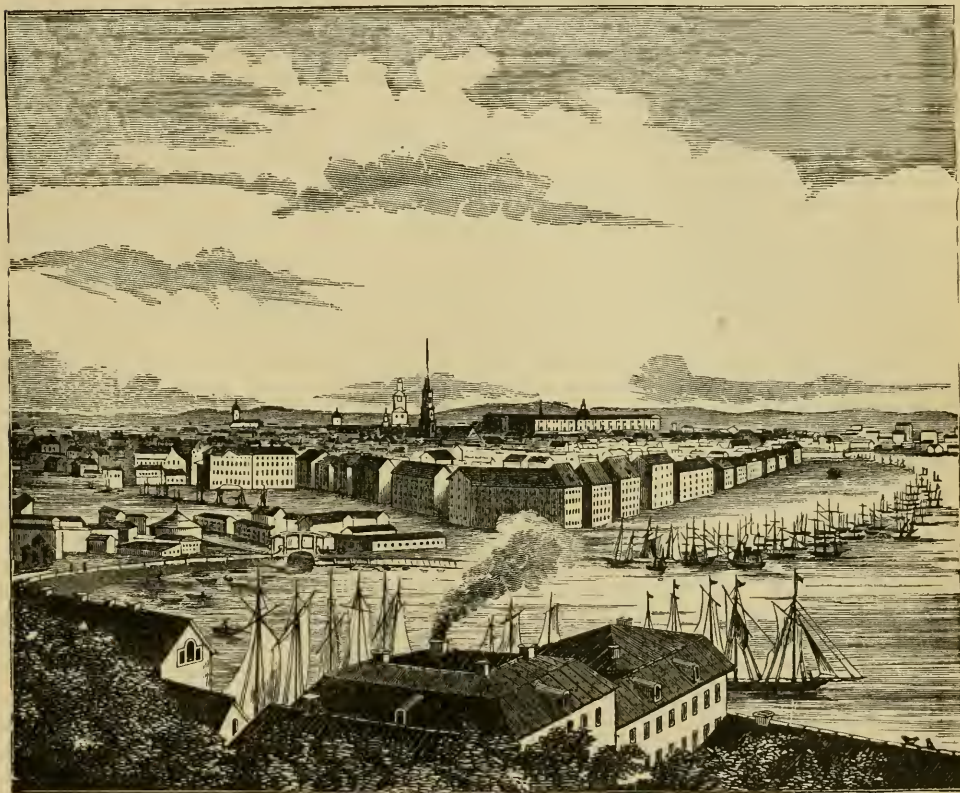
During the absence of Gorm on his roving expeditions, Denmark was ruled by his queen, Thyra, a woman of unusual vigor of mind. Her husband was a fierce pagan, but she was favorably inclined to Christianity. She caused the erection of the immense rampart known as the Dannevirke, which stretched across the peninsula at the southern end of Schleswig. It was forty-five to seventy feet high and eight miles in length, and was meant to protect Denmark from the invasions of the Germans.

Gorm died in 936, and his son Harald Blue Tooth came to the throne. He was

a cruel and crafty king, and succeeded by treachery in making Norway tributary to him for a time, but the latter kingdom soon recovered its independence. Harald professed Christianity and was baptized, together with his wife and his son Svend, or Sweyn, by a German monk named Poppa, who also converted a large part of the Danish people. Harald undertook several wars with France in aid of the young Duke Richard the Fearless of Normandy. He died in battle in 985.

Svend, or Sweyn, the son of Harald, suc-

Harald was chosen King of Denmark, and Canute, who was but fourteen years old at the time, was given his father's conquests in England. He followed these up with vigor, and soon won for himself the whole of England. In 1018 Harald died, and Canute was chosen his successor on the Danish throne. Being a Christian he abolished the worship of Odin in Denmark, and made Christianity the religion of the state. He preferred England as a place of residence, and his reign belongs more to English than to Danish history. He made himself mas-



COPENHAGEN.

ceeded his father on the throne of Denmark. As we have related elsewhere he invaded England in 994, during the reign of Ethelred the Unready, and conquered a large part of that kingdom. This conquest consumed a number of years, and in 1014 Svend died suddenly at Gainesborough. Though baptized in childhood, he relapsed from Christianity to paganism upon reaching maturer years.

Svend left two sons, Harald and Knud, or as he is known in English history, Canute.

ter of Sweden and Norway, as well as of Cumberland and parts of Scotland, and though but thirty-six years old at the time of his death, was one of the greatest of European monarchs. He died in 1035.

Harald Harefoot, the son of Canute by his first wife, succeeded to the English throne, and Harthakund, or Hardicanute, a son by a second marriage, obtained the crown of Denmark. Harald died in 1039, and Hardicanute succeeded him as King of England. He reigned three years, and

passed most of his time in England. In Danish history his reign is uneventful.

At the death of Hardicanute in 1042, Denmark passed to Norway, in consequence of an agreement to that effect between Hardicanute and Magnus the Good of Norway. This was a gain for Denmark, and for five years the Danes enjoyed the benefits of the wise rule of King Magnus. At his death in 1047 he resigned the Danish crown to Svend, the nephew of Canute, and thus the kingdoms of Norway and Denmark were again separated.

King Harald of Norway endeavored to defeat this arrangement, and for seventeen years kept up a constant war upon Denmark, in which that country suffered greatly. As he wished to make war upon England, he concluded a peace with Svend in 1064. Svend was a good ruler and a good man, and his reign was in the main a prosperous one. In 1069 he attempted to wrest England from William the Conqueror, but without success. This was the last of the Danish attempts upon England. Svend was a warm friend of Pope Gregory VII., with whom he maintained a constant correspondence; but when Gregory ordered him to acknowledge himself a vassal of the holy see, he refused to do so, and stoutly maintained the independence of his kingdom. He is said to have been an exceedingly ugly and clumsy man, and personally a great coward. He was a good king to his country, however, and was the founder of the present reigning house of Denmark. He died in 1076, and left fourteen sons. Five of these were in succession Kings of Denmark. Harald, the eldest, reigned from 1076 to 1080; Knud to 1086; Olaf from 1086 to 1095; Erik from 1095 to 1103; and Niels from 1103 to 1134. The reigns of these kings were full of trouble and internal dissensions.

The death of Niels was followed by a troubled period, which was ended by the accession to the Danish throne of Valdemar I., called The Great. This prince found his kingdom poor, without an army, and in great distress. He left it a prosperous, well-defended, and busy country. He won great successes over the heathen Wends and Esthonians, on the Baltic, whom he forced to embrace Christianity. He died in 1182, and was succeeded by his son, Knud VI., who brought all Pomerania and some of eastern Prussia under the power of Denmark. He died in 1202, and

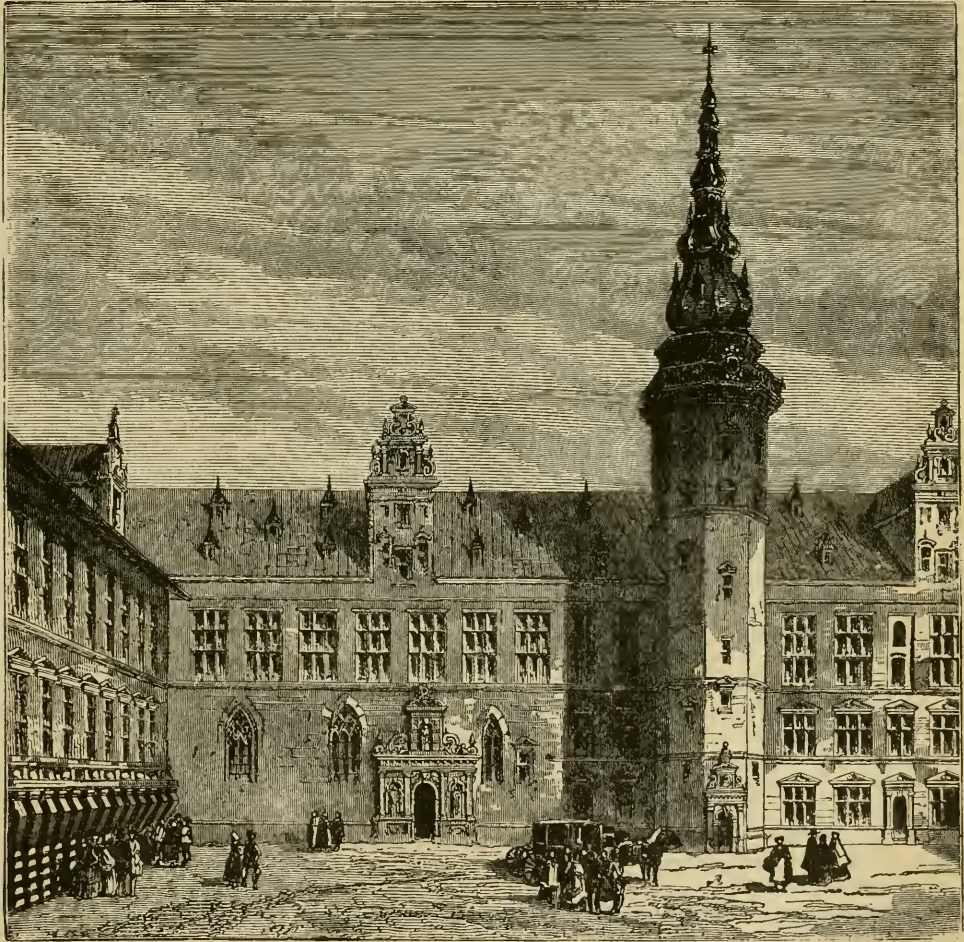
was succeeded by his brother, Valdemar II., one of Denmark's greatest kings. He subdued and annexed all of Pomerania, and in 1217 the German emperor granted to him and his successors all the territories north of the Elbe and the Elde, thus making him actual master of the greater part of northern Germany. In 1219 Valdemar, with the sanction of the pope, undertook to convert the Esthonians to Christianity. He entered upon his task with a force of 60,000 men and a fleet of 1,400 ships. He soon overran the whole of Esthonia, and compelled large numbers of the people to submit to baptism. The Livonian knights of the sword bitterly opposed this conversion of Esthonia, as they declared that they alone had the right to make Christians of the heathen of that region. They took up arms to expel the Danes, and several severe battles occurred between the contending forces, in which the Danes were generally successful. When Valdemar returned to Denmark from Esthonia he seemed at the height of his power. In 1223, however, while sleeping in his tent during a hunting expedition, he was seized, gagged, and bound, together with his eldest son, Prince Valdemar, by Count Henry of Schwerin, carried off in a swift sailing vessel to Germany, and thrown with his son into a dungeon in the Castle of Danneberg, in Hanover. He was kept in this shameful captivity for several years, and was only released upon payment of a ransom of 45,000 silver marks. The remainder of his reign was uneventful. He was unable to avenge himself upon Count Henry, and devoted his efforts to the improvement of his kingdom. In 1241 he gave to Denmark her first uniform code of laws. This code remained in force for nearly 450 years, and even then was not entirely abolished. Three days after this code was adopted by the Danish estates Valdemar died, at the age of seventy-one.

Prince Valdemar having died before his father, the king's second son, Erik, came to the throne at Valdemar's death. He reigned until 1251, and was murdered by order of his brother, Abel, Duke of Schleswig, who obtained the crown. Abel reigned only two years, and was slain in 1252 by a man whom he had wronged. His reign is noted chiefly as being the first in which the burgher class were permitted as a distinct body to send representatives to the "Danehof," or yearly national assembly. They

were also granted important municipal privileges, which they had not enjoyed before. King Abel was succeeded by his brother Christopher, a man in the prime of life, who reigned until 1259. His career was uneventful.

Christopher I. was succeeded by his son, Erik Glipping, a child of ten years. He reigned until 1286, but his reign was un-

Danish nobles compelled him to sign a charter which rendered them almost independent of the king, and entirely freed them from taxation by the crown, thus largely reducing the revenues of the monarch. Christopher's efforts to free himself from these hard conditions involved the kingdom in many civil wars. In 1325 the nobles called in the assistance of Count Gerhard



ROYAL PALACE AT KRONBERG.

eventful. His son, Erik Menved, also a child of ten years, succeeded him and reigned until 1319. Under these two kings the royal power declined rapidly, and the Hanse towns were able to dictate the terms upon which the Danes should engage in the fisheries. Christopher II., the brother of Erik, succeeded to the throne in 1319. The crown being elective, before they allowed Christopher to assume the

of Holstein, who defeated the king, and persuaded the Danes to declare the throne vacant. He set up his nephew, Valdemar of Schleswig, as king, but for fourteen years was himself the real ruler of Denmark. Christopher, after many attempts to regain his throne, died in 1332. Count Gerhard continued to rule Denmark, greatly oppressing the people, and earning their bitter hatred. In 1340 he was slain in the midst

of his nobles and army by a Jutlander of rank named Niels Ebbesön. The Jutlanders at once rallied under this daring man, and drove out the German army. Count Henry, the son of Gerhard, took up arms to avenge his father, and defeated the Danes in the battle of Skandersborg, in which Niels was slain. Henry then withdrew his troops, and left the Danes to settle their own affairs.

The Danish princes chose Valdemar Atterdag, the youngest son of Christopher, to be their king. He revived the power and credit of the Danish monarchy, and conducted a successful war with the Hanse towns. Being anxious to secure the marriage of his daughter Margaret with the Crown Prince of Sweden and Norway, he seized the Princess Elizabeth of Holstein Gottorp, who was betrothed to that prince, and held her a prisoner until he effected the marriage of his daughter with the heir to the Swedish throne. This act involved him in a war with the Counts of Holstein, who made an alliance against him with the Hanse towns and some of the German princes. Valdemar was defeated with the loss of a considerable part of his kingdom, and was obliged to fly from Denmark in 1368. For four years the Hansers managed the affairs of the Danish kingdom, but in 1372 permitted Valdemar to return to his throne on condition that in future the Hanse towns should have a voice in the election of the Danish kings. In 1375 Valdemar died. The Danish nobles at once proclaimed as King of Denmark Olaf, the son of Margaret, Queen of Sweden and Norway, Valdemar's daughter. Olaf died in 1387, at the age of seventeen. The Danes then chose Margaret, the mother of Olaf, to be their queen. Soon after this Margaret was crowned Queen of Norway, and thus Denmark and Norway were united under one crown.

Margaret was one of the most remarkable women in history. She proved a wise and good ruler to her two kingdoms, and greatly attached her people to her. She adopted as her heir Erik of Pomerania, the grandson of her sister Ingeborg, and strove hard to render him worthy of his destiny. The great chronicler of Lübeck says of her: "She made peace with old foes, and kept good order over her people, gaining to her side both nobles and peasants. She went from castle to castle, and received the homage and faithful service of the great;

she journeyed from province to province, and looked well into matters of law and of right, until all obeyed and served her; justice was done in the land, and even the high-born sea-robbers, who so long had plagued the kingdom and defied the laws, were seized with terror, and were glad to come forward and give surety in money for their future good conduct."

Margaret was not contented with her two kingdoms, but claimed the crown of Sweden also, in right of her husband. In 1389 she invaded that country, and defeated the reigning king, Albert the Elder, of Mecklenburg, and kept him a prisoner for six years. She assumed the government of Sweden immediately after her victory. In 1398 she caused her nephew, Erik of Pomerania, to be crowned with great state at Calmar, as King of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, and on this occasion proclaimed the arrangement known as the "Calmar Act of Union," by which the three kingdoms were united in one monarchy. The king was to be elected conjointly by the three nations. This act was distasteful to the Swedes, but continued in force until the sixteenth century. "If Margaret could have been followed on the throne by rulers as good and just as she had been, this Act of the Union of Calmar might have worked for the good of the three kingdoms. For it was quite true, as the queen said, that each one alone was a poor, weak state, open to danger from every side, but that the three united would make a monarchy strong enough to defy the attacks and schemes of the Hanse traders and all foes from the side of Germany, and would keep the Baltic clear of danger from foreigners. There was, however, no ruler who came after Queen Margaret equal to her, as there had been none before her to be compared to her." Margaret died suddenly in 1412, and Erik remained sole ruler of the three kingdoms.

Erik was a weak and incompetent prince. During the last years of Margaret's life he had shown signs of incapacity, but her abilities had saved him from the consequences of his blunders. He devoted his chief energies to the conquest of Holstein, but was generally unsuccessful in his operations. He married Philippa, the daughter of Henry IV. of England, and her abilities did much to prolong his reign. In 1435 the Swedes rose against Erik, in consequence of his tyrannical treatment of them, and in

1439 the council of state declared him deposed. The Danes followed their example, and also deposed him. He was absent at the island of Gothland at the time, and sought to return to Denmark, but was not allowed to land at any port, and died in 1459, poor and neglected.

Christopher, the son of the Duke of Bavaria, and the nephew of Erik, was chosen ruler of Denmark, and was crowned in 1439. Three years later, he was proclaimed King of Sweden and Norway also. He died in 1448, leaving no children.

The Danish nobles now bestowed their crown upon Count Christian of Oldenburg, a descendant of the ancient kings of Denmark. He married the widow of Christopher, and was readily acknowledged by the Danes. He thus established the house of Oldenburg, which has since held the Danish throne. In 1450 he was crowned King of Norway, but though he claimed the Swedish crown, and strove hard to win it, he could never succeed in obtaining a firm footing in that country. In 1469 he married his daughter Margaret to the young King James III. of Scotland, and ceded to that kingdom the Orkney and Shetland Isles in lieu of her dowry. He died in 1481.

Hans, the eldest son of Christian, succeeded his father, though not without making hard terms with the nobles, with whom he was unpopular. He also undertook to conquer the Swedish crown, but without success. He defeated the Lübeck traders, and greatly restrained the insolence of the Hanse towns. He died in 1515.

Christian II., the only son of King Hans, now came to the throne of Denmark and Norway. He promptly asserted his claim to Sweden, conquered the force opposed to him in that country, and in 1520 was crowned king at Stockholm, thus once more uniting the three Scandinavian kingdoms under one crown. His oppressive government soon drove the Swedes into rebellion, under the leadership of Gustavus Vasa, and Sweden was forever lost to Denmark. In 1523 he was deposed for his tyranny, and the crown was given to his uncle Frederick, Duke of Holstein, who became Frederick I. During his reign the Lutheran religion was established in Denmark. He died in 1533, and was succeeded by his son, Christian III., who was one of the best princes of the age. Under him the Reformation was completed. He died in

1559, and Frederick II. came to the throne. This king extended the authority of Denmark over the free people of Ditmarsen, who had opposed a successful resistance of several centuries to that country. Frederick's son, Christian IV., came to the throne in 1588. The monarchy over which he reigned embraced all of Denmark and Norway, and the seven southern provinces of Sweden. In 1611 he embarked in a foolish and useless war with Sweden, which continued two years, when it was ended through the mediation of England. During the early part of the Thirty Years' War, Christian undertook to intervene in the affairs of Germany, as chief of the Protestant League. He endeavored to unite the Protestant nations against the Emperor Ferdinand, and failing in this, invaded Germany in 1625. He was defeated at Lutter in 1627, and driven out of Germany, and after experiencing heavy losses, was forced to make peace in 1629. He continued to reign until 1648, when he died, and was succeeded by his son Frederick III., who in 1657 became involved in a war with Charles X. of Sweden, the events of which we shall relate in connection with the history of that country. Peace was restored by the treaty of Roskild in March, 1658, and Denmark was obliged to cede to Sweden some of her most valuable islands, and to abandon all her offensive alliances. On the pretext that the terms of this treaty had not been fulfilled by Denmark, the war was renewed by Sweden in August, 1658. Copenhagen was besieged, but the intervention of the Dutch, who sent a fleet to the assistance of the Danes, compelled Charles X. to relinquish his designs upon Denmark. In 1670 Christian V. came to the Danish throne, and in 1675 the war with Sweden was renewed, in alliance with the Elector of Brandenburg and the Dutch republic. The war was brought to a close in 1679 at the command of Louis XIV. of France, and the allies were compelled to restore to Sweden all the territory they had taken from her. In the meantime the Danish monarchy had been changed by a peaceful revolution, in 1667, from an elective into an hereditary monarchy. By this change the power of the nobles was greatly weakened. Christian V. reigned until 1699, when he was succeeded by his son Frederick IV. In the latter part of the seventeenth century, the territory of Denmark

was greatly reduced. By the treaty of Copenhagen, in 1660, Denmark ceded to Sweden all that part of her territory which lay within the northern peninsula—the seven southern provinces of Sweden—and retained only Jutland and the islands.

The part taken by Denmark against Charles XII. of Sweden will be related in the history of that country. By this war Denmark was confirmed in the possession of Schleswig. The kingdom took no part in the European wars of the first half of this century. In 1759 it entered into an alliance with Russia and Sweden for mutual protection, and to maintain the commercial neutrality of the Baltic. In 1787 Sweden having become involved in a war with Russia, Christian VII. of Denmark, as the ally of Russia, sent an army to invade the Swedish territory; but England, Holland and Prussia intervened, and compelled him to remain neutral. In 1780 Denmark joined the league of the northern powers, Russia, Sweden, Prussia and Holland, to compel England to respect the rights of neutral vessels, as has been related. The kingdom took no part in the wars of the French revolution, and remained at peace until the close of the century.

We have already related the course pursued by Denmark in the wars of Napoleon. During the earlier years of the century, repeated efforts were made by the northern powers to put a stop to the interference of English ships of war with neutral vessels on the high seas on the pretence of searching for contraband of war. The first coalition for this purpose was formed in 1800 between Russia, Sweden, Denmark and Prussia. Denmark was the only sufferer by it. The British fleet, under Lord Nelson, passed the sound and defeated the Danish fleet before Copenhagen in April, 1801, and compelled Denmark to withdraw from the coalition.

From this time until 1807 Denmark preserved an attitude of neutrality in European affairs; but in the summer of that year England, alarmed by the probability of her adhesion to the new northern coalition, suddenly sent a fleet to Copenhagen, and demanded the surrender of the Danish fleet, promising to restore it at the end of the war. This humiliating demand was refused by the Danish government, and Copenhagen was bombarded for three days, and was forced to surrender, after being almost destroyed. The Danish fleet and

a large quantity of naval stores fell into the hands of the English, and were carried to England. Two months after this extraordinary action, England declared war against Denmark, which was thus forced to unite her efforts with those of Napoleon and to adopt his continental system. Denmark lost her West Indian colonies of St. Thomas and St. Croix, which fell into the hands of the English. For the next six years Denmark supported the cause of France.

In 1813, after the defeat of Napoleon at Leipzig, Denmark joined the coalition against him. Norway, which until now had formed a part of the Danish kingdom, was ceded to Sweden, and Denmark received in exchange for it Swedish Pomerania and the island of Rügen. Great Britain agreed to pay Denmark a liberal subsidy to enable her to maintain a force of 10,000 troops. Upon the fall of the French empire, Denmark incorporated its German duchy of Holstein with the kingdom. Shortly afterwards, Swedish Pomerania was ceded to Prussia, in exchange for the duchy of Lauenburg. As Duke of Holstein and Lauenburg, the King of Denmark became a member of the German confederation. The peace of 1815 made no change in the character of the Danish state, which remained an absolute monarchy.

In 1848 Frederick VII. came to the throne, and gave to his people a constitution; since which time Denmark has been ruled as a constitutional monarchy. In the same year the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, aided by Prussia and Hanover, revolted from Denmark. We have already related the cause and the events of this troublesome war in the German history of this period, to which the reader is referred. The quarrel was temporarily settled in 1852. Frederick VII. died in November, 1863, and was succeeded by Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Glücksburg, who had married a grand-niece of Frederick. Upon the accession of Christian IX. to the throne, the claims of the Duke of Augustenburg, the head of the elder branch of his family, to the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein were revived. This brought on a war with Austria and Prussia in 1864, as we have already related. The Danes were steadily beaten in this contest, and the duchies were relinquished to Austria and Prussia; and finally, in 1866, were surrendered to Prussia alone.

In 1866 a new constitution was adopted by Denmark; and since then the history of the kingdom has been peaceful and uneventful. In the summer of 1874 King Christian

and the Crown Prince of Denmark visited Iceland, and took part in the celebrations which commemorated the millennial anniversary of the settlement of the island.

BOOK XXXI.

THE HISTORY OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT DAY.

Geographical Position of Norway—Primitive Inhabitants—The Northmen Occupy the Country—Harald Harfager—Hako the Good—The First Code of Laws—Hako's Successors—The Death of King Olaf I.—Saint Olaf—Norway Converted to Christianity—Magnus I.—Magnus Barefoot's Conquests—Sigurd I.—Sverre—His Successors—Erik the Priest-hater—Margaret—Norway United to Denmark—The Union of Calmar—Decline of Norway—Margaret's Successors—Christian IV.—His Good Reign—Norway Becomes Merely a Danish Province—Frederick VI.—Norway Detached from Denmark and Given to Sweden—Conditions of the Union—Geographical Position of Sweden—Primitive Inhabitants—Arrival of Odin and the Swedes—The Successors of Odin—Olaf the Lap-King—Introduction of Christianity—St. Erik—His Successors—Valdemar I.—Magnus Barnlock—Margaret—The Union of Calmar—Margaret's Successors—Christian II.—Revolt of the Swedes Under Gustavus Vasa—Reigns of Sigismund and Charles IX.—Gustavus Adolphus—His Wars—Christina Abdicates—Charles X.—His Wars with the Northern States of Europe—Charles XI.—Charles XII.—His Wars with Russia—His Flight into Turkey—Destruction of the Supremacy of Sweden in the North—Sweden Loses Her Provinces—Sweden During the Eighteenth Century—Gustavus III.—Wars with France—Charles XIII.—Bernadotte—Sweden is Given Norway by the Allies—The Union—Subsequent History.

I. THE HISTORY OF NORWAY.

NORWAY comprises the western portion of the Scandinavian peninsula, and lies between latitude $57^{\circ} 57'$ and $71^{\circ} 11' N.$, and longitude $4^{\circ} 45'$ and $31^{\circ} 15' E.$ It is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; on the east by Russian Lapland and Sweden; on the south by the Skager Rack; and on the west by the North Sea and the Atlantic Ocean. Its greatest length, from north to south, is 1080 miles; its greatest breadth, from east to west, 275 miles. It comprises an area

of 122,279 miles, and contains a population of 1,802,882 souls. It forms a part of the kingdom of Sweden and Norway, but while submitting to the same sovereign as Sweden, it is in its internal administration entirely independent of that country.



A NORSE SEA-KING OF THE ELEVENTH CENTURY.

The early history of Norway is shrouded in uncertainty. The primitive inhabitants were Fins, and these the Northmen found settled in the country upon their occupation of it. The Northmen, as we have seen, were a German people, of Gothic origin, who, long before they had any written history, had been pressed by other nations from their old homes till they reached the shores of the Baltic and the German Ocean. In

Norway they drove out the Finnish inhabitants, and settled themselves in the country.

The authentic history of Norway begins with Harald Harfager, or Harold the Fair-haired, who is supposed to have reigned about A. D. 863 to 933. He subdued the petty Norse chiefs, and united the people in one nation. The high-spirited chieftains could not bear their subjugation, and embarked with their followers in piratical expeditions against the coasts of Europe. Harald was succeeded by his son Erik the Cruel, who reigned five years. In 938 his people, maddened by his tyranny, rose up against him, and drove him out of the country. They then conferred the crown upon Hakon or Hako I., called "the Good." He was the son of Harald Harfager, but had been educated at the court of the English king, Æthelstan, from which circumstance he is also known as "Æthelstan's foster son." He was a wise and good sovereign, and his memory is justly cherished by his people. He gave to Norway a code of laws; and also endeavored to introduce Christianity into his kingdom, but the people were staunch pagans, and it took three centuries to accomplish their conversion. During his reign the sons of Erik, aided by Denmark, repeatedly endeavored to win back their father's crown. In 963 he was slain in a battle with them. Erik the Cruel's son Erik Graafell, and his cousin Hakon Jarl, divided the kingdom between them until the death of Hakon Jarl, in 995, when the Norwegians revolted, and placed Olaf I. on the throne. He is one of the great heroes of Norwegian romance, and his exploits form a fruitful theme for the songs of the poets. He destroyed the pagan temples, and founded the town of Drontheim. He was defeated by the Danes in a great naval battle in A. D. 1000, and when all was lost, sprang overboard in full armor to escape capture, and was drowned. For the next fifteen years Norway was a prey to the attacks of Denmark and Sweden, and suffered severely at their hands.

In 1015 Olaf II., called "the Saint," drove out the oppressors of his country, and restored the independence and unity of Norway. He completed the Christianization of the country, but did so in such a harsh and cruel manner that all classes of his people were turned against him. In 1030 Canute the Great, of Denmark, invaded Norway, defeated Olaf and drove him out of the kingdom, which he added

to his own dominions. Olaf subsequently returned and made an effort to recover his crown, but was defeated and slain in the battle of Sticklestad. Canute then conferred the government of Norway upon his son Svend or Sweyn; but after the death of the great king, Sweyn was driven out by Magnus I., the son of St. Olaf, who reigned from 1035 to 1047. He was killed in a battle with the Danes, and was succeeded by his uncle Harald (II.) Hardrada, who reigned until 1066. In the last year of his reign he attempted to wrest England from Harold, the last of the Saxon kings, and was defeated and slain in the battle of Stamford Bridge, in Yorkshire, September 10th, 1066. Olaf III., the eldest son of King Harald, succeeded his father. His reign was peaceful and prosperous, and he greatly endeared himself to his subjects. He endeavored to introduce the civilization of Europe into his kingdom. He died in 1093, and his son Magnus (II.) Barefoot succeeded him. He invaded and conquered the Isle of Man, the Hebrides, the Shetlands, and Orkneys; and invaded Ireland, but was defeated and slain in battle by the people of that island, A. D. 1103.

At the death of Magnus, the Norwegians made his three sons, Ejsten, Sigurd and Olaf, joint Kings of Norway. Olaf died when a child, and Ejsten followed him in 1123, leaving Sigurd I. sole king. He is one of the great heroes of Norway; he fought against the Moors, made a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, where he joined his arms with those of Baldwin, and captured and plundered Sidon. He died in 1130, and for fifty-four years Norway was afflicted with anarchy and civil war, various princes contending for the crown.

Order was restored by Sverre, or Sverer, who came to the throne in 1184. He claimed to be the son of Sigurd II., but was generally believed to be the son of a brushmaker. He was succeeded by his only son Hakon III., in 1202. This prince died in 1204, when Guttorm, a grandson of Sverre, was made king. He was a mere child, and died after a reign of a few months. The crown then passed to Inge Baardsen, a nephew of the great Sverre, who ruled until 1217. His whole reign was passed in wars with rival claimants of his crown. At the death of Inge, Hakon IV., said to be a son of Hakon III., came to the throne. He was a wise and powerful king, and in 1161 subdued Iceland. In 1262 he at-

tempted the conquest of Scotland, but was defeated in a battle at the mouth of the Clyde river, and died shortly after in the Orkneys.

Hakon was succeeded by his son Magnus V., who reigned until 1280. He sold the Hebrides to Scotland, and his son Erik married the daughter of the Scottish king, Alexander III. He was a good king and greatly improved the laws of Norway. Erik the Priest-hater came to the throne in 1280, at the death of his father, and reigned until 1299. His reign was uneventful, and, as he left no sons, he was succeeded by his only brother Hakon V., who was a good ruler, and so endeared himself to his people, that at his death in 1319 they bestowed the crown of Norway upon the young Prince Magnus of Sweden, the son of King Hakon's daughter Ingeborg by her marriage with Erik, the brother of the King of Sweden.

In 1350 King Magnus resigned the crown of Norway to his second son Hakon VI., who had married Margaret of Denmark. At the death of Hakon in 1380 his son Olaf became king, under the regency of his mother Margaret. Olaf died in 1387, and Margaret became Queen of Norway.

Since the death of Hakon IV. Norway had steadily declined. The constant wars with Denmark exhausted the kingdom, and the monopoly of trade enjoyed by the Hanse towns prevented the proper exercise of the industry of the people. In 1348 a plague known as the Black Death broke out, and scourged the kingdom for two years, destroying more than two-thirds of the people, an evil from which Norway did not recover for centuries. Margaret, as we have seen, united the crowns of Denmark, Sweden and Norway by the act of the union of Calmar in 1397. From this period the Norwegians wholly lost their independence, and the Danish influence became supreme in the kingdom. The Norwegian nobles were destroyed as an order, and were forced to give way to Danish emigrants. For several centuries after Margaret, Norway had no separate existence, and was little more than a province of Denmark. Christian I. ceded the Shetland and Orkney islands, which had come to him with Norway, to Scotland, in lieu of his daughter's dowry. The revolt of Sweden under Gustavus Vasa in 1523 accomplished nothing for Norway, and left that country still subject to Denmark. Christian I. died in 1481, and Nor-

way continued to languish under his successors, Hans (1481-1513); Christian II. (1513-1523); Frederick I. (1523-1533); Christian III. (1533-1559); and Frederick II. (1559-1588). During this period the doctrines of the Reformation spread into Norway. The movement began in 1536, and in spite of the efforts of the priests and the government to prevent it, made such progress among the people that in the course of the next twenty years the country became thoroughly Protestant.

Christian IV. came to the Danish throne in 1588. The Norwegians were more attached to him than to any other Danish king. He spent a large part of his time in Norway; rebuilt Christiania in 1624, and in 1641 founded Christiansand. He also gave to the country an excellent code of laws, many of which are still in force. His successors did not continue his wise policy, but treated Norway more as a conquered province than as a joint kingdom. This state of affairs continued throughout the eighteenth century, and during this period Norway cannot be said to have had any independent history.

In 1808 Frederick VI. came to the throne, and began to treat Norway more justly. In 1811 he founded the university of Christiania, and revived many of the old privileges of the kingdom.

In 1812 Sweden joined the coalition against Napoleon, having been offered by Russia, as an inducement to this course, the possession of Norway. England joined Russia in this guarantee, and though neither of these powers had any right to dispose of Norway, the arrangement received the tacit approval of the other parties to the coalition. Sweden accordingly sent an army into Germany under Bernadotte, the crown prince. After the battle of Leipzig (in October, 1813), Bernadotte marched into Holstein with the Swedish army to compel the Danes to give up Norway. Lübeck was taken and several severe defeats were inflicted upon the Danes, who were forced to enter into the treaty of Kiel on the 14th of January, 1814, by which Norway was transferred to Sweden.

The Norwegians were very indignant at this transfer, in which their wishes had not been consulted. The Danish Crown Prince Christian hastened to Norway, and assembled a national diet at Eidsvold, near Christiania, in May, 1814. This body conferred upon him the crown of Norway, and con-

stituted the kingdom an independent monarchy. In July Bernadotte invaded Norway with a strong army, and a British fleet blockaded the ports of that country. The Norwegians were compelled to submit, the Danish prince abdicated his crown, and on the 14th of August an armistice was signed, which recognized Norway as a separate and independent monarchy under the Swedish king and his heirs. The Norwegian Storting formally ratified this arrangement on the 20th of the following October, and on the 4th of November it received the approval of the King of Sweden and Norway. Since that time the two countries, while maintaining separate governments, have been united under one sovereign.

II. THE HISTORY OF SWEDEN.

Sweden comprises the eastern part of the Scandinavian peninsula of Europe, and lies between latitude $55^{\circ} 20'$ and $69^{\circ} N.$, and longitude $11^{\circ} 10'$ and $24^{\circ} 10' E.$ It is bounded on the north and west by Norway, on the east by the Baltic and the Gulf of Bothnia, on the northeast by Finland, on the south by the Baltic, and on the southwest by the Skager Rack, the Cattogat, and the Sound. The greatest length of Sweden, from north to south, is 970 miles, and its greatest breadth, from east to west, about 200 miles. It comprises an area of 171,750 square miles, and contains a population of (in 1875) 4,383,291 souls. Sweden is divided from Norway by the main chain of the Scandinavian range of mountains, along which a wide avenue cut through the forest, and provided at regular intervals by stone monuments, marks the boundary between the two kingdoms. This avenue is kept up with the greatest care by the Norwegians.

The primitive inhabitants of Sweden were Laps and Fins. At an uncertain but very remote period, these were driven out of the southern part of the country by the Goths, who settled the region now known as Gottland, or the Land of the Goths. According to the old Swedish chronicles, Odin, at the head of the race of Swedes, who were also of German origin, invaded the country during this uncertain period, and finding the southern part in possession of the Goths, whom they recognized as a kindred people, passed farther north and drove out the Laps and Fins, and settled in the region now known as Svealand, the central province of the present kingdom. "The Svea (or Swedes) were governed after

Odin's death by his pontiffs (or chief priests), who had charge of his temple at Sigtuna; and this tribe by degrees grew so much more powerful than the Goths that they were allowed to take the lead in all public matters, and their rulers were looked up to as *chief kings* by all the 'Smaa-kongar' (small kings) of the Goths as well as Swedes. In these and other legends of the same kind it is not easy to discover whether the old Swedes honored Odin as a god or as a mere human chief of their race; but it has been supposed by some writers that long after the first Gothic invaders brought his worship into Sweden a second band of the same tribe may have come, under a leader called by his name, who set up a newer form of faith, which gained such hold over the minds of the people that in time they came to worship the two Odins under one common faith."

Odin's successor was the Pontiff Njord, whose son, Frey Yngve, was the founder of the royal line of the Ynglingar. He is said to have built a new temple on the ruins of the more ancient one of Sigtuna, and called it Upp-Sala (or the High Halls). He was so greatly beloved by his people that at his death they placed him among their gods. The line of the Ynglings is believed to have ended before the eighth century with Ingjald-Iltraada, or "Ingjald the Bad Ruler," a cruel and crafty prince.

In 993 Olaf, the Lap-king, so called because he received the homage of his princes while an infant in the arms, came to the throne, and with him the authentic history of Sweden begins. Christianity had been introduced into Sweden in 829 by Ansgar, a monk of Corbie, but had made slow progress. Olaf embraced the new faith and founded a bishopric at Skara. He could not induce his people to accept Christianity, however, and they remained pagans for more than a century longer. He died in 1024, and was succeeded by his son Anund, who reigned until 1052, when his brother, Edmund the Old, came to the throne. This king, who was the last of the Uppsala line, died in 1055. His reign is chiefly noted for a persecution of the Christians.

After the death of Edmund a fierce war broke out between the Goths and the Swedes, and the former succeeded in placing Stenkil, one of their own chiefs, on the throne as king over both nations. He was a Christian. For the next century anarchy

prevailed, the period being marked by the incessant struggles between the Swedes and the Goths. In 1135 Sverker I., a Christian, came to the throne. He greatly exerted himself to promote the Christianization of his kingdom, and erected many churches and monasteries. He restored order and prosperity to the kingdom, and greatly improved the administration of justice. He died in 1155, and was succeeded by his cousin, Erik, called "The Saint," who improved the laws of his kingdom and promoted the spread of Christianity. He conquered a large part of Finland, and compelled it to accept the Christian religion. He died in 1160. The reigns of his successors, Karl Sverkersson (1160-1167), Knud Eriksson (1167-1195), Sverker II. (1195-1210), Erik Knudsson (1210-1216), Johan Sverkersson (1216-1222), and Erik Læspe (1222-1250), were uneventful. During this period Christianity spread rapidly, and the clergy became the most powerful order in the state. "In all this period there is nothing to record of affairs in Sweden but the quarrels, wars, and murders of many kings, and the disorder and misery of the whole country. The only class of men who did anything to lessen these evils were the monks, many of whom had come from England. These zealous men first taught the Swedes how to till the ground and plant gardens, to prepare salt, to build and work water-mills, and to make roads and bridges."

In 1250 a more certain period in Swedish history began. Valdemar, the son of the chief of the powerful race of the Folkungar, was chosen King of Sweden, and with him began the Folkungar line. He died in 1302, and was succeeded by his brother, Magnus, who was a wise king, and greatly augmented the power of the crown. He was termed Magnus Ladu-laas, or Barnlock, because he protected the granaries of the people from the rapacity of the nobles. He died in 1290, and a long period of strife between his three sons ensued. In 1319 Magnus Smek, the grandson of Magnus Ladu-laas, came to the throne. He was but three years old at the time. In 1320 he succeeded by right of his mother to the throne of Norway. Later on he married his son, Hakon, to Margaret of Denmark, as we have seen, and placed him upon the throne of Norway. Now that the three kingdoms were so closely allied, Magnus undertook to abolish the Swedish senate,

but was deposed, and in 1363 Albert of Mecklenburg was chosen King of Sweden. As we have seen, Margaret, upon succeeding to the crowns of Denmark and Norway at the death of her husband, made war upon Sweden, defeated Albert, and made herself Queen of Sweden. Her next step was the promulgation of the Act of the Union of Calmar, in 1397, by which Denmark, Sweden, and Norway were united in a single monarchy.

Margaret died in 1412, and was succeeded by her nephew, Erik of Pomerania. The Union of Calmar was maintained with great difficulty for more than a century. In 1434-36 it was nearly destroyed by the revolt of the Swedes under Engelbrecht Engelbrechtsson. His assassination by a Swedish noble in 1436 was all that saved the union from total destruction. In 1439 Erik was deposed, and was succeeded by his nephew, Karl Knudsson. From this time until the accession of Christian II. to the Danish throne, in 1513, all was anarchy and confusion in Sweden.

Christian II. was a stern tyrant, and soon drove the Swedes into rebellion. The patriot party was led by Gustavus Vasa. His father and ninety-three other nobles had been perfidiously murdered by Christian immediately after his coronation. Gustavus escaped to the mines of Dalecarlia, and roused the people of that region to an effort for the independence of their country. A desperate struggle ensued, and in the end the Danish forces were driven out of Sweden, which became an independent kingdom. The grateful people chose Gustavus Vasa to be their ruler, and in the spring of 1523 he was crowned King of Sweden. He reigned for thirty-seven years, and governed the country with wisdom and prudence. He established the Lutheran religion in Sweden, and raised that country to a more important position in Europe than it had ever occupied before. He died in 1560. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Erik XIV., who died in 1568 after an uneventful reign. The last years of his reign were passed in hopeless insanity. He was succeeded by his brother, Johan III., who reigned until 1592, when he died, and was succeeded by his son, Sigismund, who in 1587 had been elected King of Poland. This king was thoroughly under the influence of the Jesuits, into whose hands he had fallen in Poland, and endeavored to restore the Romish religion in Sweden. He also

absented himself from the country, and made his residence in Poland. The result was that he was deposed by the Swedes, who proclaimed his uncle, Charles IX., the son of Gustavus Vasa, King of Sweden, 1599. Charles was an able and vigorous sovereign, and his reign was mainly one of tranquillity. Under him the kingdom prospered greatly.

Charles IX. died in 1611, and his son, Gustavus Adolphus, succeeded to the throne. He was but seventeen years old, but had already seen service in the war with Christian IV. of Denmark. He was destined to become not only one of the most illustrious heroes of the old world, but the author of a new system of warfare. Peace was made with Denmark in 1613, through the mediation of England. A war with Russia now engaged the attention of the young king. The line of Ruric having died out, a party in Russia desired to offer the crown of that country to a brother of Gustavus. The greater part of the nation sustained the claims of Michael Romanoff, and in the war which ensued Sweden was not able to overcome this obstacle. The peace of Stolbova closed the war in 1617, and Russia ceded considerable territory, including the site of the present city of St. Petersburg, to Sweden. A little later Gustavus became involved in a war with Poland, which lasted for nine years. It was caused by the pretensions of Sigismund of Poland to the Swedish crown. It was closed in 1629 through the mediation of Richelieu, who was anxious to allow Gustavus liberty to engage in the Thirty Years' War. The part borne by Gustavus in the Thirty Years' War, and his death, in 1632, have been related in *The History of Germany*, to which the reader is referred.

Upon leaving Sweden in 1630, Gustavus placed the affairs of his kingdom in the hands of a council of regency presided over by his prime minister, the Chancellor Oxenstiern, a man of great ability and integrity. To this council the king confided his infant daughter Christina. Upon her father's death Christina was proclaimed queen, and the government was administered by Oxenstiern, under whose guidance Sweden retained her place at the head of the Protestant league. Christina, upon reaching years of discretion, took the government into her own hands, and to the astonishment and delight of her people, proved herself a worthy daughter of Gustavus. As

the time passed on she disappointed the expectations to which the promise of her first years had given rise, and in 1654, having become weary of the cares of state, she abdicated her throne in favor of her cousin Charles Gustavus, and left the country. She was but twenty-eight years old at the time. She subsequently abjured her father's faith and entered the Roman Catholic Church. After a life of pleasure and dissipation she died at Rome in 1680 at the age of sixty-three.

Charles X., the successor of Christina, was ambitious of becoming the absolute master of northern Europe. His kingdom was greatly exhausted by the expenses of the Thirty Years' War, and the extravagance of the last years of Christina's reign. Nevertheless, he persisted in his determination to make Sweden supreme on the Baltic. The distracted condition of Poland pointed her out as his first victim. An alliance was made with Russia, which country had cause for complaint against the Poles, and in 1654 the Russian armies invaded Poland. In 1655 the Swedish fleet blockaded the free city of Dantzic, and two Swedish armies invaded Poland. Charles X. gained several important victories, one of which was won over the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg, whom he forced to become a vassal of Sweden instead of Poland. The subsequent embarrassments of Sweden enabled the elector to recover by treaty all he had lost. Warsaw was taken by Charles X. in person, and he was acknowledged King of Poland by the army and the greater part of the nation. Had Russia and Sweden been harmonious, Poland might have been divided between them, but the czar became jealous of the success of his rival and turned against him, and the Emperor Leopold and the King of Denmark united to compel Charles to relinquish his conquests. Charles at once withdrew from Poland and made a rapid dash at Denmark, and overran the duchies of Bremen, Holstein and Schleswig almost without resistance. In the midst of a winter of unusual severity, he crossed his army with its artillery and infantry over the two Belts on the solid ice, and by a series of brilliant successes placed Copenhagen at his mercy. France and England now intervened to compel peace, and the treaty of Roskild was signed in March, 1658, by which Denmark surrendered the principal islands to Sweden. On the pretext that Frederick III. of Denmark had not exe-

cuted the treaty in good faith, Charles renewed the war in August. Copenhagen was seriously threatened, but was saved by the intervention of the Dutch, who sent a fleet to its relief. The Elector of Brandenburg now drove the Swedes from Jutland, and Charles was forced to withdraw into his own country. The maritime powers now resolved to put a stop to the war, which was crippling their commerce in the Baltic. The death of Charles X. in February, 1660, removed the only real obstacle to peace, which was concluded by the Queen Regent of Sweden with Poland, Russia, and Denmark.

In 1675 the war was renewed against Sweden by the Elector of Brandenburg, aided by the forces of Christian V. of Denmark and a Dutch fleet. The war lasted with varying success until 1679, when Louis XIV. intervened in behalf of Sweden, and compelled her antagonists to make peace with her, and restore her all the territory they had taken from her. Sweden was thus saved from parting with any of her territory, but she came out of the war in a greatly crippled condition. Her fleet was destroyed and her finances were nearly ruined. It was a serious question whether the government could maintain itself without assistance from abroad. In this state of affairs a peaceful revolution in 1680 changed the character of the government. A new constitution was adopted, conferring absolute and irresponsible power upon the king. A thorough reform was introduced into all branches of the public service, and the prudent and energetic measures of Charles XI. (1660-1697) during the remainder of the century prepared the country to resume its old position of supremacy in the Baltic.

Charles XI. died in 1697, and was succeeded by his son Charles XII., a youth of fifteen. This event seemed to offer to the neighboring powers an opportunity to wrest from Sweden her possessions east and south of the Baltic, namely: Finland, Carelia, Ingria, Esthonia, Livonia, most of Pomerania, the fortified towns of Stettin, Wismar, and Stralsund, and the duchies of Bremen and Verden. A league for this purpose was organized by Augustus II. of Poland and I. of Saxony. Frederick IV. of Denmark, one of the confederates, began hostilities in March, 1700, by invading the territories of the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp, Charles's brother-in-law and most

valued friend. The young king astonished both his friends and his enemies by the firmness he displayed in this emergency. He made an alliance with England and Holland, and under the protection of their fleet made a descent upon Denmark and compelled Frederick to sue for peace. By the treaty of Travendal, the Danish king renewed his former treaties with the Duke of Holstein and agreed to pay a considerable sum to replace the losses he had inflicted. He thus brought the war to a triumphant close without striking a blow.

Peter I. of Russia had entered into the conspiracy against Sweden, and the peace with Denmark left Charles free to turn his attention to him. Peter had laid siege to Narva with 80,000 men. In November, 1700, Charles attacked him with an inferior force, and compelled him to raise the siege. Charles then turned upon the King of Saxony and Poland, and in 1701 defeated the Saxon troops near Riga, and occupied the whole of Courland. In 1702 he captured Warsaw without a blow. Augustus fled to Cracow, and in July Charles defeated the combined army of Poles and Saxons at Clissow, about half-way between Warsaw and Cracow. In 1703 he defeated the Saxons at Pultusk, and took the city of Thorn and destroyed its fortifications. A movement was now made by a party in Poland to exclude Augustus from the throne of that country. It was favored by Charles XII., through whose influence Count Stanislaus Leszczyński was proclaimed King of Poland in July, 1704. He signed a treaty of peace and alliance with Charles XII. Augustus withdrew to Dresden, the capital of Saxony. In 1706 Charles appeared before Dresden with an army of 20,000 men, and compelled Augustus to sign the treaty of Altranstadt, by which he renounced all claim to the Polish crown for himself and his heirs, and abandoned his alliance with Russia.

In the meantime Peter the Great of Russia had been increasing and improving his army, and had overrun the provinces of Ingria and Carelia, which had been held by Sweden since 1617. In 1704 his armies occupied Lithuania and Courland and captured Dorpat and Narva. Upon hearing of the treaty of Altranstadt Peter hastened to Poland and induced the diet of nobles, held at Lublin in July, 1707, to repudiate that treaty and declare the Polish throne vacant since the abdication of Augustus. The

electors were summoned to choose a king. Charles XII., who was in Saxony, at once marched into Poland to defeat this movement, but Peter avoided meeting him in a pitched battle, and harassed him and wore out his army by his skilful manœuvres.

In 1708 Charles determined to strike at the heart of his adversary's kingdom, and invaded Russia, intending, as is believed, to capture Moscow. He found the country stripped of food for man or horse, and every road watched by the Russian cavalry,

their march to join Charles, had in the meantime been defeated and driven back by the Russians at Liesna with the loss of half their number. Charles, instead of retreating from the Ukraine into Poland by a shorter route, laid siege to Pultawa. He was defeated by a powerful Russian army, and was wounded and forced to seek safety in flight. Nearly half of his army was left dead on the field, and the most famous Swedish officers were taken prisoners. The king escaped with difficulty,



STOCKHOLM.

which harassed his march at every step, but could never be brought to a general engagement. Reinforcements were on their way to join Charles, but without waiting for them he suddenly marched into the territory of the Cossacks of the Ukraine, whose chief, Mazeppa, had promised to join him with 30,000 men. He was indeed joined by Mazeppa, but the chief could bring with him only a few followers, and came to ask protection for his life from Charles. The Swedish reinforcements, on

and leaving General Löwenhaupt in command of the wreck of his army, fled to the territory of the sultan. Löwenhaupt was forced to surrender.

The treaties of Travendal and Altranstadt were now trodden under foot by the allies. Stanislaus fled from Poland, and Augustus II. resumed the crown of that country, and renewed his alliances with Russia and Denmark. Frederick IV. of Denmark invaded Sweden and took Helsingborg, but the Swedish General Stenbock

prevented him from gaining any further success. The German provinces of Sweden were overrun by the combined armies of Russia, Saxony, and Poland. The interference of the emperor and of England and Holland compelled the allies to allow these provinces to remain neutral. Sweden, left without a king and almost without an army, seemed on the point of being utterly dismembered by her enemies.

Charles remained five years in Turkey, and managed, as we shall see farther on, to incite the sultan to a war against Russia. He at length found himself an unwelcome guest, and was forcibly expelled from the Turkish dominions by the sultan. He was furnished with a safe conduct through Germany by the emperor, and returned to his own kingdom, where his presence was sadly needed. He reached Stralsund in November, 1714, and immediately set to work to wrest Pomerania from Frederick William I. of Prussia. The battle of Pultawa, however, had ended the supremacy of Sweden in the north, and Charles found himself now opposed by a league consisting of Russia, Poland, Denmark, and England. Wismar and Stralsund were taken by the allied forces, and Sweden was stripped of the last of her possessions south of the Baltic. Russia had already gained the larger part of the Swedish possessions east of the Baltic, and was satisfied with what she had gained. She therefore readily consented to make a separate peace with Sweden. The preliminaries of a treaty for this purpose had just been signed when Charles XII. was killed by a cannon-ball, in December, 1718, at the siege of Fredericshall in Norway. He found Sweden the most powerful state of the north; he left it humbled and reduced by the loss of all its possessions south and east of the Baltic. From this time its part in European affairs was insignificant.

The heir to the Swedish crown was the Duke of Holstein, the nephew of Charles XII., but a revolution broke out at the death of the king, and the Swedish crown was made elective, and was conferred upon Ulrica Eleanora, the second sister of Charles. She was the wife of Frederick of Hesse-Cassel, who had been for some time in command of the Swedish army. He became the real ruler of Sweden. The negotiations for peace with Russia were broken off, but treaties were signed between Sweden and England, Poland, Prussia, and Denmark. The duchies of Bremen and Verden

were confirmed to Hanover; Prussia obtained Stettin and the region lying between the Oder and Peene, and also the islands of Usedom and Wollin; and Denmark received Schleswig. In 1721, through the mediation of France, the peace of Nystadt was signed between Sweden and Russia. The latter power restored Finland to Sweden, but retained all the provinces she had taken from her east of the Baltic.

During the war of the Austrian succession, Sweden ventured to renew the war with Russia at the instigation of France. The result of this war was that Sweden was obliged to surrender all her provinces east of the Gulf of Bothnia, which were added to the Russian empire in 1743. In 1751 Queen Ulrica died, and was succeeded by Adolphus Frederick.

In 1756, at the opening of the Seven Years' War, Sweden joined the coalition against Prussia, in the hope of winning back Pomerania, but accomplished nothing of moment against the Prussian king. In 1759 she formed an alliance with Denmark and Russia for mutual defence, and for the maintenance of the commercial neutrality of the Baltic. In 1762 peace was made between Sweden and Prussia. In 1771 Gustavus III., the son of Adolphus Frederick, and the nephew of Frederick the Great, succeeded his father as King of Sweden.

The Swedish kingdom, though nominally independent, was for many years really ruled by foreign courts. The French and Russians had their respective parties, which in the poverty of the kingdom looked to those nations for support. They kept the kingdom in a state of constant turmoil. Gustavus III., by a mild but firm policy, put an end to these factions, and succeeded in neutralizing the designs of Russia for the enslavement of his country. The result was a war between the two countries. It was closed by the peace of Werela, and during the remainder of the century the most cordial relations existed between Sweden and Russia. Under Gustavus III. another change was made in the character of the Swedish government. Since 1720 it had been almost wholly aristocratic, but in 1772 the royal power, with the good will of the people, was set up again. In 1789, Russia having become involved in a war with the Turks, Sweden, the ancient ally of the sultan, declared war against Russia, and prevented the fleet of that country from

sailing to the Mediterranean. Denmark, the ally of Russia, prepared to invade Sweden, but was forced by England, Holland, and Prussia to remain neutral. In 1780 Sweden joined Russia, Denmark, Holland, and Prussia in the "Armed Neutrality" for the purpose of compelling England to abandon her claim to search neutral vessels for contraband of war, as has been related.

In 1792 Gustavus IV. succeeded to the Swedish throne. He was friendly to France, and held aloof from the coalition against the French republic. Gustavus was very bitter against Napoleon, but the Swedish people were as friendly to the empire as they had been to the republic. Out of this state of affairs arose a war with Russia, which power succeeded in wresting all of Finland from Sweden. In 1809 Gustavus was deposed, and was succeeded by Charles XIII., who gave to his people a free constitution. In 1810 peace was made with France; and in order to strengthen the friendship between the two countries, the Swedish diet chose as the heir of Charles XIII., who had no children, Marshal Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's ablest generals. Bernadotte repaired to Sweden forthwith, and assumed the position of crown prince. He devoted himself heartily to the interests of his adopted country, and gave but a partial and unwilling adhesion to Napoleon's continental system. His adoptive father's illness soon left the administration of the government in his hands, and his admission of British goods into Pomerania brought on a war with France. Bernadotte appealed to Russia for aid, and an alliance was concluded between Sweden, Russia and Great Britain.

In 1813 Sweden, under the guidance of Bernadotte, joined in the war for the liber-

ation of Germany. By the terms of the treaty arranging European affairs after the battle of Leipzig, she ceded to Denmark her territory of Pomerania, and received in exchange Norway, which had until now formed a part of the Danish monarchy. Russia was allowed to retain Finland. This arrangement was distasteful to the Norwegians, who took up arms to resist it. They declared their independence of Sweden, and proclaimed a Danish prince king, and adopted a constitution freer than that of any European monarchy. Sweden prepared to enforce her authority, and conquered the Norwegians, but was obliged, on her part, to accept the union of Norway with the Swedish state, on terms which recognized Norway as an independent monarchy, with its own constitution.

III. THE HISTORY OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

In 1818 Charles XIII. died, and Bernadotte was crowned king as Charles XIV. John. He proved himself an able sovereign, and under him both Sweden and Norway prospered greatly. The arts and manufactures made great progress, and education was more generally diffused. He died on the 8th of March, 1849, and his crown passed to his son, Oscar I., who reigned until 1859. During the Crimean war Sweden and Norway remained neutral, as they have also done during the subsequent struggles in Europe. At the death of King Oscar his son, Charles XV., came to the throne. The last-named king died on the 18th of September, 1872, and being without children was succeeded by his brother, Oscar II., the present (1878) reigning sovereign. The history of the kingdom since the union has been peaceful and uneventful.



BOOK XXXII.

THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE DISCOVERY OF THE CONTINENT TO THE REVOLUTION.

Maritime Enterprises in the Fifteenth Century—Discoveries of the Portuguese—Christopher Columbus—His Scheme for Finding a Passage by Sea to India—Is Employed by Spain—His Voyage—Discovers America—His Subsequent Voyages and Death—The New World Named America—Efforts of Spain to Conquer and Settle America—Conquest of Mexico and Peru—Expedition of De Soto—His Death—The French in America—Unsuccessful Attempt to Settle Florida—The English Enterprises in America—Sir Humphrey Gilbert—Sir Walter Raleigh Plants a Colony on Roanoke Island—Its Fate—The Spanish Colonies—The Portuguese Settle Brazil—The London Company—Settlement of Virginia—Captain John Smith—The Jamestown Colony—The First Legislative Assembly in America—The Pilgrim Fathers—Settlement of Plymouth—Massachusetts Bay Settled—Maine Settled—Connecticut and Rhode Island Colonized—The Dutch Found New York—Settlement of New Jersey, Delaware, Pennsylvania and Maryland—The Carolinas Settled—The Colony of Georgia Founded—Character of the Settlers in the New World—African Slavery Introduced—Establishment of Free Schools—Wars with the Indians—Settlement of Canada by the French—The Jesuit Missionaries—The French and English Come to Blows—King William's War—Queen Anne's War—The Indians Aid the French—King George's War—Capture of Louisburg—The French on the Ohio—Washington's Mission to Fort Duquesne—Beginning of Hostilities—The Old French War—Defeat of General Braddock—Exile of the Acadians—Battle of Lake George—The Marquis de Montcalm—Capture of Fort William Henry by the French—William Pitt in Power—Capture of Louisburg—Fort Duquesne Taken—Failure of the Attack upon Ticonderoga—Capture of Quebec—Death of Wolfe and Montcalm—Great Britain Acquires Canada—Close of the War—Pontiac's Rebellion.

THE fifteenth century witnessed a remarkable awakening of human thought and enterprise, one of the most important results of which was the activity in maritime undertakings which led to the discovery of lands hitherto unknown to the civilized world, and gave new life and fresh fields to commerce. It is usual to attribute the invention of the mariner's compass to an Italian named Gioja, who lived about the beginning of the fourteenth century; but it

is certain that the polarity of the magnet and its application to the compass was known in Europe at least two centuries earlier. The practical application of the compass to the art of navigation did not take place until about the beginning of the fifteenth century. It at once led to the undertaking of longer and more daring voyages than had ever been attempted before, the results of which were the discoveries of the Madeira, Azores, and Cape de Verde islands, and the coast of Guinea, the doubling of the Cape of Good Hope, and the establishment of the new route by sea to the Indies. The Portuguese were, as we have seen, the pioneers in these undertakings. Their exploits and discoveries have been related in *The History of Portugal*, to which the reader is referred, and need not be retold here.

Among those who had watched the progress of the Portuguese with the deepest interest was Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa in Italy. He at an early day conceived the idea that the Indies might be reached by a shorter and more direct route than that around the Cape of Good Hope; and as he held the belief, which the church had pronounced heretical, that the earth was spherical in form, he proposed to accomplish his design by sailing due west from Europe. To the fulfilment of this design he devoted the remainder of his life. He had studied the science of navigation profoundly, and had had practical experience in it, so that his belief that land lay to the westward of Europe was the result of long and careful study, and not a mere unsupported notion. He spent many years in endeavoring to enlist the various governments of Europe in support of his scheme. Genoa, Portugal, England, and Spain were urged to assist him, but in vain. At last Isabella of Spain was won over to the views of Columbus, and agreed to furnish him with the means of making the attempt he desired. She declared that she would even pawn her jewels if necessary to raise the funds needed for the enterprise. Colum-

bus was created high admiral, and appointed viceroy of all the lands he might discover, and it was agreed that he should receive one-tenth of the net profits of the trade with such lands. He was furnished with three small ships. He sailed from Palos in Spain on the 3d of August, 1492, and touched at the Canary islands to refit. After a long and trying voyage, during which all but Columbus lost whatever hope of success they had cherished, land was discovered on the 12th of October. This was one of the Bahama islands, and was named by Columbus San Salvador, or the "Holy Saviour." During this voyage the islands



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

of Hayti and Cuba were discovered. Columbus believed that the region discovered by him was a part of the Indies, and named the natives Indians, qualifying this name by the term "West." These and the neighboring islands are still called the West Indies. Columbus took possession of the new lands in the name of the King and Queen of Spain, and collecting such articles as would serve to prove his success and show the character of the country, and taking with him a few of the natives, he set sail for Europe, and reached Palos on the 15th of March, 1493. From that port to the court at Barcelona his progress was a triumphal procession. He was received by the king and queen with

the most distinguished honors, and was cordially aided by the government in fitting out a second expedition. With seventeen ships he sailed from Cadiz on the 25th of September, 1493, and on this voyage discovered Jamaica and many of the Caribee islands. He found that the colony which he had planted in Hayti on his first voyage had been destroyed by the natives. He replaced it with another, but the discovery of gold in Hayti soon drew the attention of the Spaniards from more useful employments to the search for the precious metal. In his third voyage, in 1498, Columbus for the first time saw the continent of America. He touched it near the mouth of the Orinoco, and examined a part of the South American coast. His decisive measures for the preservation of the colony which he had planted in the new world made him many enemies, who were already jealous of his success. Complaints were lodged against him in Spain, and he was sent back to Europe in irons. Isabella, indignant at this treatment, endeavored to atone for these undeserved indignities by increased attentions to the great admiral. Columbus went on a fourth voyage to the new world in the first years of the sixteenth century, and was shipwrecked upon the coast of Jamaica. Returning to Spain he found that his friend and patroness, Queen Isabella, was upon her death-bed. Ferdinand, with characteristic meanness, evaded the payment of the remuneration that had been promised to Columbus, and at last the great admiral, worn out with dis-
appointment, died in poverty at Valladolid, in 1506.

About seven years after the first voyage of Columbus, Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine, visited the West Indies and the eastern coast of South America. On his return he published a description of these countries. Somewhat later a German writer on geography, who may never have heard of Columbus, gave to the new world the name *America*, which has since clung to it.

England also bore a share in the discoveries beyond the Atlantic. In 1497 Sebastian Cabot, then employed in the service of Henry VII., undertook a voyage to the western continent. He sailed along the coast of North America from Labrador to

the Delaware. Though his voyage was followed by no immediate result, his discoveries were subsequently made the basis of the claims of England to North America.

In consequence of these discoveries and of the spirit aroused by them, the commerce of Europe increased with wonderful rapidity. There was a marked improvement in the vessels employed, and the navies of the states of the old world began to grow with sudden vigor.

The discoveries begun in the latter part of the fifteenth century were prosecuted with vigor in the sixteenth. The Portuguese, Spaniards, and English engaged in an honorable rivalry in these exploits. In 1500 Cabral, a Portuguese navigator, discovered the rich country of Brazil, and took possession of it in the name of his sovereign, Manuel I. Gaspar Cortereal, in the service of the same king, explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Labrador coast as far north as Hudson's bay. In 1509 Diego Columbus, who was hereditary Viceroy of Spain in the new world, undertook the conquest and colonization of Cuba, which were accomplished in 1511. There was a belief among the Europeans that the mainland of America abounded in precious metals, which could be obtained with

little trouble, and the Spaniards added to this a romantic faith that somewhere in the south there was a fountain, the waters of which would ensure perpetual youth to him who should drink of them. The first to go in search of this fountain was Juan Ponce de Leon, in 1512. His expedition resulted in the discovery of Florida, which name he gave to the coast because of the beauty and luxuriance of its foliage. In 1513 Vasco Nunez de Balboa, at the head of a party of Spaniards, crossed the Isthmus of Darien, and discovered the Pacific Ocean.

In 1519 Hernando Cortez, with less than 600 men, undertook the most considerable expedition yet attempted—the conquest of

Mexico. This remarkable country was inhabited by a race which had made a decided advance in civilization. It possessed numerous and populous cities, and was governed by a code of laws which gave security to life and commerce. It possessed good roads, and a steady and prosperous trade was maintained between its various portions. Its temples and other architectural works were noted for their grandeur, and many of the arts and luxuries of civilization were in constant use. The country was governed by a race of hereditary emperors, who were regarded with religious reverence by their subjects.



THE LANDING OF COLUMBUS.

In the course of a few years, Cortez, with the aid of his cavalry and firearms, was enabled to reduce this mighty empire to subjection. The authority of Spain was firmly established over Mexico, and it became a source of constant and enormous wealth to that kingdom. Cortez was not satisfied with merely conquering the country; he had the elements of true greatness in his soul, and he earnestly tried to civilize and Christianize it. His efforts were to a great degree rewarded with success, and Christianity spread rapidly throughout the country. The natives, thinking that their gods had either deserted them or had been conquered, embraced Christianity with great

rapidity, and the humane and benevolent conduct of the missionaries, prominent among whom was the good Las Casas, won them powerfully to the new faith.

In 1531 a Spanish force, led by Francisco Pizarro, invaded Peru, and in five years subdued that country. Peru was inferior to Mexico in civilization, but was rich in the precious metals. The conquest of this country was conducted with the utmost barbarity. Pizarro and his successors cared only for riches, and extorted immense sums of gold and silver from the

quest of that region. He found it impossible to subdue the Indians of this peninsula, and his attempt at conquest degenerated into a search for gold, in which he wandered from Tampa bay to the Alleghenies, and thence to the Mississippi, which he discovered at a point not far from the present city of Memphis, in 1541. Crossing the great river, he wandered two hundred miles farther west, and then descended the Wachita to the Red river, from which he passed to the Mississippi again. He died on the banks of the last-named stream, and his



THE SPANIARDS DESCENDING THE MISSISSIPPI AFTER THE DEATH OF DE SOTO.

natives by the cruellest torments. They were compelled to work in the mines in gangs, and four-fifths of those so employed are said to have died from the hardships and cruelties inflicted upon them.

Between 1540 and 1542 the Pacific coast of North America was explored by Coronado and Cabrillo, commanders in the service of Spain; but no settlements were made on that coast. In 1539 Fernando de Soto was appointed by the Emperor Charles V., Governor General of Cuba and of all the countries he should conquer. He sailed from Cuba to Florida, to attempt the con-

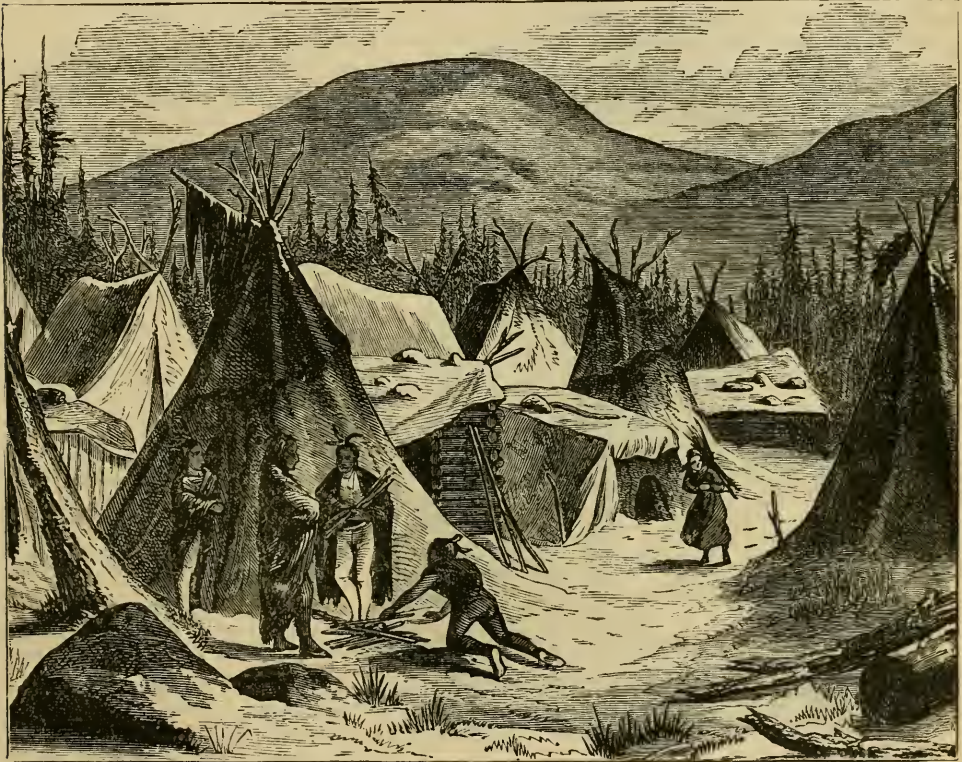
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body was consigned to its mighty flood, A. D. 1542. After many hardships, a portion of his followers succeeded in reaching Mexico. Bolivia and Buenos Ayres were settled between 1535 and 1540, the discovery of silver in those countries drawing a considerable Spanish emigration to them. Brazil was settled by the Portuguese about the same time, but its agricultural wealth was the attraction, its mineral wealth being unknown until a much later period.

The French were early attracted to the fisheries of the banks of Newfoundland,

but they made no effort to settle the coast of America until near the middle of the century. Francis I., envious of the good fortune of Charles V., sent Verrazzini, an Italian navigator, on a voyage of discovery. He explored the Atlantic coast from Florida to Newfoundland, and visited the harbors of New York and Newport. In 1534-35 Jacques Cartier explored the coast of Newfoundland and Canada, and ascended the St. Lawrence beyond the present towns of Quebec and Montreal, which were then

five men to hold the site, and went back to France. The civil wars made it impossible for anything further to be done, and the men who had been left in Florida built a vessel and abandoned that country. Two years later Coligny sent out a colony, which formed a settlement on the St. John's, then called the river May. This colony endured considerable suffering, but the arrival of aid from France placed matters on a more favorable footing. Philip II. of Spain, who claimed Florida as a part of



INDIAN VILLAGE IN WINTER.

large Indian villages. In 1542 the Sieur de Roberval planted a colony in Nova Scotia, but it enjoyed but a brief existence. In 1562, Coligny, wishing to establish a colony in the new world as a refuge for the Huguenots of France, obtained a commission for that purpose from Charles IX., and sent Jean Ribault on a voyage of exploration. Ribault landed on the coast of Florida, near the present town of St. Augustine, and named the country Carolina in honor of the King of France. Delighted with the climate and the country, he left twenty-

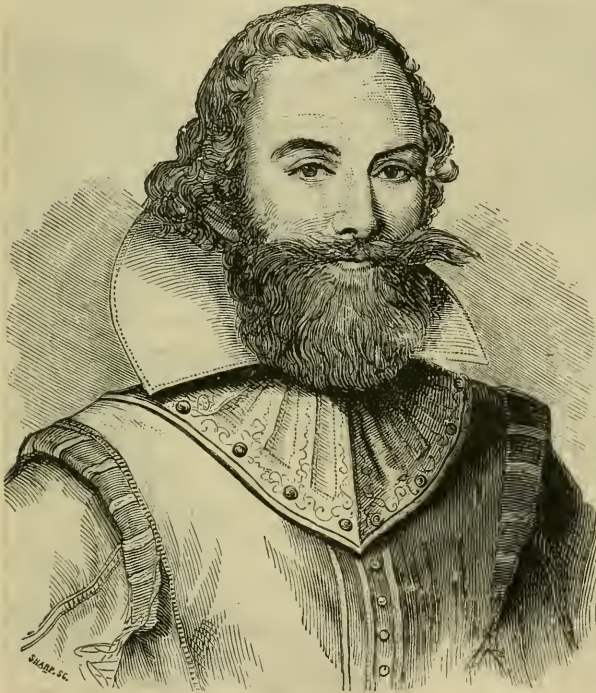
his possessions, no sooner heard of the settlement of a Protestant colony within its limits, than he sent out a squadron under Melendez, who captured and massacred the settlers, A. D. 1564. Melendez secured the country to Spain by establishing a settlement on the Florida coast. He named the new town St. Augustine, in honor of the saint on whose festival he had reached Florida. It still bears this name, and is by forty years the oldest town in the United States. When the news of the massacre of the French reached Europe,

Dominic de Gourgues, a gentleman of Gascony, fitted out three ships at his own expense, and sailing to Florida, attacked and captured the Spanish force which held the fort that had been taken from the French. He hung his prisoners in retaliation for the cruelties of Melendez, 1568.

England, although as yet making no effort to compete with the continental nations in the planting of colonies in America, still maintained her claims to the Atlantic coast of that country, which were founded upon Cabot's discoveries. Queen Elizabeth gave to this region the name of Virginia, in honor of her virgin life. English

over to Roanoake island in 1585. The colonists soon exhausted their provisions, and Sir Francis Drake chancing to arrive with his fleet from the West Indies about this time, the disheartened settlers implored him to take them back to England. He did so. Another effort was made to settle the island the next year, but with similar success. It was during this attempt that the first white child was born in America. She was the child of Eleanor Dare, the daughter of the governor of the colony, and was named from her birthplace, *Virginia*.

Thus far Spain had reaped the greatest advantage from the settlement of the new world. Her provinces in Cuba and the West Indies, Mexico, Central America and South America, were governed by viceroys, and had already a large Spanish population, which was rapidly increasing. By the close of the sixteenth century the export of the precious metals amounted to about \$20,000,000 per annum. A large and lucrative commerce was conducted between Spain and her colonies, which poured their rich products into her markets, and received her manufactures in return. Had the mother country been governed by a liberal and enlightened policy, this wealth might have enabled her to maintain her position as the most powerful state of Europe. Narrow-minded and bigoted, she derived no lasting benefit from it. The Spanish colonies in America, however, were governed upon the most despotic principles, and



CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH.

vessels visited the Newfoundland fisheries, and several expeditions were sent to the coast of Labrador in search of a northwest passage to India, and of gold. In 1578 Sir Humphrey Gilbert made an unsuccessful attempt to plant a colony at St. John's in Newfoundland. In 1584 Sir Walter Raleigh, the half-brother of Gilbert, sent over an expedition under Amidas and Barlow, who explored the coast of North Carolina, and fixed upon Roanoake island as a proper site for a colony. Their reports, upon their return to England, drew numerous volunteers, from whom one hundred and eight persons were selected and sent

were regarded by Spain chiefly as a source of wealth. The extension of the Spanish power in Mexico, Central America, and South America, went on through the seventeenth century. Their history will be related elsewhere.

In 1624 the Dutch seized the settlements in Brazil, which had passed with Portugal into the hands of Spain. The next year they were recovered by the Spaniards, and in 1645 Portugal having re-established her independence, Brazil became her possession once more. In 1696 the gold mines of Brazil were discovered; but fortunately for that country her great agricultural re-

sources had been to some extent developed, and her people had acquired the characteristics which were the foundation of her prosperity.

The interest of the history of the western world centres in North America. Until the opening of the seventeenth century England had made no effort to colonize the territory which she claimed in North America; but now associations began to be formed in England for the planting of commercial colonies upon the American coast. The first of these was the London Company, which was chartered by King James I. in 1606. Early in the year 1607 a company of emigrants was sent out, which established the first permanent English settlement at Jamestown, on the banks of the James river, in Virginia. The command of this expedition was vested in Captain Newport, but the true hero of the undertaking was the famous Captain John Smith, to whom alone is due the credit of carrying the colony through the dangers and trials of its infancy, and establishing it upon a firm basis. He explored the Chesapeake and its tributaries, of which he made maps and sketches, which are still noted for their accuracy. The government of Virginia was first vested in a council appointed by the king; but after several changes, the colony was given the right of self-government, and a house of burgesses chosen by the people was established. This was the first representative body that ever met in America, and held its first session on the 19th of June, 1619. In August of the same year a Dutch man-of-war brought a cargo of African slaves into the James river, and so introduced negro slavery into America.

A settlement of a different character by the Pilgrim fathers, a band of Puritan exiles from England, who had first sought refuge in Holland, was made at Plymouth, on the shore of Cape Cod bay, on the 21st of December, 1620. These exiles came to found a state, and endured their trials with a heroism the memory of which their descendants gratefully cherish. They had no charter from the king, or sanction from the Plymouth Company in England, to which this portion of America had been

granted by the crown, but conducted their enterprise upon their own responsibility. Before landing in America, they organized a government in the cabin of the Mayflower, the ship which bore them from England. Their civil system was thoroughly republican. The governor was chosen by the people, and his acts were subject to the control of the council. In the beginning the legislative power was vested in the whole people, but as the colony grew larger, a legislature, chosen by the votes of the



LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS.

freemen, was established. In 1629 the colony received a charter from Charles I. of England.

The Plymouth Company now resolved to settle its vast possessions in America, and in 1628 a colony of Puritans, under John Endicott, was planted at Salem, on the Massachusetts bay, the name of which was given to the whole province along its shores. In 1630 a fleet of vessels with 840 new settlers, under John Winthrop, arrived from England, and in September of that year founded the city of Boston. New settlers

came over rapidly, and in 1690 the colonies of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay were united in one government.

In 1623 Sir Ferdinando Gorges and John Mason took out a patent from the king for a territory called Laconia, lying between the Atlantic, the St. Lawrence, the Merrimac, and the Kennebec. In the same year they founded the towns of Portsmouth and Dover in New Hampshire. A French colony had been planted in Maine in 1613, but had been broken up by an expedition from Virginia, and the first permanent settlements in Maine were made by the Eng-

lish by settling the city of Providence, which is now the capital of the state.

New York was settled by the Dutch, but the state was first entered by a French officer named Samuel Champlain, through whose energy Canada was settled by his countrymen. He explored the northern part in company with a war party of Hurons, and in July, 1609, discovered the lake which bears his name, and assisted the Hurons to defeat a force of Mohawks upon its shores. From this time the Five Nations, as the Mohawks were termed by the English, were the bitter enemies of the

French. On the 6th of September, 1609, Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the service of the Dutch East India Company, discovered the great river to which his name has been given, and explored it to within a few miles of the site of Albany. He took possession of the region along its shores for the Dutch republic, which named it New Netherlands. In 1614 the Dutch built a fort on the lower end of Manhattan island, at the mouth of the Hudson, and named the settlement which sprang up around it New Amsterdam. Other settlements were made along the Hudson as high as Fort Orange, now Albany. In 1638 emigration, which had been slack up to this time, increased rapidly. The Dutch settlements soon extended as far eastward as Connecticut and as far south as the Delaware. The Swedes, who had settled on the latter river, and had villages along its banks as far up as Philadelphia, resisted the encroachments of the Dutch, but were finally driven away by a military expedition of the latter in 1655. The whole region settled by the Dutch was claimed by the



WILLIAM PENN.

lish at Saco and on Monhegan island in 1622 or 1623. Some years later Maine became a part of the territory of Massachusetts, and was retained by her until the formation of the state of Maine in 1820.

In 1635 a company of emigrants from Massachusetts, under the pious Hooker, set out from Boston on foot through the wilderness to settle the Connecticut valley. They founded the city of Hartford, the town of Weathersfield and some other places. In 1636 Roger Williams, who had been exiled from Massachusetts for his religious opinions, founded the colony of Rhode Island,

English in virtue of Cabot's discoveries, and was seized by a naval force sent out for that purpose by the Duke of York, upon whom Charles II. had bestowed the country in 1664. The English changed the names of the province and of the settlement on Manhattan island, to New York, and that of Fort Orange to Albany, in honor of the Duke of York, the new proprietor, who was afterwards James II., King of England.

That portion of New Jersey lying along the Hudson was settled by the Dutch about the same time the colony at New Amster-

dam began to attract emigrants. The Swedes settled the southwest portion along the Delaware in 1627. It passed with New York into the hands of the English as the property of the Duke of York. At the same time it acquired the name it bears at present. Sir George Cartaret and Lord Berkeley purchased New Jersey from the Duke of York and settled it as an English province.

Delaware was settled by the Dutch in 1630, at a point near Lewes. In 1633 this settlement was entirely destroyed by the

the proprietary of Maryland, but was held by the Duke of York, who sold it to William Penn. Penn's rights were sustained by the English authorities, and the three Delaware counties remained a part of Pennsylvania until 1703, when they were given a separate government. Until 1776, however, the same governor administered the affairs of Pennsylvania and Delaware.

In 1681 William Penn obtained from the English government, in payment of a debt due him, a grant of lands west of the Delaware, and in 1682 brought over a col-



PENN'S TREATY WITH THE INDIANS.

Indians. In 1637 a company of Swedes and Fins made a settlement on the island of Tinicum, a few miles below Philadelphia. Several other settlements were formed, and the country was called New Sweden. The Dutch protested against this occupation of territory claimed by them, and in 1655 an expedition from New Netherlands reduced the Swedish forts, and sent back to Europe all the Swedes who refused to swear allegiance to Holland. The Delaware settlements were held by the Dutch till their conquest by the English. The title to this region was disputed by Lord Baltimore,

one of Friends or Quakers, and founded the city of Philadelphia. His colony flourished from the beginning, and by treating the Indians with kindness and justice in his dealings with them, he secured their warm friendship, and a consequent immunity from the savage warfare to which the other colonies were subjected. There was peace between the Indians and the whites of Pennsylvania, as Penn's province was termed, for nearly one hundred years. Early in the eighteenth century there was a large emigration of Germans to Pennsylvania. They settled in the southern coun-

ties of the colony, to which they gave the characteristics which still distinguish them from the rest of the state.

Maryland, so called in honor of Queen Henrietta Maria of England, was first settled by a band of adventurers engaged in the fur trade, on Kent island, near the head of the Chesapeake bay. In 1632 Sir George Calvert, Lord Baltimore, obtained a grant of the province from Charles I. The next year the first colony of actual settlers was sent out by the second Lord Baltimore, the son of George Calvert, who had succeeded to his father's patent as well as his title. They numbered 201 persons, mostly Roman Catholics, and embarked for America in two vessels called the Ark and the Dove. They reached the Chesapeake in the spring of 1634, and ascending to the Potomac founded the town of St. Mary's, in the county of the same name, on the 27th of March. The colony prospered from the first under the generous encouragement of the proprietary. The first legislative assembly met in 1639. In 1649 this assembly enacted the first law passed in America granting religious toleration to all persons within the limits of the colony.

North Carolina and South Carolina were originally one province, which was granted by Charles II. to a company of his favorites in 1663. Settlements had been formed in North Carolina along the Chowan and Albemarle sound by emigrants from Virginia as early as 1653. These settlements spread slowly along the coast towards the Cape Fear river. In 1670 a company of emigrants sent out by the proprietaries established themselves in South Carolina. They settled first at Port Royal, but soon removed to Charleston. The name of Carolina was given to the whole country south of Virginia. In 1690 a large emigration of French Huguenots added considerably to the population of South Carolina. The proprietaries endeavored to govern their province by an absurd constitution prepared by the great philosopher John Locke and the Earl of Shaftesbury. The attempt to force this constitution upon the settlers, who regarded it as destructive of their liberties—as it was—kept the province in a continual state of trouble. In 1727 the king bought out the proprietaries and divided the province into two colonies, called respectively North and South Carolina.

We shall anticipate events somewhat, and for the sake of convenience state that

Georgia was settled in 1733 by a company of English emigrants under General James Oglethorpe. Oglethorpe designed his colony as a refuge for poor debtors, who were liable to imprisonment in England, and for the oppressed of every nation. The settlement of Georgia completed the thirteen colonies which in the next century established the independence of America.

The majority of the inhabitants of these colonies were from England, or of English parentage, but there was a liberal admixture among the people of Scotch, Irish, French and German elements. The prevailing religious sentiment of the New England colonies was Calvinistic; Quakerism predominated in Pennsylvania; and, until near the close of the century, Roman Catholicism in Maryland; while the Church of England claimed as her children the majority of the people of New York and of the southern colonies. African slavery had become firmly established in the south, and the industry of that section was rapidly being based upon it. All the colonies were fairly on the road to prosperity at the close of the seventeenth century.

The colonists of New England were careful to provide for the future training of their children by the establishment of schools, to be supported at the public expense and free to every child within their limits. In 1637 Harvard College was founded in Massachusetts. The southern colonies were less careful to provide for the education of their young.

The first settlers found the Indians very friendly, and for some time peaceful relations were maintained with them. Wars, which were usually brought on by the injustice of the whites, soon broke out, and nearly every colony had to fight for the establishment of its settlements, as the Indians soon settled into a determined hostility to them. Powhatan, the great Virginia chief, and the friend of the whites, died in 1618, and his successor, Oppecananough, a bold and able chieftain, was the bitter foe of the English. He made two attempts to destroy the Virginia settlements, but without success. He was taken prisoner and put to death in 1644, and his fate broke the power of his people in Virginia. They were driven westward.

The hostility of the Indians of New England hastened their destruction. In 1637 Connecticut destroyed the towns of the Pequods and exterminated the tribe. In June, 1675, the struggle known as King

Philip's War burst upon the colonies of Massachusetts and Plymouth. It continued until August, 1676, and caused great suffering and loss to those colonies. It resulted in the blotting out of existence of the Wampanoag and Narragansett tribes.

The colonies were very jealous of their rights, and opposed from the first a steady resistance to the efforts of the English government to reduce them to abject submission to its will. Little real trouble in this respect was experienced during the reign of Charles I., the period of the commonwealth, and the reign of Charles II. James II. made a deliberate effort to overturn the liberties of the colonies, and to force the Roman Catholic religion upon New York. He declared all the charters of the New England colonies forfeited, and sent over Sir Edmund Andros as Governor-General of New England. Andros conducted his administration with such tyranny that upon the receipt of the news of the revolution in England, the people of Boston rose against him, imprisoned him, and proclaimed William and Mary.

In the meantime the French had settled Canada. Quebec was settled in 1608 by a party under Samuel Champlain. The settlement of Canada differed from that of British America, as it was more a military occupation than a genuine colonization. From Canada the French missionaries extended their operations along the great lakes as far as the head of Lake Superior, making many converts to the Christian faith, and extending the influence of France over the distant tribes. In 1634 they had penetrated as far west as Lake Huron, and in 1668 the mission of St. Mary, the oldest European settlement in Michigan, was established. In 1673 Father Marquette, a Jesuit missionary, floated down the Wisconsin in a canoe and discovered the Mississippi, which he explored as far south as the mouth of the Arkansas. In 1682 La Salle, a Frenchman, descended the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico, and named the country along the great river Louisiana, in honor of Louis XIV. of France. In 1684 he attempted to plant a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi, but reached the coast of Texas by mistake. The colony failed, and La Salle was killed by his men in 1687. In 1699 La Salle's plan was carried out by Lemoine d'Ibberville, who planted a settlement on the site of New Orleans, which was the germ of the present city.

The wars which prevailed between France and England in the latter part of this century soon extended to their possessions in America. The French, believing that they had securely established themselves in Canada, were anxious to dislodge the English from their possessions on the south, and towards the close of this century began to incite the Indians to commit depredations upon the English colonies, supplying them with arms and ammunition, and joining them in their expeditions. In 1689 the struggle, known in America as King Wil-



THE PALISADES OF THE HUDSON.

liam's War, began. New England and New York suffered severely from the incursions of the French and Indians, and several towns (Dover, New Hampshire, Schenectady, New York, and Deerfield and Haverhill, Massachusetts) were destroyed by bands of Indians, or French and Indians, and their inhabitants massacred or carried into captivity. On the other hand a New England fleet under Sir William Phipps captured Port Royal, in Nova Scotia, which name was changed to Annapolis, and brought the greater part of Nova Scotia under English

rule. The war was brought to a close in 1697 by the peace of Ryswick.

Five years after the peace of Ryswick the war of the Spanish succession began in Europe in 1702. It soon extended to America, where it was termed Queen Anne's War, and embroiled the English and French in this country. The English settlements on the western frontier of New England were almost annihilated by the Indians, while the French were unusually active.

was peace in America, and during this time the colonies grew rapidly in population and prosperity.

King George's War grew out of the war of the Austrian succession in Europe, and began in America in the summer of 1744. It lasted a little over four years, and was closed by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, October 18th, 1748. The principal event of this war was the capture of Louisburg, the strongest position of the French in America, by a volunteer force from New England, led by William Pepperell, a wealthy merchant of Maine. At the close of the war Louisburg was restored to the French.

In 1749 the Governor of Virginia received orders from England to grant to an organization known as the "Ohio Company" half a million of acres of land lying on the Ohio river, and between the Monongahela and the Kanawha rivers. This region, though included in the territory of Virginia, was claimed by France, and as soon as the English began to form settlements in it, they were resisted by the French, who established



BURNING OF DEERFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS.

Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Rhode Island made a combined attempt to conquer Acadie, or Nova Scotia, in 1707, but without success. In 1710 an expedition from Boston drove the French out of Acadie, and annexed it to the British crown, under the name of Nova Scotia. In 1711 two vigorous efforts were made to conquer Canada, but were both unsuccessful. On the 11th of April, 1713, the peace of Utrecht closed the war. For thirty years afterwards there

several military posts within its limits, and drove out the English settlers. Governor Dinwiddie resolved to remonstrate with the French commander before seeking to dispossess him by force, and intrusted a letter to him to George Washington, then a young man less than twenty-two years of age, but with a reputation for bravery and prudence beyond his years. He performed the long and dangerous journey between the Virginia frontier and the Ohio, delivered the letter of

the governor, and returned in safety with the reply of the French commander. The Frenchman's answer was evasive and unsatisfactory, and Virginia prepared to maintain her claim to the Ohio region by force of arms, and an expedition was fitted out for this purpose. Washington was assigned the second place in this expedition, but by the death of Colonel Fry, he soon succeeded to the chief command. He at once moved towards the Ohio, and hearing that the French had erected Fort Duquesne at the head of the Ohio, he pushed forward to reconnoitre that position. On the way a body of French troops under Jumonville attempted to surprise him, but was defeated by Washington's command, Jumonville himself being among the slain, May 28th, 1754. This encounter began the final struggle between England and France for the supremacy in America, which is known in American history as the old French War, or the French and Indian War, and in European history as the Seven Years' War. Hostilities did not begin immediately in Europe, as we have seen, the Seven Years' War beginning in the year 1756. France and England did not come to blows until that year. Each country professed to be at peace with the other, but each sent assistance to its colonies in America. The campaign of 1755 in America included several expeditions against the French on the Ohio, the lakes, and the Atlantic.

The first of these was an expedition against Fort Duquesne, from Virginia, consisting of a force of royal troops and provincials under General Braddock. Washington held an appointment on Braddock's staff, and rendered good service during the campaign. Braddock's army advanced slowly, and without regard to the danger to be apprehended from the savages. Washington warned the general of his danger, but his suggestions were treated with contempt. When it had gotten within ten miles of Fort Duquesne, Braddock's army was am-

bushed by the French and Indians, on the 9th of July, and was routed with terrible slaughter. Braddock himself was mortally wounded, and died a few days later. The remnant of his force, under General Forbes,



BRONZE DOOR IN THE NATIONAL CAPITOL COMMEMORATING THE EVENTS OF THE LIFE OF WASHINGTON.

retreated east of the mountains. A second column under General Shirley, Governor of Massachusetts, was despatched against Forts Frontenac and Niagara, on the Niagara river. It proved a failure. Shirley was delayed by bad weather, and sick-

ness broke out among his Indian allies, who belonged to the tribes of the Six Nations, and they deserted him in large numbers. Disheartened by these things, Shirley retraced his steps eastward, and his expedition amounted to nothing.

A third expedition was despatched under General Winslow, of New England, against the French posts on the Bay of Fundy. It was successful, and the posts were captured and held by the English. Subsequently General Winslow received positive orders from England to remove the Acadians, or neutral French, from Acadie to the English colonies, which duty he performed. There was no actual necessity for the removal of these people, and this harsh

Dieskau was succeeded by the Marquis de Montcalm, to whom was assigned the command of all the French forces in America. He was an officer of experience, energy, and skill, and opened the campaign of 1756 with a series of successes which continued for two years. In 1756 he captured Oswego, with a large quantity of stores collected there by the English. In 1757 he laid siege to Fort William Henry, and compelled it to surrender. After the delivery of the fort, the Indians serving with the French army attacked the captive garrison and massacred a large number. Montcalm heroically exerted himself to save his prisoners, and succeeded in stopping the massacre.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

and cruel measure occasioned them great suffering.

The fourth expedition was against Crown Point, and was led by General William Johnson. The troops were principally from Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Hampshire. Johnson advanced to the head of Lake George, near which he was attacked by a force of French and Indians, under Baron Dieskau, on the 6th of September, 1755. Through the exertions of General Lyman, the second in command and an American, the French were repulsed and were forced to retreat. Dieskau was mortally wounded and was made a prisoner. Johnson lost the fruits of the victory by lingering at the head of Lake George until it was too late in the season to advance upon Crown Point.

The disasters of the English in America were keenly felt by the people of Great Britain, who demanded a change of the ministry. The popular demand was unwillingly complied with, as we have seen, and the king placed William Pitt at the head of affairs. From the moment that this great man began to direct the war the prospects of the English improved. Pitt appreciated the efforts of the Americans, and resolved to sustain them. He also decided that Great Britain should assume the cost of the war, and that the colonies should be repaid the sums they had expended in its support. The calls of Pitt for volunteers were well responded to in the colonies, and when the campaign of 1758 opened, the English took the field with 50,000 men, commanded by officers of experience and skill. The principal events of this campaign were: the capture of Louisburg by Generals Amherst and Wolfe, on the 27th of July, after a siege of fifty days; the capture of Fort Frontenac, on Lake Ontario, by a force of colonial troops under Colonel Bradstreet; the capture of Fort Duquesne by a force under General Forbes, in which the Virginia troops were commanded by Washington; and the defeat of Abercrombie at Ticonderoga. Abercrombie advanced upon Ticonderoga with a force four times as great as that which Montcalm collected for the defence of the position. The leading spirit of the expedition was Lord George Howe, a young officer of great promise. Howe was killed in a skirmish, and Abercrombie, who was utterly incompetent, was repulsed with heavy loss in his attack upon the fort, and obliged to retreat to the

head of Lake George. He lost 2,000 men in his fruitless expedition. This disaster closed the campaign, and more than counterbalanced the successes of the English at the outset.

Abercrombie was removed from his command, and was succeeded by General Amherst, who advanced in the spring of 1759 upon Ticonderoga and Crown Point, from which the French retreated without risking an engagement. About the same time Sir William Johnson took Niagara, and routed

firmly that of England in the new world. The war in America virtually ceased after the fall of Quebec, but continued on the ocean and in Europe for nearly four years longer. Peace was restored by the treaty of Paris, in 1763, by which Canada and its dependencies, including the posts along the lakes and the Ohio, were forever ceded to Great Britain.

The surrender of Canada was deeply resented by the Indians of the northwest. Under their great chief Pontiac, one of the



DEATH OF WOLFE.

a large French force which was marching to its relief. On the 13th of September, 1759, the crowning event of the war occurred. The British army under General Wolfe scaled the Heights of Abraham, at Quebec, and defeated the French under Montcalm. Both commanders were slain in the battle. On the 18th Quebec was surrendered to the English. Its capture is regarded as one of the most remarkable events in modern history; not only because it decided the war in America, but because it destroyed the power of France and con-

most remarkable of his race, they made a determined effort, in 1763, to throw off the English rule. The war lasted until 1764, when the resistance of the Indians was put down.

CHAPTER II.

THE REVOLUTION.

Services of the Colonists in the French and Indian Wars—Great Britain Jealous of her Colonies—Harsh Laws—The "Writs of Assistance"—They are Resisted—Great Britain Proposes to Tax the Colonies—The Stamp Act—Resistance of the Col-

onies to it—Measures for Protection—The First Colonial Congress—Repeal of the Stamp Act—New Duties Imposed—Riot in Boston—The Town Occupied by British Troops—The King Maintains his Right to Tax the Colonies—Destruction of Tea at Boston—The Boston Port Bill—Meeting of the Continental Congress—Measures of that Body—The Colonies Arm—Battles of Lexington and Concord—The Revolution Begun—Boston Besieged—Capture of Crown Point and Ticonderoga—Battle of Bunker Hill—The Second Continental Congress Assembles at Philadelphia—Washington in Command of the Army—The British Evacuate Boston—Invasion of Canada—Attack on Fort Moultrie—Declaration of Independence—Articles of Confederation—Battle of Long Island—Washington Retreats Across the Delaware—Battle of Trenton—Washington Eludes Cornwallis—Battle of Princeton—Effect of these Victories—Battle of the Brandywine—The British Occupy Philadelphia—Battle of Germantown—Surrender of Burgoyne—Alliance with France—The Winter at the Valley Forge—The British Evacuate Philadelphia—Battle of Monmouth—Arrival of the French Fleet—The War in the South—Capture of Savannah—Georgia Overrun—Spain Joins the Alliance—Exploits of Paul Jones—Attack on Newport—Surrender of Charleston—Exploits of Marion and Sumter—Battles of Camden and King's Mountain—Greene in Command in the South—Arrival of the French Army—Arnold's Treason—Battles of the Cowpens and Eutaw Springs—Cornwallis in Virginia—Washington Moves South—Siege of Yorktown—Surrender of Cornwallis' Army—Close of the War—Great Britain Recognizes the Independence of the United States.

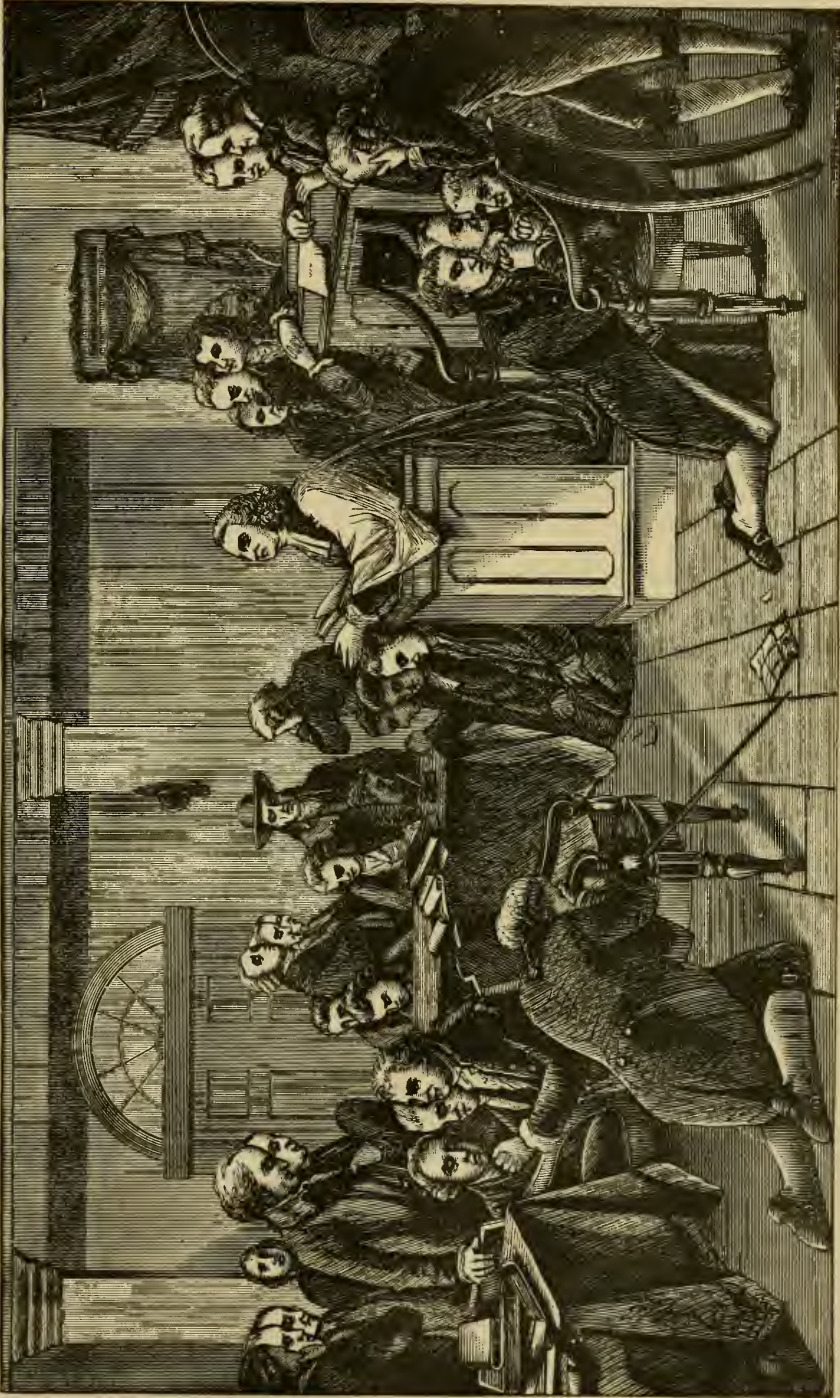
THE conflicts with the French and Indians, in which the colonies had been engaged, had demanded great sacrifices from them, and had left them greatly exhausted in both men and money. They had shown the devotion of America to the mother country in the most conspicuous light, and had certainly earned for the Americans the considerate forbearance of Great Britain. As for the Americans themselves, they had learned valuable lessons in modern warfare, had seen for themselves that British generals were not infallible nor British troops invincible, and had gained a very decided confidence in their own prowess.

Great Britain, however, did not regard her colonies with either motherly wisdom or kindness. Jealous of their growing commercial and manufacturing prosperity, she sought in numerous ways to cripple their industry and retard their advancement. Always a law-abiding people, the Americans submitted to all the harsh measures of the mother country as long as they were kept within the limits sanctioned by the British constitution. In 1761, however, the home government threw off its constitutional restraints. A law was en-

acted by parliament authorizing the sheriffs and customs officers to enter stores and private dwellings, upon the authority of "writs of assistance," or general search warrants, and search for goods which it was suspected had not paid duty. The first attempt to use these writs was made in Massachusetts. They were resisted, and the persons refusing to obey them were brought to trial, but were acquitted. This trial settled the fate of the writs, and no further attempt was made to use them.

The British government now proposed to levy a direct tax upon the colonies, which denied the right of Great Britain to tax them without granting them representation in parliament. As such representation was impossible by reason of the distance between the two countries, the colonies claimed that taxes could be levied only by their own legislatures. An act for taxing the colonies, known as the Stamp Act, was passed by parliament in the spring of 1765, and was at once signed by the king. It required that every written or printed paper used in trade, in order to be valid, should have affixed to it a stamp of a denomination to be determined by the character of the paper, and that no stamp should be for a less sum than one shilling. The colonies had earnestly protested against this measure while it was being discussed in parliament, but the only notice the British government took of these protests was to send over a body of troops for the purpose of enforcing obedience to the stamp act, and the ministers were authorized by parliament to compel the colonies to find "quarters, fuel, cider or rum, candles, and other necessaries" for these troops.

These infamous measures produced great excitement in America. The Virginia legislature declared that the colonists were bound to pay only such taxes as were levied by their own legislatures. The general court of Massachusetts ordered the courts of that province to transact their business without the use of the stamps. In the other colonies the opposition was strong, and associations called "Sons of Liberty" were formed all over the country, consisting of men who pledged themselves to oppose the unlawful acts of Great Britain. The determination not to use the stamps was general, and when the 1st of November, 1765, the day on which the hated law was to go into operation, arrived, it was found that all the agents for the distribu-



THE FIRST PRAYER IN CONGRESS.

tion of the stamps had resigned through fear of violence at the hands of the people. A general mourning was observed throughout the colonies. The merchants pledged themselves to import no more English goods, and the people agreed not to purchase such goods, until the law was repealed.

On the 7th of October, 1765, the first colonial congress met in New York to consider the state of the country, and consisted of delegates from nine of the colonies. This congress drew up a declaration of rights for the colonies, a memorial to parliament, and a petition to the king, in which, after asserting their loyalty to the crown and laws of England, they insisted upon their right to be taxed only by their own representatives. These documents were submitted to and approved by the provincial legislatures, and were laid before the British government in the name of the united colonies.

The friends of America in parliament warmly supported the petition of the colonies, and demanded a repeal of the stamp act. Pitt and Burke urged the repeal with powerful eloquence. The British merchants, who had begun to feel the effects of the non-intercourse policy of the Americans, were clamorous for a repeal of the act; and at length parliament yielded, and on the 18th of March, 1766, the stamp act was repealed. The repeal was celebrated with great rejoicings in America and England.

The king did not relinquish his determination to tax America, and on the 29th of June, 1767, parliament passed an act imposing duties on glass, tea, paper, and some other articles imported into the colonies. The Americans met this new aggression with a revival of their societies for discontinuing the importation of English goods. A riot having occurred in Boston, in opposition to the exaction of these duties, the British government ordered General Gage to occupy Boston with a strong military force. This occupation increased the disaffection of the Bostonians, and on the 5th of March, 1770, a collision occurred between the citizens and the troops, in which three of the former were killed and five wounded.

The feeling of the colonies was so unmistakable that parliament resolved to remove the obnoxious duties. The king, however, was determined that at least one nominal duty should be retained, as he did not

mean to surrender his right to tax the colonies. In accordance with the royal command a duty of three per cent. on tea was retained, and all the others were removed. The Americans, however, objected to the principle of taxation without representation, and not to the amount of the tax, and resolved to discontinue the use of tea until the duty should be repealed. When it was learned that several ships loaded with tea had sailed from England to Boston, a meeting of the citizens of Boston was held at Faneuil Hall, and it was determined to send the ships back to England immediately upon their arrival. Three ships loaded with tea reached Boston soon after, and their owners, in compliance with the public demand, consented to order them back to England, if the governor would allow them to leave the port. Governor Hutchinson evaded the request for permission for the ships to sail. On the night of the 18th of December, 1773, a band of citizens, disguised as Indians, seized the vessels, emptied the tea into the harbor, and then quietly dispersed without harming the ships. This bold act greatly incensed the British government, and parliament adopted severe measures for the purpose of punishing the colonies. The harbor of Boston was closed to all commerce, the seat of the colonial government was removed to Salem, soldiers were ordered to be quartered on all the colonies at the expense of the citizens, and it was required that all officers who should be prosecuted for enforcing these measures should be sent to England for trial.

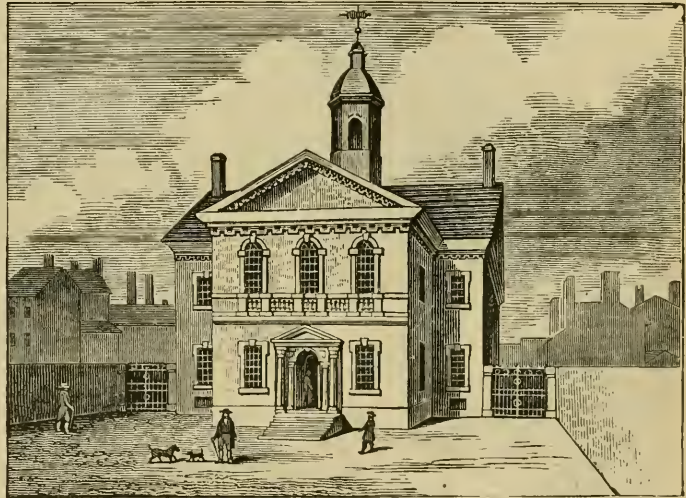
The excitement in the colonies over these measures was tremendous. Boston was everywhere regarded as the victim of British tyranny, and assurances of sympathy, and money and provisions for the poor of the town, were sent from all parts of the country. Even in the city of London thirty thousand pounds were subscribed for the relief of Boston. Salem refused to accept the transfer of the seat of government, and the authorities of Marblehead requested the merchants of Boston to use their port free of charge. The excitement continued to increase throughout the country, and the breach between the colonies and England widened daily.

On the 5th of September, 1774, the continental congress met at Philadelphia. It was composed of delegates from all the colonies save Georgia, whose royalist gov-

ernor had prevented an election. It embraced among its members the first men in America. This body, after considering the grievances of the colonies, adopted a declaration, setting forth their rights, as subjects of the British crown, to a just share in the making of their own laws, and in imposing their own taxes; to the right of a speedy trial by jury in the community in which the offence should be committed, and to the right to hold public meetings and petition for the redress of grievances. A protest against the unconstitutional acts of the British parliament was adopted, as well as a petition to the king, an appeal to the British nation, and a memorial to the people of the colonies. The congress proposed, as a means of redress, the formation

of an "American Association," the members of which should pledge themselves not to trade with Great Britain or the West Indies, or with persons engaged in the slave trade, and to refrain from using British goods or tea. The papers drawn up by the congress were transmitted to England. The Earl of Chatham (William Pitt) was deeply impressed by them, and declared in parliament that "all attempts to impose servitude upon such a mighty continental nation must be vain." The

English people, as a general rule, desired that the demands of the Americans should be complied with, and even Lord North, the prime minister, who carried the arbitrary measures of the government through parliament, was at heart opposed to them, and only upheld them at the express command of the king, who was determined to force his American subjects into submission. Few of the leaders of the colonists now doubted that hostilities were close at hand, and the colonies took measures to raise and arm troops with a view to be prepared for any emergency. General Gage was alarmed by these measures, and fortified Boston Neck, and seized the small stock of ammunition collected by the Massachusetts authorities at Worcester. Emboldened by



CARPENTERS' HALL—PLACE OF MEETING OF THE CONTINENTAL CONGRESS.

persed by the British troops, and eight were killed and several wounded. The troops then proceeded to Concord, where they destroyed a few stores, and came in conflict with a body of several hundred minute-men. Finding that the country was rapidly rising around him, and fearing that he would be surrounded, Colonel Smith, after a brief encounter with the minute-men, decided to retreat to Boston. He was followed the whole way by the minute-men, who kept up a galling fire upon the royal troops during the whole retreat. The British were reinforced at Lexington by a column of 900 men and two cannon, under Lord Percy, but were driven back to Charlestown. Their loss during the day was nearly 300 men.

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The events of the 19th of April put an end to the long dispute between the colonies and England, and inaugurated the revolution. Measures were taken to put a New England army in the field, and by the 1st of May an army of 20,000 men was encamped around Boston, and General Gage found himself besieged in his chosen position. In May he was reinforced by fresh troops from England under Generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, and the

was received; and in North Carolina a convention was held at Charlotte, in Mecklenburg county, which body, in May, 1775, proclaimed the independence of North Carolina, and prepared to resist the authority of Great Britain by force of arms.

Alarmed by the activity of the American force before Boston, General Gage determined to seize and fortify the heights around that city. His plan was betrayed to General Ward, the American comman-



THE BATTLE OF LEXINGTON, APRIL 19, 1775.

strength of his army was increased to 10,000 men.

In the other colonies equally important measures were begun. The fortresses of Ticonderoga and Crown Point were surprised and captured by volunteers from Vermont, under Colonel Ethan Allen. The Americans captured with these fortresses large quantities of cannon and stores, which were of the greatest service to them. In Virginia and the Carolinas the people took up arms as soon as the news from the north

der, who sent Colonel Prescott, on the night of the 16th of June, 1775, to fortify Bunker Hill, which commanded the great northern road out of Boston across the peninsula of Charlestown. By some mistake Prescott passed by Bunker Hill, and went to Breed's Hill, much nearer Boston, and there threw up a slight breastwork, which was discovered by the British on the morning of the 17th. The British war vessels in the harbor immediately opened fire on the intrenchments, and General

Gage resolved to storm them at once, and drive the Americans from the hill. A force of 3,000 regulars was detailed to carry the works, assisted by the fire of the men-of-war in the harbor. The American force on the hill consisted of scarcely half this number, and was composed of raw and undisciplined provincials. The British made their attack about three o'clock in the afternoon. The Americans repulsed two assaults, but in the third, their ammunition having failed, they were driven from the hill. They retreated across Charlestown Neck to Cambridge, which was held by the continental army. The American loss in the battle of Bunker Hill was 449 killed, wounded and prisoners. The loss of the British was 1049 killed and wounded, including some of their best officers. Among the killed was General Joseph Warren, of Boston, who was serving as a volunteer. His loss was greatly lamented. The battle, though an actual defeat of the Americans, was equal to a victory in its effects upon them, inasmuch as it demonstrated their ability to hold their ground against the regular troops of Great Britain, and inspired them with confidence.

On the 10th of May, 1775, the second continental congress met at Philadelphia. The proceedings of this body were moderate and deliberate. A petition to the king was drawn up and forwarded to England, denying any intention to separate from Great Britain, and asking only for redress of the wrongs of which the colonies complained. A federal union of the colonies was formed, and congress assumed and exercised the general government of the country. Measures were taken to establish an army, to procure military supplies, and to provide a navy. A loan of \$2,000,000 was authorized, and the faith of the "united colonies" pledged for its redemption. The troops before Boston were organized as a continental army, and were placed under the control of congress. George Washington, then a member of congress, was appointed commander-in-chief of this army. As soon as he received his commission he set out for the army.

Washington reached the army before Boston a few days after the battle of Bunker Hill, and at once assumed the command. By extraordinary exertions he succeeded in bringing the force to a tolerably effective condition. Boston was regularly invested, and the siege was pressed with vigor. On

the 4th of March, 1776, Washington seized and fortified Dorchester Heights, overlooking and commanding the town and harbor from the south. The city being thus rendered untenable, the British were forced to evacuate it, which they did on the 17th of March, and sailed for Halifax.

In the meantime a force had been sent to invade Canada from two points, under General Richard Montgomery and Colonel Benedict Arnold. The principal event of the invasion was an attack upon Quebec by the forces of Montgomery and Arnold. It was unsuccessful. Montgomery was killed, and Arnold, who succeeded to the command, was wounded and was forced to retreat. The expedition accomplished nothing of permanent value, and was compelled to return to the colonies after suffering great losses and many hardships.

A British fleet attacked and burned Falmouth (now Portland), in Maine, and committed many outrages on the coast of Virginia. A powerful fleet, under Sir Peter Parker, attacked Fort Moultrie, in the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina, for the purpose of forcing its way to that city. It was repulsed with heavy loss, June 28th, 1776.

During the year 1776 the Americans sent out several cruisers, which captured a number of British vessels laden with stores for their army. These captures enabled Washington to do much towards equipping the force under his command.

Congress took measures for the active prosecution of the war. Supplies were drawn from the West Indies; powder mills and cannon foundries were provided for on a small scale; thirteen frigates were ordered to be constructed (a few of which eventually got to sea); a committee of war, one of finance, and a secret committee, to which was intrusted the negotiations of the colonies with foreign powers and persons abroad friendly to the cause, were appointed. Finally, on the 4th of July, 1776, congress adopted, on behalf of the colonies, a declaration of independence of the British crown. The colonies now took their stand as free and independent states. At the same time a plan for the general government of the United States, known as the Articles of Confederation, was adopted.

As he supposed that the British would attack New York, Washington transferred his army to that place immediately after his occupation of Boston. He had not

long to wait, for General Howe soon arrived in New York bay with his army, and in June was joined by his brother, Admiral Lord Howe, with reinforcements and a strong fleet. The British army now numbered 30,000 men, a large part of whom were Hessian troops, hired from the government of Hesse-Cassel, in Germany, by the King of England. The troops were landed on Staten island, and preparations were made for attacking the city of New York. Before proceeding to hostilities Lord Howe issued a proclamation to the people of America, offering a free pardon to all who would lay down their arms and accept the king's clemency. The proclama-

and capture them in New York; but Washington withdrew from that city and retreated to the mainland. After some indecisive encounters, the American army crossed the Hudson into New Jersey. The British followed up their successes, and Washington was obliged to abandon the Hudson and retreat across New Jersey to the Delaware, which he crossed near Trenton. He halted in Pennsylvania, and the British made no effort to pass the river.

The American cause now seemed gloomy indeed. New York and New Jersey were lost to the patriots, and Washington had with him in Pennsylvania only 4,000 half starved and badly clothed men. The



WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE.

tion produced no effect whatever, for the Americans were convinced that they could expect but a poor regard for their rights and liberties at the hands of King George.

Washington's force was vastly inferior to that of the enemy. He was compelled to divide it, and to place a portion of it on Long island, in order to cover the approaches to New York city. The force on Long island was attacked and defeated by the British on the 27th of August, 1776. By a skilful retreat on the night of the 29th, Washington withdrew his troops from Long island to New York. Howe was greatly mortified at the escape of the Americans, and prepared to shut them up

British had by this time taken possession of the island of Rhode Island, and had made a descent upon Baskingridge, New Jersey, and had captured General Charles Lee. By December, 1776, the cause of the colonies seemed so desperate that the people generally began to abandon the hope of success, and many of them commenced to make their peace with the royal authorities.

At this hour, when everything was so gloomy, Washington was calm and hopeful. He had expected reverses, and they did not dismay him. He was resolved to maintain the struggle to the last possible moment, and exerted himself to cheer the little band of heroes who remained faithful

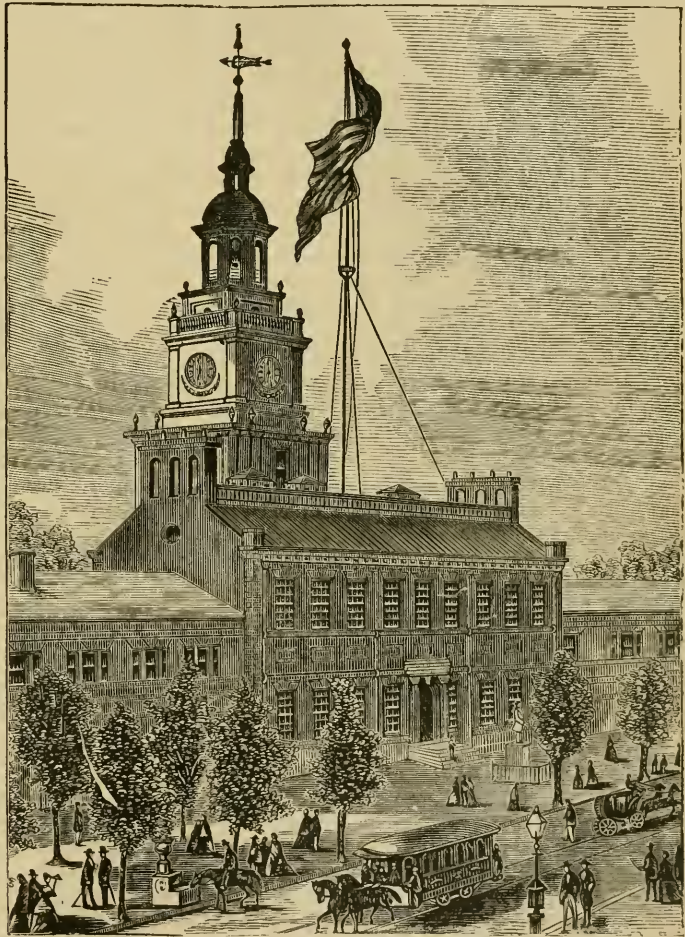
to the cause. Feeling that the situation of affairs demanded some decisive action on his part, he determined to attack and drive back the Hessians who constituted the advanced guard of the British army, and who occupied an exposed position on the Delaware between Trenton and Burlington. He crossed the Delaware with a portion of his army, in open boats, in the midst of snow and floating ice, on the night of De-

cember 25th, 1776, and about eight o'clock on the morning of the 26th attacked the Hessians at Trenton and defeated them. He took 1,000 prisoners, 1,000 stand of arms, 6 brass cannon, and 4 standards. On the night of the 26th he recrossed the Delaware and returned to his camp in Pennsylvania. A few days later, having received a small reinforcement, Washington crossed the Delaware once more, and took position at Trenton. General Howe hurried a force of 7,000 men, under Lord Cornwallis, towards Trenton to crush Washington's army. By a brilliant march around the British left, Washington eluded Cornwallis and hurried towards New Brunswick to seize the stores of the British army. On the 3d of January, 1777, while on the march, he defeated a strong British force at Princeton. He abandoned his movement on New Brunswick, and

marched to Morristown, where he went into winter quarters with his army. He was so active during the winter that the British confined themselves to the shores of Raritan bay, and did not venture again into the interior of the state.

The victories of the American army were so brilliant and audacious that they not only startled the British, who had be-

lieved the war virtually over in the north, but aroused as if by magic the drooping spirits of the American people, and did much for the cause in the eyes of foreign nations. Congress now invested Washington with dictatorial powers for a specified time; troops were enlisted for three years instead of one year, which was the original term; and agents were sent to foreign countries to procure the recognition of the inde-



INDEPENDENCE HALL, PHILADELPHIA, IN 1878.

pendence of the United States, and assistance in the prosecution of the war.

When the campaign of 1777 opened, the prospects of the country had so far improved that Washington found himself at the head of an army of 7,000 men. Sir William Howe made repeated efforts to draw him into a general engagement, but Washington completely outgeneralled him,

and Howe withdrew his army from New Jersey to Staten island. Soon after this he sailed with 16,000 men to the Chesapeake, which he ascended to Elkton, in Maryland, where he landed his forces and advanced through Delaware towards Philadelphia, which was the seat of the federal government.

Washington, who had moved south of the Schuylkill, in anticipation of this attempt, endeavored to check Howe's advance at the passage of the Brandywine, on the 11th of September, but was defeated with the loss of 1,000 men. Congress withdrew from Philadelphia to Lancaster, and then to York, Pennsylvania. The British occupied Philadelphia a few days after the battle. On the 4th of October the American army made a vigorous attack upon the British force at Germantown, seven miles from Philadelphia, but was repulsed.

In the north the American forces were more successful. General Burgoyne, with a force of 7,000 British and German regulars, and a considerable body of Canadians and Indians, entered New York from Canada by way of Lake Champlain, during the summer of 1777. Crown Point and Ticonderoga were evacuated by the Americans, and Burgoyne pushed on in triumph as far as Fort Edward, on the Hudson. From this point he sent a strong detachment to Bennington, in Vermont, to destroy the stores collected there by the Americans. This force was routed with heavy loss by the militia of Vermont and New Hampshire, under General Stark, near Bennington, on the 16th of August, 1777. General Gates was now appointed to the command of the American army confronting Burgoyne, and his force grew larger every day by reinforcements of militia from New England and New York. Burgoyne attacked him on the 19th of September at Behmus' Heights, and a severe but indecisive battle occurred. A second and more decisive engagement was fought on the 7th of October. Burgoyne was considerably worsted and endeavored to retreat, but upon reaching the vicinity of the town of Saratoga, was surrounded and forced to surrender his entire army on the 17th of October.

This victory, the most important of the war, greatly elated the Americans and cheered their friends in Europe. It advanced the bills of the continental congress, which had become greatly depreciated, and

had the effect of inducing the French government, which had secretly encouraged and aided the colonies from the first, to recognize the independence of the states. In February, 1798, a treaty of friendship, commerce and alliance was signed at Paris between the United States and France. Great Britain seemed to realize now, for the first time, that she was about to lose her colonies, and endeavored to repair her mistakes. On the 11th of March, 1778, parliament repealed the acts that had been so obnoxious to the Americans, and subsequently sent three commissioners to settle the differences between the two countries. As these commissioners had no authority to treat with the United States as an independent nation, congress refused to enter into any negotiations with them.

Washington's army passed the winter of 1777-78 at Valley Forge, about twenty miles from Philadelphia. The troops suffered terribly from hunger, exposure, and the dreadful privations to which they were subjected, but remained with their colors through it all. Their devotion was rewarded in the spring by the news of the alliance with France, which reached them in May, 1778, and was greeted with demonstrations of the liveliest joy.

Sir William Howe's course did not give satisfaction at home, and he was removed from his command in America, and was succeeded by Sir Henry Clinton, who was ordered by his government to evacuate Philadelphia and concentrate his forces at New York, as the French fleet might be expected in the Delaware at any moment. On the 18th of June Clinton withdrew his forces from Philadelphia, and set out across New Jersey for New York. Washington pursued him promptly, and came up with him at Monmouth Court-House. A severe but indecisive engagement occurred between the two armies. At its close Clinton resumed his retreat to New York, and remained there for the rest of the summer, without seeking to renew hostilities with Washington. A few days after Clinton's evacuation of Philadelphia, the French fleet under Count D'Estaing arrived in the Delaware. Finding his enemy gone, the French admiral sailed for New York. The British fleet took refuge in Raritan bay, whither the larger vessels of the French were unable to follow them. In August the Americans made an attempt, in concert with the French fleet, to capture the British

force at Newport, R. I. The French afforded so little aid that the enterprise failed. D'Estaing withdrew from the coast soon after this, and sailed to the West Indies, having rendered little practical aid during his presence in American waters.

The finances of the country were in the greatest confusion. Fortunately the wisdom and unshrinking patriotism of Robert Morris, an eminent merchant of and member of congress from Philadelphia, saved them from ruin. When the public credit failed he borrowed large sums of money for the use of congress, for the payment of which he pledged his own credit. On the whole, however, the cause of the states was much improved. Besides the alliance with France, they had the secret encouragement of Spain. They had confined the British to the territory held by that army in 1776, and their own army was larger and better disciplined than it had ever been.

In 1779 the principal military operations were transferred to the south. Savannah had been already captured on the 29th of December, 1778, by an expedition sent from New York by Sir Henry Clinton, and by the summer of 1779 the whole state of Georgia was in the hands of the British. In September, 1779, the French fleet and the American army under General Lincoln attempted to recover Savannah, but were repulsed with a loss of 1,000 men.

On the 16th of June, 1799, Spain declared war against England, and in the summer of that year the French king, influenced by the appeals of Lafayette, who had visited France for that purpose, agreed to send another fleet and a strong body of troops to the aid of the Americans. The cruisers of the United States did great damage to the British commerce at sea, and in British waters, and John Paul Jones, with a squadron of three ships, fought and won one of the most desperate battles in naval history, within plain sight of the English coast.

Sir Henry Clinton, in obedience to instructions received from England, now withdrew the detachment from Newport, and concentrated his army at New York. Early in 1780, leaving a strong garrison under General Knyphausen to hold New York, he sailed with the bulk of his army to the south, and laid siege to Charleston, which was held by General Lincoln with a force of about 7,000 continentals and militia. After a gallant defence the city and

garrison were surrendered to Clinton on the 17th of May, 1780. By the 1st of June the British had overrun the better part of South Carolina, and Clinton was so well convinced of the completeness of its subjugation that he went back to New York, leaving the command in the south to Lord Cornwallis.

Small bands of partisan troops, under Marion, Sumter, and Pickens, and other leaders, now sprang up in various parts of South Carolina, and maintained a vigorous guerilla warfare, from which the enemy suffered greatly. Congress soon after sent General Gates to command the forces in the south. Gates's success at Saratoga had made him the idol of the hour, and it had even been suggested by a few discontented persons that he should supersede Washington himself. His northern laurels were soon "changed to southern willows." Cornwallis met him at Camden on the 16th of August, routed him with the loss of 1,000 men, and drove him into North Carolina. By the close of the summer the only American force left in South Carolina was the little band under Marion. Cornwallis, feeling that his communications with Charleston were safe, followed Gates's beaten army into North Carolina, about the middle of September, intending to continue his advance into Virginia. On the 7th of October a strong detachment of his army was totally defeated with heavy loss, at King's Mountain, in North Carolina, by the militia of that state. This was a severe blow to the British commander, and checked his advance. Marion and Pickens about the same time renewed their operations in South Carolina with such activity that Cornwallis became alarmed for his communications, and fell back to Winnsborough, South Carolina.

In the north the British commander vainly endeavored to draw Washington into a general engagement, in which he felt confident that his vast preponderance of numbers would give him the victory. Washington warily avoided being caught in the trap, and on the 23d of June, General Greene inflicted such a stinging defeat upon a British force at Springfield, N. J., that Clinton withdrew to New York, and remained there for the balance of the year. After the battle of Camden General Greene was sent to the Carolinas to succeed Gates in the command of the southern army.

On the 10th of July, 1780, a French

fleet and 6,000 troops under the Count de Rochambeau, reached Newport, R. I. In September, during the absence of Washington at Hartford, Conn., whither he had gone to arrange a plan of operations with the French commander, it was discovered that General Benedict Arnold, one of the most brilliant officers of the continental army, had agreed to deliver into the hands of the British the important fortress of West Point, which he commanded at that time. The discovery of the plot put an end to the danger with which it threatened the cause. The traitor Arnold escaped, but

Court-House was fought in North Carolina, and resulted in a victory for the British. Cornwallis was unable to follow up his victory, and withdrew to Wilmington on the coast. On September 8th, the British forces under Colonel Stewart were defeated in the bloody battle of Eutaw Springs by General Greene, and were compelled to retire to the neighborhood of Charleston, to which they were confined during the remainder of the war.

Meanwhile Cornwallis, after resting and recruiting his army at Wilmington, had advanced into Virginia, driving before him the handful of troops under Lafayette, Wayne and Steuben, who sought to stay his march. While in Virginia he occupied himself chiefly in destroying private property, and at length, in August, 1781, in obedience to orders from Sir Henry Clinton to occupy a strong defensive position in Virginia, intrenched himself at Yorktown, near the entrance of York river into the Chesapeake bay.

Washington, whose army had been reinforced on the Hudson by the French troops under the Count de Rochambeau, was anxious to attack New York, and preparations were made for a combined attack on that city. A message was received at this juncture from the Count de Grasse, the French admiral in the West Indies, who announced that he had sailed for the Chesapeake. This led to an immediate change in the plan of operations determined upon by Washington, and he resolved to transfer his army at once to Virginia and attempt the capture of Cornwallis. Skilfully deceiving Sir Henry Clinton into the belief that New York was the threatened point, and thus preventing him from sending assistance to Cornwallis, Washington moved rapidly to Virginia, and arrived before the British works at Yorktown with an army of 16,000 men on the 28th of September, 1781. The enemy's position was at once invested by land, and the French fleet cut



GENERAL NATHANIEL GREENE.

Major Andre, a British officer, through whom Arnold had conducted his negotiations with Sir Henry Clinton, and whose capture had revealed the plot, was hanged as a spy.

Towards the close of the year, Great Britain having discovered that the United States and Holland were secretly negotiating a treaty, declared war against the Dutch.

The campaign of 1781 opened with the brilliant victory of the Cowpens, won over the British under Colonel Tarleton, by General Morgan, on the 17th of January. On the 15th of March the battle of Guilford

off all chance of escape by water. The siege was prosecuted with vigor, and on the 19th of October Cornwallis, having exhausted all his resources, surrendered his army of 7,000 troops, with all his stores, cannon, and several ships-of-war.

This victory virtually closed the war. It produced the wildest joy in America, and compelled a change of ministers in England. Lord North and his cabinet retired from office on the 20th of March, 1782, and the new administration, perceiving the hopelessness of the struggle, resolved to make peace. Commissioners for that purpose were appointed, and orders were sent to the British commanders in America to desist from further hostilities. A preliminary treaty of peace was signed at Paris between the United States and Great Britain, on the 30th of November, 1782, and a formal treaty on the 3d of September, 1783, all the nations concerned in the war taking part in this treaty. By this treaty Great Britain acknowledged her former colonies to be free, sovereign, and independent states, and withdrew her troops from New York on the 25th of November, 1782. Savannah and Charleston were evacuated in the following month.

CHAPTER III.

FROM THE REVOLUTION TO THE CIVIL WAR.

Results of the War—Adoption of the Constitution of the United States—Washington Elected President—His First Term—Is Re-elected—Admission of New States—Washington Retires to Private Life—His Farewell Address—John Adams President—War with France—The Alien and Sedition Laws—Thomas Jefferson Elected President—War with the African States—Purchase of Louisiana—Jefferson Re-elected—Burr's Treason—Troubles with England—The "Chesapeake" and "Leopard"—The Embargo—James Madison Chosen President—War with England—Invasion of Canada—Surrender of Detroit—Failure of the Campaign—Naval Victories—The "Constitution" and the "Guerriere"—The Second Invasion of Canada—Capture of York—Massacre at the River Raisin—Perry's Victory on Lake Erie—Battle of the Thames—Battles of Chippewa and Lundy's Lane—Attack on Plattsburgh—Battle of Lake Champlain—Capture of Washington—Attack on Baltimore Repulsed—Death of General Ross—Battle of New Orleans—Close of the War—The Barbary States Humbled—The Hartford Convention—James Monroe Chosen President—The Bank of the United States—New States Admitted—The Missouri Compromise—"The Monroe Doctrine"—John Quincy Adams President—The Tariff—Andrew Jackson Elected President—His Fight with the Bank—The Nullification Troubles—Jackson Removes the Deposits—The National

Debt Paid—Relations with Foreign Powers—The Seminole War—Martin Van Buren President—Financial Troubles—William Henry Harrison President—His Death—John Tyler Becomes President—Vetoes the Bank Bill—The Northern Boundary Question Settled—Annexation of Texas—James K. Polk President—The Mexican War—Battles of Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, Monterey, and Buena Vista—Capture of Vera Cruz—Scott's Campaign—Capture of the City of Mexico—Close of the War—Its Results—The Oregon Question—Zachary Taylor President—The Slavery Question—Discovery of Gold in California—Compromise of 1850—Death of General Taylor—Millard Fillmore Becomes President—Events of his Administration—Franklin Pierce President—Arizona Purchased—The Kansas-Nebraska Bill—James Buchanan President—The Kansas Troubles—Border War—The Mormon Rebellion—The John Brown Raid—Execution of Brown.

THE great war was now over, and the republic took its place in the family of nations; but it was terribly weakened by its efforts. Its finances were in the most pitiful condition, and it had not the money to pay the troops it was about to disband, and who were really suffering for want of money. Considerable trouble arose on this account, but Washington succeeded in effecting an arrangement to the satisfaction of the soldiers. The army was disbanded immediately after the close of the war, and on the 23d of December, 1783, Washington resigned his commission into the hands of congress, and retired to his home at Mount Vernon.

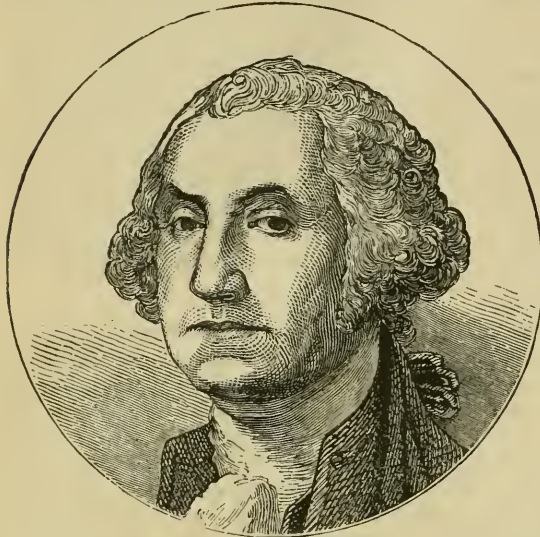
It was found that the articles of confederation were inadequate to the necessities of the republic, and after much discussion a new constitution was framed by a federal convention at Philadelphia, in 1787, and was adopted by the states. It went into operation on the 4th of March, 1789. The city of New York was designated as the seat of government.

Washington was unanimously chosen the first President of the United States, and John Adams vice-president. They went into office on the 30th of April, 1789. The first measures of Washington's administration greatly restored the confidence of the people in the government. Alexander Hamilton, the secretary of the treasury, inaugurated a series of reforms, which were eminently beneficial. The debts of the old confederated government and of the states themselves were all assumed by the United States; a bank of the United States (which went into operation in February, 1794) was incorporated, and a national mint was es-

published at Philadelphia. An Indian war in the west was prosecuted to a successful termination, and the neutrality of the republic with regard to the parties engaged

as their only hope of liberty and happiness.

The third presidential election occurred in 1796, and was marked by a display of bitterness between the opposing parties never surpassed in the subsequent political history of the country. It resulted in the election of John Adams, the federalist candidate, to the presidency. Thomas Jefferson, the republican candidate, having received the next highest number of votes, was declared elected vice-president, in accordance with the law as it then stood. President Adams was opposed, with great bitterness, by his political enemies during his whole term. The president convened congress in extra session on the 15th of May, 1797, to consider the relations of this country with France. The French directory had for some time been pursuing a systematic course of outrage upon American ships and citizens, and had carried these outrages to an extent which left little doubt of its determination to ruin



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

in the wars springing out of the French revolution was faithfully maintained.

Washington and Adams were re-elected in 1792. The French republic made great efforts to embroil the United States in a war with England, but they were met with firmness by Washington, who demanded the recall of M. Genet, the French minister. His demand was complied with by France. In 1794 a treaty was negotiated with England, in settlement of the questions left unsettled by the revolution. In 1792 a formidable outbreak, in opposition to the excise law, known as the whiskey insurrection, occurred in western Pennsylvania. It was suppressed by the federal government in 1794. Three new states were admitted into the Union during Washington's administration: Vermont, in 1791; Kentucky, in 1792; and Tennessee, in 1796.

Washington was urgently importuned to be a candidate for a third presidential term, but declined a re-election, although it was certain there would be no opposition to him. His action in this respect has become the settled policy of the government. In September, 1796, he issued a "Farewell Address" to his countrymen, warning them of the dangers to which their new system was exposed, and urging them to adhere firmly to the principles of the constitution

the commerce of this country. Three envoys were sent to France by President Adams to attempt a peaceful settlement of the quarrel. The directory refused to receive them, but they were given to understand that the payment of a large sum of money by their government would greatly assist the settlement of the matter. The commissioners refused to entertain such a demand, and were ordered to quit the country. Great indignation prevailed throughout the United States when these insults to the

American commissioners became known. The government took prompt measures to raise an army and navy adequate to the struggle which seemed imminent. Washington was appointed commander-in-chief of the army, with the rank of lieutenant-general; and hostilities actually began at sea, where the cruisers of the United States won several brilliant successes over French ships-of-war.



JOHN ADAMS.

The energy and determination thus manifested by the United States had a happy effect in bringing about a settlement of the quarrel. Napoleon became First Consul of France; negotiations were reopened, and a treaty of peace between the two countries was definitely concluded on the 30th of September, 1800.

During the existence of hostilities with France two laws were enacted by congress, which are generally known as the "alien and sedition laws." They empowered the president to send out of the country such foreigners as should be found conspiring against the peace and safety of the republic, and restricted the liberty of speech and of the press enjoyed by the people. These laws were very unpopular, and brought about the overwhelming defeat of the federalist party, by which they were enacted. During President Adams' term the seat of government was removed from Philadelphia to Washington city, in 1800.

In the fourth contest for the presidency the votes of the republican party were equally divided between Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr, each of whom received seventy-three votes. This threw the election into the house of representatives, where Jefferson was chosen president, and Burr vice-president. This circumstance also occasioned an amendment to the constitution (adopted finally in 1804), requiring the electors to vote separately, as at present, for president and vice-president.

Mr. Jefferson was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1801. His first term was marked by wisdom and vigor. The domestic affairs of the nation prospered, and the finances were managed in a masterly manner by Albert Gallatin, the great secretary of the treasury. The insolence and the piracies of the Barbary States of Africa were punished and stopped by a naval expedition to the Mediterranean. The principal event of this term was the purchase from France, and the annexation to the domain of the republic, in 1803, of the vast territory of Louisiana, out of which have been formed the states of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Minnesota, Kansas, Nebraska, Oregon, and Colorado; and the territories of Dakotah, Utah, Wyoming, Montana, Idaho, and Washington.

In 1804 Mr. Jefferson was re-elected to the presidency, receiving every electoral vote but fourteen. Burr was succeeded in the vice-presidency by George Clinton. He was then defeated for Governor of New York, chiefly through the influence of Alexander Hamilton, whom he challenged, and shot in a duel on the 11th of July, 1804. In 1806 Burr was arrested and tried for a supposed attempt to separate the western states from the Union. He was acquitted of the charge, and his innocence is now generally admitted.

American commerce was much injured by the retaliatory decrees and orders in council of the French and British govern-

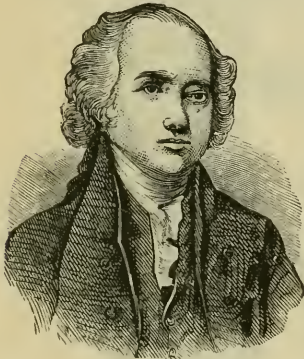


THOMAS JEFFERSON.

ments, under the authority of which American ships were seized and confiscated, in utter defiance of the rights of neutrals. Great Britain gave additional cause of offence by asserting a right to impress American seamen into her navy, and to stop American vessels on the high seas and search them for deserters from her ships-of-war. These searches were generally conducted in the most aggravating manner, and hundreds of American sailors, owing no allegiance to King George, were forced into the British service. In June, 1807, the American frigate "Chesapeake," on her way to the Mediterranean, was stopped off the Chesapeake bay by the British frigate "Leopard," whose commander produced an order from the British admiral requiring him to search for deserters. The

American vessel refused to submit to the search, and was fired into by the "Leopard," and being in a helpless condition, was forced to strike her colors, with a loss of twenty-one of her crew. Four men were taken from her and sent on board the "Leopard." Three of these were afterwards proved to be native-born Americans. This outrage aroused a feeling of the most intense indignation throughout the United States, and the federal government demanded reparation of England, which was evaded at the time, but was finally made in 1811.

On the 11th of November, 1807, England issued an order in council, forbidding neutral vessels to enter the ports of France until they had first touched at a British port and paid a duty; and the next month Napoleon replied to this by a decree dated at Milan, ordering the confiscation of every



JAMES MADISON.

vessel which should submit to be searched by or pay any duties to the British authorities. These two piratical acts, each of which was supported by arbitrary power, meant simply the destruction of all neutral commerce, and that of America in particular. In December, 1807, Mr. Jefferson advised congress to lay an embargo, detaining all vessels, American or foreign, in the ports of the United States, and to order the immediate return home of all American vessels abroad. This measure, which was a most singular expedient, was adopted, and gave rise to such intense dissatisfaction and heavy loss that it was repealed in February, 1809.

At the elections in 1808, James Madison of Virginia, the democratic candidate, was chosen president, Mr. Jefferson having refused a third term. Mr. Madison was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1809. The measures of Mr. Jefferson's second term, and especially the embargo, had given rise to considerable opposition to the democracy, and this opposition was now directed against the new administration with no

little bitterness, and followed it persistently until its withdrawal from power.

Great Britain, instead of discontinuing her outrages upon American seamen and commerce, increased them, and steadily disregarded the protests and representations of the United States. In March, 1808, congress passed an act prohibiting all commercial intercourse between the United States and Great Britain and France. Napoleon met this act by an offer to withdraw the restrictions he had placed upon neutral commerce if England would do likewise; but England would give no such pledge. In 1811 the French emperor fulfilled his promise, and the United States withdrew the prohibition of trade with France. England, however, refused to withdraw her orders in council until it was too late, and the federal government, having exhausted all peaceful means of redress, was driven to obtain it by the sword. On the 3d of June, 1812, the United States declared war against Great Britain. Congress authorized the President to increase the regular army to 25,000 men, and to call for 50,000 volunteers. The call was responded to promptly in some of the states, tardily in others, for the country was far from being united in support of the war.

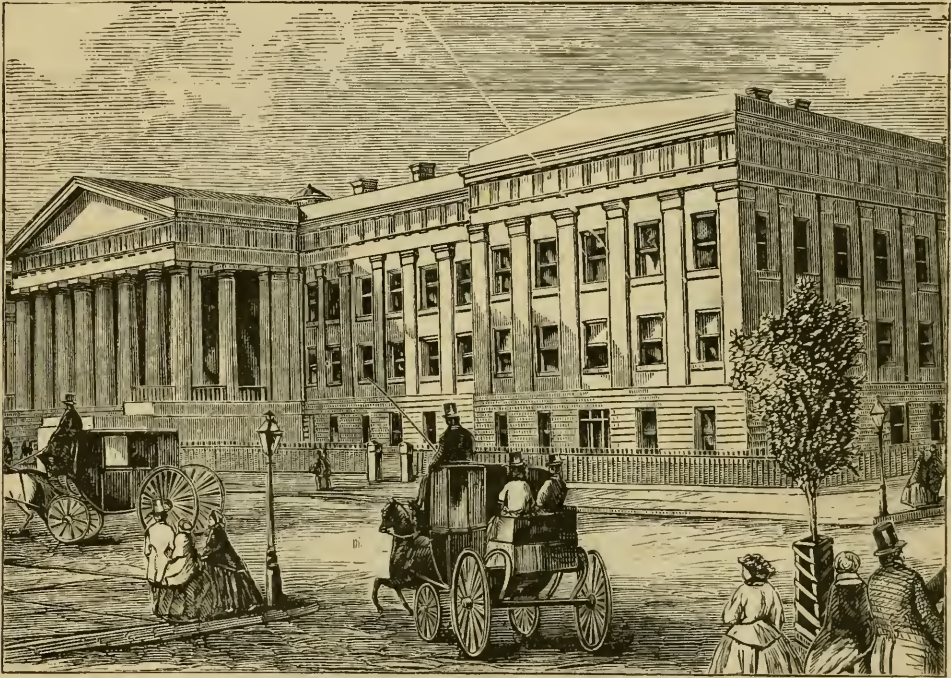
Hostilities began in the northwest. Previous to the war the Indians of that region, instigated by British emissaries, attacked the frontier settlements under the leadership of the famous Shawnee chief Tecumseh. General Harrison (afterwards president), the Governor of the Territory of Indiana, as soon as he learned of this, organized a considerable force of western militia, and marched against the savages, whom he defeated with terrible loss in a sanguinary battle at Tippecanoe, on the banks of the Wabash river, on the 7th of November, 1811. Though defeated in this battle, Tecumseh was not conquered. He passed the next six months in reorganizing his forces, and with the beginning of the summer of 1812 renewed hostilities. General Hull, the Governor of Michigan, was sent against him with a force of 2,000 men. He had just begun his march when war was declared against England. Hull was then ordered to discontinue his expedition against the Indians and take part in the contemplated invasion of Canada. His force was too weak even to hold its position at Detroit, but no reinforcements could be sent him. General Brock, with a superior

force, advanced against Detroit, and on the 16th of August, 1812, Hull surrendered the town and his forces to the British without striking a blow. This placed the whole Michigan frontier in the hands of the British. An invasion of Canada from the Niagara frontier was undertaken by the American forces in the autumn of 1812, but resulted in a most disastrous failure.

These defeats on land were partly atoned for by the successes of the American navy at sea. The navy had been utterly neglected by the government previous to the war, and consisted of but a small squadron

and on the 29th of December the "Constitution," Captain Bainbridge, captured the British frigate "Java." Privateers went to sea in great numbers during the year, and by the close of 1812 had captured over 300 English merchant vessels.

The American government renewed its efforts to conquer Canada in 1813. An army, under General Harrison, was collected near the head of Lake Erie, and was styled the Army of the West; an Army of the Centre, under General Dearborn, was stationed along the Niagara frontier; and an Army of the North, under General



THE PATENT OFFICE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

of frigates and other vessels. These were generally of an excellent character, however, and were manned by officers and crews of skill and valor. On the 19th of August, 1812, the frigate "Constitution," Captain Hull, captured the English frigate "Guerriere," reducing the latter to a total wreck. This was the first time in half a century that an English ship-of-war had struck her flag to a vessel of equal force. On the 18th of October the sloop-of-war "Wasp," Captain Jones, captured the British brig "Frolic." On the 25th of October the frigate "United States" captured the British frigate "Macedonian;"

Wade Hampton, was posted in northern New York, on the border of Lake Champlain. There were numerous engagements between these forces and the enemy, but nothing definite was accomplished during the first half year. In April, General Pike, with a force of 1,700 men, captured York (now Toronto), the capital of Upper Canada, but was himself killed by the explosion of a mine fired by the enemy. The town was not held, however, and the success of the attack was fully balanced by a terrible disaster which befell the western army at the river Raisin, in January, in which a detachment of 800 men, under

General Winchester, was defeated and massacred by the British and Indians (the latter of whom were now the open allies of the British), under General Proctor. In May the British made an attack on Sackett's Harbor, on Lake Ontario, but were repulsed. In the same month an American force, under General Boyd and Colonel Miller, captured Fort George, in Canada,

held Lake Erie with an armed squadron, which by its presence greatly hampered the operations of the western army under General Harrison. Lieutenant Oliver H. Perry, of the United States navy, volunteered to recover the lake, and caused to be built a squadron of vessels inferior in size and armament to the English fleet. On the 10th of September, 1813, he attacked the



NIAGARA FALLS.

inflicting upon the British a loss of nearly 1,000 men. Nothing definite was accomplished on the Niagara frontier, owing to the quarrels between Generals Wilkinson and Hampton; and the grand invasion of Canada, from which so much had been expected, never took place. The year was not to close without some compensating success for the Americans. The British

enemy's squadron near the upper end of Lake Erie, and defeated and destroyed it. This victory won back Lake Erie and the shores of Ohio and Michigan for the Americans. It was followed by the advance of the western army into Canada. On the 6th of October General Harrison attacked the British and Indians, under Proctor and Tecumseh, and routed them in the battle of the Thames. Tecumseh was slain, and Proctor was saved only by the speed of his horse.

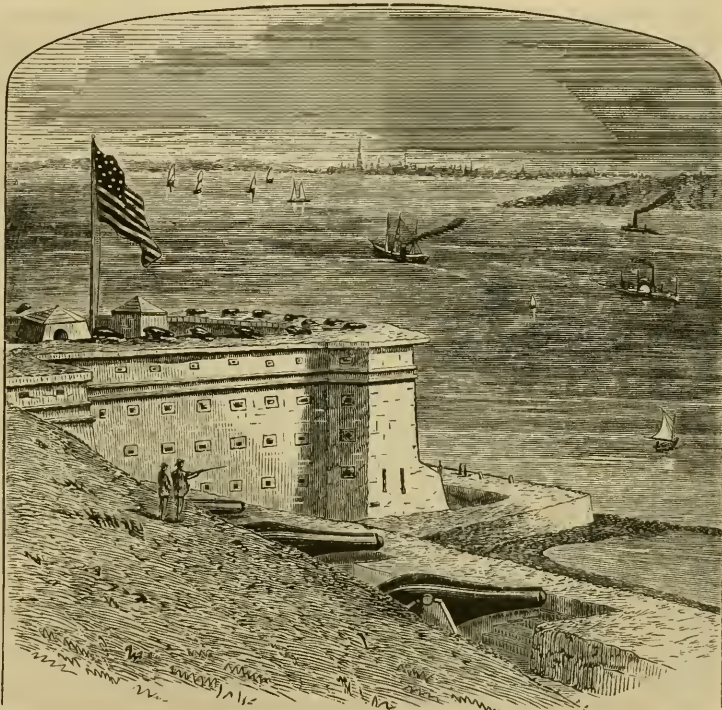
At sea this year the American brig "Hornet," Captain Lawrence, captured the "Peacock," on the 24th of February. Captain

Lawrence having been placed in command of the frigate "Chesapeake," engaged the British frigate "Shannon," off Boston, on the 1st of June. Lawrence was killed and the "Chesapeake" was captured. On the 5th of September the American brig "Enterprise," Lieutenant Burrows, captured the British brig "Boxer," Lieutenant Blythe. Both commanders were killed in the fight.

The campaign of 1814 was more important. The war in Europe having closed, large numbers of Wellington's veteran troops were sent over to America. They reached this country during the latter part of the year. On the 5th of July the American army under General Brown, defeated the British at Chippewa. On the 25th of the same month General Brown won a second victory over the British at Lundy's Lane, or Bridgewater. Towards the close of the summer Sir George Prevost, the British commander in Canada, having been reinforced from Wellington's army, invaded the state of New York at the head of 14,000 men. He was accompanied by a fleet of considerable strength, which moved up Lake Champlain. He was met at Plattsburgh on the 3d of September by a small American force under General Maccomb, which disputed his passage of the Saranac. At the same time an American squadron under Commodore Macdonough engaged the British fleet at the entrance to Plattsburgh bay, and routed it with the loss of every vessel except a few gunboats, which escaped. The American army repulsed every effort of the British to pass the Saranac, and Sir George Prevost, disheartened by his double disaster, retreated into Canada, having lost his fleet and 2,500 of his troops.

In the summer of 1814 a British fleet under Admirals Cockburn and Warren ravaged the shores of the Chesapeake bay, committing the most horrible barbarities upon the helpless people. In August these vessels landed a force of several thousand British troops under General Ross, at Benedict, on the Patuxent. Ross at once advanced upon the city of Washington, which

was defenceless, and on the 24th of August defeated a small force of American militia which sought to bar his way at Bladensburg. He then resumed his advance and occupied Washington that evening, the federal government having withdrawn from the city. He burned the capitol, the president's house, the navy yard, and several of the buildings occupied by the executive departments of the government, and retreated to the Patuxent, and re-embarked on his ships. "Few more shameful acts are recorded in our history," says an Eng-



HARBOR OF NEW YORK IN 1878.

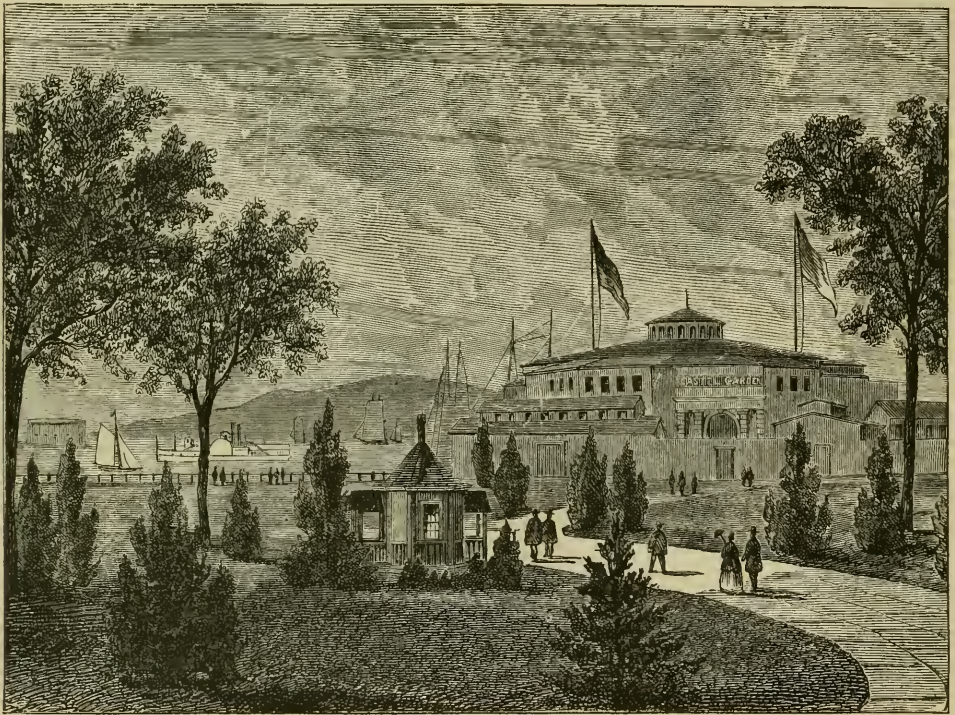
lish writer of note, "and it was the more shameful in that it was done under strict orders from the government at home." General Ross then ascended the Chesapeake to Baltimore, and landed his troops at North Point, near that city, while the fleet made a sharp attack upon Fort McHenry, which guarded the entrance to the harbor. The fleet was repulsed by the fort, and Ross was killed in a skirmish near North Point on the 12th of September. His successor at once re-embarked the army, and abandoned the effort against Baltimore.

At sea during 1814 the American frigates "Essex" and "President" were captured by

superior forces of the enemy, while the British sloop-of-war "Epervier," "Avon," "Reindeer," "Cyane," "Levant," and "Penguin" were captured by American cruisers.

During the remainder of the year 1814 nothing of importance occurred. On the 8th of January, 1815, a British force of 12,000 of Wellington's veteran troops attacked the city of New Orleans, but were defeated with the loss of their commander and 2,000 men, by 5,000 Americans under General Jackson. This battle was fought after a treaty of peace between the United States

of the vexatious issues that had produced the war, and disposed the British government to be just in its dealings with America. Negotiations for peace were begun in the summer of 1814, and a treaty of peace was finally signed at Ghent, on the 24th of December, 1814. By the terms of the treaty the two governments agreed upon a settlement of the boundary between the United States and Canada, and to mutually restore all territory taken during the war, and arranged some minor details respecting their future intercourse, but nothing was



THE BATTERY AND CASTLE GARDEN, NEW YORK, IN 1878.

and Great Britain had been signed in Europe, but before the news had reached America. The victory was most important to the Americans, for had the result been different, there can be little doubt that England would have disregarded the treaty, and have clung to a conquest which would have given her the control of the mouth of the Mississippi. In such an event either the war would have been renewed, or the destiny of the great west would have been marred forever.

The restoration of peace in Europe upon the downfall of Napoleon removed many

said of the impressment of American seamen, the chief cause of the war. Inasmuch, however, as Great Britain has never since then attempted such outrages, this question also may be regarded as having been settled by this war.

During the struggle with England the pirate states of northern Africa—Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers—had resumed their outrages upon American commerce. In the spring of 1815 a strong naval expedition under Commodore Decatur was sent to the Mediterranean, and forced these states to make indemnity for their pira-

cies, and to pledge themselves to cease to molest American vessels in future.

The federalist party had from the first opposed the war with England, and during its continuance had given it no aid save what was forced from them by the laws. The strength of this party lay in the New England states, where the losses of the war fell heaviest. To remedy the evils which the federalists declared the government had recklessly brought upon the country, a convention was held at Hartford, Connecticut, in 1814. This body recommended certain measures to the legislatures of the eastern states, limiting the power of the general government over the militia of the states, and proposed several amendments to the federal constitution. The news of the treaty of peace put a stop to all further proceedings of the convention, which resulted in nothing but the destruction of the federalist party, which came to be regarded by the people at large as having been untrue to the republic in its hour of need.

Mr. Madison was re-elected president in 1812, and had the satisfaction of conducting the war which had been begun during his administration to a successful close. He declined to be a candidate for a third term, and James Monroe, of Virginia, was nominated by the democratic party, and elected by a large majority in 1816. Mr. Monroe had been secretary of state during the greater part of Mr. Madison's administration.

The return of peace found the country burdened with a debt of \$80,000,000, and with almost a total absence of specie in its mercantile transactions, the majority of the banks having suspended the payment of gold and silver during the war. In 1817 congress, to relieve the general distress, established a bank of the United States at Philadelphia, with a charter for twenty years and a capital of \$35,000,000. The notes of this institution supplied the demand for a circulating medium of uniform value throughout the country, and did much to relieve the financial distress of the period.

Two new states were added to the Union during Mr. Madison's administration—Louisiana in 1812, and Indiana in 1816.

Mr. Monroe was inaugurated in March, 1817. He had been exceedingly popular as secretary of state, and the good will of the people followed him into the presidential chair. His administration proved

so acceptable to all parties that he was re-elected in 1820 by every electoral vote but one. Five new states were admitted into the Union during his presidency. They were Mississippi in 1817, Illinois in 1818, Alabama in 1819, Maine in 1820, and Missouri in 1821.

For some years the opposition to African slavery in America had been spreading through the northern states, and had been steadily gathering strength. When the territory of Missouri presented its petition to congress in 1820 for admission into the Union as a state with a constitution sanctioning slavery, there was a very general determination on the part of the free states to oppose the admission of another slaveholding state. The southern members of the confederacy, on the other hand, insisted upon the right of Missouri to choose its own institutions, and threatened to withdraw from the Union if this right was denied her by excluding her from the Union. A bitter contest with regard to the subject of slavery now developed itself between



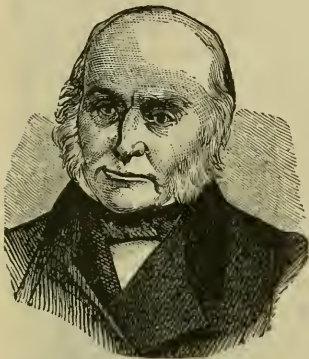
JAMES MONROE.

the two sections of the Union, and continued from this time until it culminated in the civil war. The country was agitated in every portion, and the best men of the land expressed the fear that the Union would be torn in pieces by the violence of the contending parties. Henry Clay succeeded in procuring the passage of a series of measures known as the Missouri Compromise. Slavery was forever prohibited in that portion of the republic lying north of 36° 30' N. latitude, and Missouri was subsequently admitted with her slaveholding constitution. The compromise was regarded as a final settlement of the slavery question, and secured about thirty years of quiet and repose for the country.

During Mr. Monroe's presidency the Spanish colonies in North and South America declared their independence of Spain, and successfully maintained it for several years. In 1822 they were recog-

nized by the United States. In his annual message to congress in 1823, Mr. Monroe gave utterance to the following principle, which has since been distinctly recognized by his successors as the unwavering policy of the United States: "That as a principle the American continents, by the free and independent position which they have assumed and maintained, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects of future colonization by any European power." This declaration is commonly known as the "Monroe Doctrine."

Mr. Monroe declined to be a candidate for re-election in 1824.



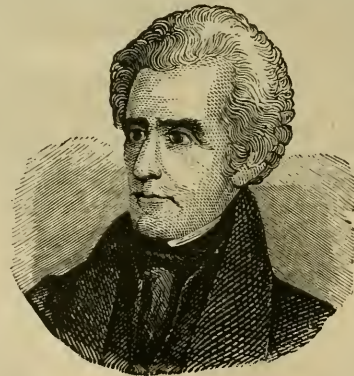
JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

The principal event of this administration was the adoption of a high tariff for the purpose of protecting American manufactures from the competition of foreign importations. This act was sustained by the northern people, who were engaged in manufactures, and for whose benefit it was adopted; but was bitterly denounced by the south, which, being an agricultural section, naturally desired the liberty of buying her goods where they could be procured best and cheapest. The division of sentiment thus produced grew more distinct every day, and brought about considerable trouble in the end.

In 1828 Andrew Jackson, of Tennessee, was elected president by the votes of the democratic party. He was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1829, and began his career by advising congress, in his annual message, not to continue the bank of the United States, the directors of which sought a renewal of its charter. He declared the law creating the bank unconstitutional. This message inaugurated a long and bitter contest between the administration and the friends of the bank, the latter party embrac-

ing almost the entire mercantile community. In 1832 congress passed a bill renewing the charter of the bank; it was vetoed by the president; and an effort to pass it over his veto failed. The charter of the bank therefore expired by law in 1836.

The tariff question assumed formidable proportions during this administration. In 1832 congress increased the rate of duties. South Carolina at once declared her intention to resist the efforts of the government to collect the increased duties in her ports, and prepared to maintain her position by force of arms. The great leader of this opposition to the government, which was known as the "Nullification Movement," was John C. Calhoun, who had a short time previous resigned the vice-presidency of the United States to become a senator from South Carolina. His principal coadjutors were Robert Y. Hayne, senator from South Carolina, and George McDuffie, the governor of the state. The party of which these brilliant men were the leaders declared that a state might at pleasure nullify any law of congress which it believed to be unconstitutional. The danger to the country was very great, and it seemed that open war would ensue between the federal government and South Carolina; for President Jackson, who had been re-elected in 1832, declared his determination to enforce the law, and to



ANDREW JACKSON.

treat the action of South Carolina as treason. He sent a ship of war to Charleston harbor, ordered General Scott to proceed to that port with all the available troops under his command, and issued a proclamation denying the right of a state to nullify the laws of congress, and warning all persons engaged in sustaining the action of South Carolina in its unlawful course that they would be held liable to prosecution under the laws for the punishment of treason. He also caused the leaders of the movement to be privately informed of his intention to

seize and hang them as soon as they should commit the first overt act against the United States. The president's firmness averted the troubles for the time. He was sustained by the great majority of the people throughout the country, and the vexed question was finally settled by the introduction into congress of a bill for the gradual reduction of the obnoxious duties. This compromise was carried through congress by Henry Clay.

the funds, and deposit them in specified state banks. Mr. McLane refused to do so, and was transferred to the state department, which was then vacant. Wm. J. Duane was then appointed secretary of the treasury, but he, too, refused to remove the funds, and was promptly deprived of his office, which was conferred upon Roger B. Taney, who executed the president's order, and transferred the funds to the banks designated by the executive. This was a



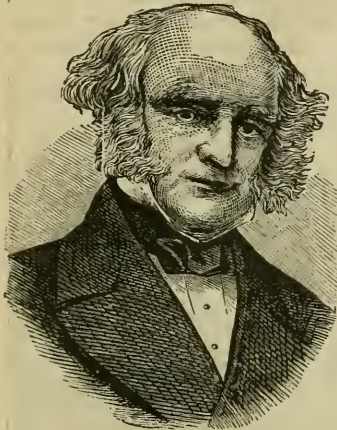
THE NEW DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The bank question came up again, just as the nullification excitement died out. The law of congress required the public funds to be deposited in the bank of the United States, the charter of which was about to expire by limitation. The president, in December, 1832, recommended the removal of these funds by act of congress, but that body refused to take this step. The president then ordered the secretary of the treasury, Mr. McLane, to remove

severe blow to the bank of the United States, and was followed by a great stringency in financial circles. The president lost many friends, and was denounced throughout the country. The senate by a vote of 26 ayes to 20 noes passed a resolution censuring his course. He was sustained by the house of representatives, whose indorsement, considering the origin of that body, was more important than the censure of the senate. In March, 1837,

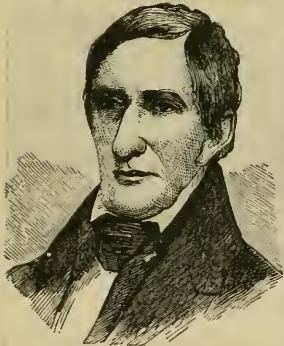
the senate did justice to the president's motives, and expunged its resolution of censure from its journal.

During President Jackson's administration the national debt was paid. The state of Arkansas was admitted into the Union in 1836, and was followed by Michigan in 1837. The governments of France, Spain,



MARTIN VAN BUREN.

Naples, Portugal and Holland were compelled to pay fair indemnities for their spoliation of American commerce during the wars of Napoleon, and important commercial treaties were negotiated with foreign countries. The Seminole Indians of Florida resisted the efforts of the government to remove them to reservations west of the Mississippi, and a war ensued with them, which lasted until 1842, and cost the country \$40,000,000.

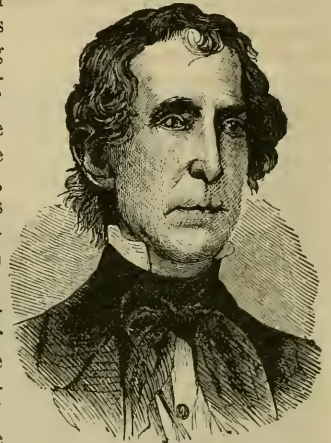


WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

In 1836 Martin Van Buren, of New York, the candidate of the democratic party, was elected president. He was inaugurated in March, 1837, and his administration had scarcely begun when the country was plunged into the severe financial crisis of 1837. The troubles resulting from this disaster lasted throughout his whole term of office, and the principal measures of his administration were designed to remedy them. The most important of these measures was the establishment of the sub-treasury of the United States, the wisdom of which has been amply demonstrated by its successful operation since that period.

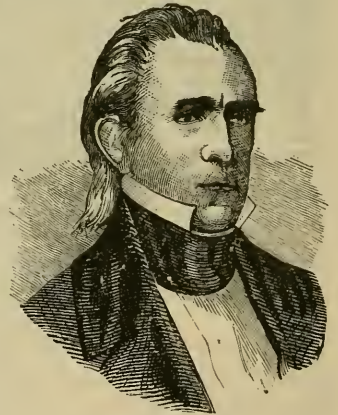
In 1840, William Henry Harrison, of

Ohio, the candidate of the whig party, was elected president. He was inaugurated in March, 1841, but was taken sick almost immediately afterwards, and died on the 4th of April. By the terms of the constitution John Tyler, of Virginia, the vice-president, became president. The whigs were in favor of a national bank, and congress passed several acts chartering such an institution, all of which were vetoed by the president, whose views upon the subject accorded with those of the democratic party rather than with the whigs. In consequence of these acts, he was abandoned by the party which had elected him, and was supported by the democracy, with which he thenceforth identified himself. During Mr. Tyler's term the question of the north-western boundary between the United States and British America was settled by a treaty with Great Britain, which was ratified by the senate on the 20th of August, 1842. During this administration, also, the republic of Texas, which had won its independence from Mexico, was annexed to the United States as a state of the Union. The annexation was opposed by the whig party and by the northern states in general, which regarded it as an effort to extend the area of negro slavery. Texas was admitted into the Union on the 1st of March, 1845. Mr. Tyler's last official act was to approve the



JOHN TYLER.

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JAMES K. POLK.

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bill for the admission of the states of Iowa and Florida into the Union on the 3d of March, 1845.

In 1844 James K. Polk, of Tennessee, was elected president. This was a democratic triumph. He was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1845. Mr. Polk found the country involved in a dispute with Mexico respecting the boundary of Texas. This dispute resulted in war between the United States and Mexico, the latter country proving the aggressor. Hostilities began on the Rio Grande between the army of General Taylor and the Mexican army of General Arista in April, 1846. General Taylor defeated the Mexicans at Palo Alto, on the 8th of May, 1846, and again at Resaca de la Palma, the next day. On being reinforced, he crossed the Rio Grande, and drove the Mexicans into the interior of their country, capturing their strong city of Monterey, in September, 1846, and defeating their best army under President Santa Anna himself at Buena Vista on the 23d of February, 1847.

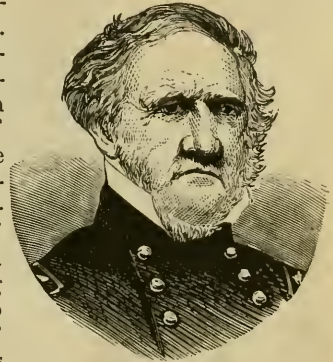
Another army, under General Winfield Scott, was directed against Vera Cruz and the city of Mexico, and troops were drawn from Taylor's army in the spring of 1847 to reinforce it. This brought Taylor's operations to a close. Scott landed his forces near Vera Cruz on the 9th of March, 1847, and captured it, after a vigorous siege, on the 29th. Moving into the interior, on the direct road to the capital, he defeated the enemy in a series of hard-fought battles, at Cerro Gordo, on the 18th of April; Contreras and Churubusco, on the 20th of August; Molino del Rey, on the 8th of September; and Chapultepec, on the 12th of September. On the 14th of September, 1847, he entered the city of Mexico in triumph, and held it until the close of the war.

In 1846 General Stephen Kearney conquered New Mexico, while Commodore Stockton and Colonel Fremont drove the Mexicans out of California and occupied that province. Kearney marched from New Mexico into California, arriving there in January, 1847; and on the 8th of February assumed the office of governor, and proclaimed the annexation of California to the United States. About the same time Colonel Doniphan, with 1,000 Missouri volunteers, made a forced march across the plains, and on the 28th of February defeated a force of 4,000 Mexicans, and cap-

tured the important city of Chihuahua. He then continued his march to Monterey and the Rio Grande.

A treaty of peace between the United States and the Mexican republic was signed at Guadalupe-Hidalgo, on the 2d of February, 1848. Mexico yielded the boundary of the Rio Grande, and ceded California and New Mexico to the United States, and the latter power agreed to pay Mexico for the territory taken from her the sum of \$15,000,000, and to assume the debts due by Mexico to American citizens, to the amount of \$3,750,000.

Great Britain claimed the territory of Oregon as a part of British America, and the federal government insisted that it was a part of the territory of the republic, and even declared its intention to go to war with Great Britain rather than sacrifice it. Nevertheless, as a measure of peace, the administration of Mr. Polk proposed to England the 49th parallel of north latitude for a boundary, the original claim of the United States having extended to the line of 54° 40'. As this compromise gave Great Britain all of Vancouver's island, it was accepted.



GENERAL WINFIELD SCOTT.

Free-trade ideas prevailed during this administration to an extent sufficient to secure a modification of the high protective tariff of 1846. In May, 1848, Wisconsin was admitted into the Union as a state.

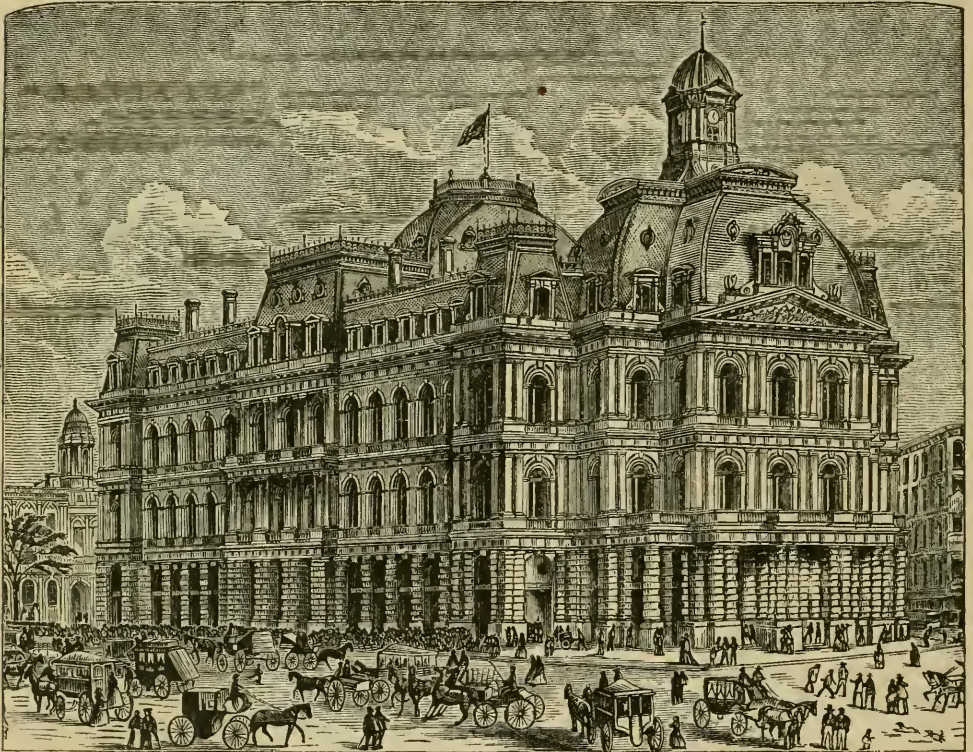
In the fall of 1848 Zachary Taylor, of Louisiana, was elected president by the whig party. He was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1849.

The slavery question now presented itself again to the country, and this time in a most aggravated form; for both the friends and enemies of that system had grown more powerful since the temporary settlement in 1820. A strong anti-slavery party had grown up at the north, which was avowedly determined to oppose the extension of slavery beyond its existing limits, and which was believed by the south to be working

for the overthrow of slavery in the states in which it already existed. The contest was resumed in congress in 1846, while measures were on foot looking to peace with Mexico, by a proposition from David Wilmot, a representative from Pennsylvania, providing that in the territory which might be acquired by the war then going on, there should be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except for crime. This measure, known as the "Wilmot Proviso," passed the house of representatives by a large majority, but the senate adjourned before

was added to the controversy by the events in California.

Gold was discovered in California in February, 1848. As soon as this discovery was made known, a large emigration to the Pacific coast began from the eastern states and from all parts of the world. In a few months the population of the territory was over 100,000. Early in 1849 it was found that an organized government was an absolute necessity. There were inhabitants enough to entitle the territory to admission into the Union as a state; and in Septem-



THE POST OFFICE, NEW YORK, IN 1878.

a vote upon it could be reached. The next year the house readopted the proviso, which was rejected by the senate. The house then abandoned it. The proviso was bitterly denounced by the southern states, which claimed that, inasmuch as they had furnished the larger number of the troops by which the war was fought and the territory won, their institutions should receive equal protection in the new territory with those of the north. The dispute became very bitter, and made the presidential election of 1848 one of the most memorable in the history of the Union. Fresh excitement

ber, 1849, a convention was held at Monterey, which adopted and submitted to congress a constitution prohibiting slavery. The southern states took strong ground against the admission of California as a free state, and even went so far as to threaten to withdraw from the Union if slavery was excluded from the territories. A disunion convention was held at Nashville, Tennessee, in 1850, by the extreme party in the south. The south demanded of congress not only the rejection of the free constitution of California, but an amendment of the constitution of the United States

which should equalize the power of the free and the slave states in the general government. New Mexico now asked admission into the Union, and Texas set up a claim to a western boundary which included a large part of New Mexico. These minor questions very greatly complicated the main issue. The country was plunged into an excitement greater than that which had prevailed in 1820, and for a while it seemed that the Union would surely be destroyed. Finally a settlement, known as the "compromise of 1850," was proposed in the senate by Henry Clay, and carried through congress by his efforts, aided by the moderate men of both sections. This compromise admitted California as a free state; erected Utah and New Mexico into territories, leaving the question of the admis-

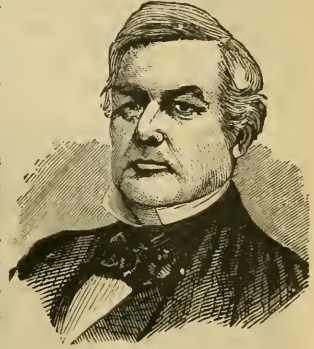


ZACHARY TAYLOR.

substituted a new law for the rendition of fugitive slaves in place of the old act, which was ineffective. The compromise was bitterly opposed by the extremists of both sections. Those of the north denounced the concessions to Texas in the boundary question, and fiercely assailed the refusal of congress to forbid slavery in the territories. The fugitive slave law was not only denounced as unchristian and unconstitutional, but was opposed and nullified on the part of the free states by a series of personal liberty acts, which were as unlawful as the disunion measures of the pro-slavery party. The southern extremists resented the admission of California as a free state, and the refusal of congress to sanction and protect slavery in the territories. Still, as it was plain that the compromise embodied the only settlement possible at the time, the great body of the nation accepted it in good faith, and the government hon-

estly executed the fugitive slave law in all cases in which its aid was invoked, putting down the resistance to it by force.

In the midst of the struggle over the compromise, General Taylor died, on the 9th of July, 1850, and was succeeded by Millard Fillmore, of New York, the vice-president, who opened his administration with a change of cabinet ministers. The new president gave his hearty support to the compromise measures,

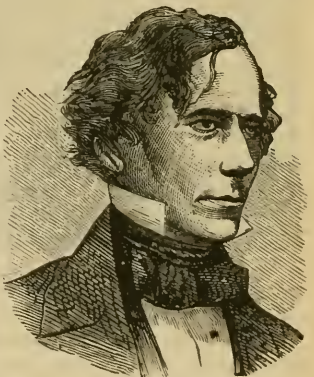


MILLARD FILLMORE.

while pending, and his instant approval upon their passage. The principal events of his term were, the invasion of Cuba by Lopez, in 1851, which was defeated by the Spaniards; the visit of Louis Kossuth to the United States in 1851; the disputes with England concerning the fisheries, in 1852, which were satisfactorily settled; and the expedition of Commodore Perry to Japan, by means of which an important treaty was negotiated with that country, and the Japanese ports opened to the commerce of the world.

The slavery question entered largely into the presidential campaign of 1852, and so greatly weakened the whig party, that the democrats were enabled to elect their candidate, Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire.

General Pierce was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1853. His administration is memorable for the violent political con-



FRANKLIN PIERCE.

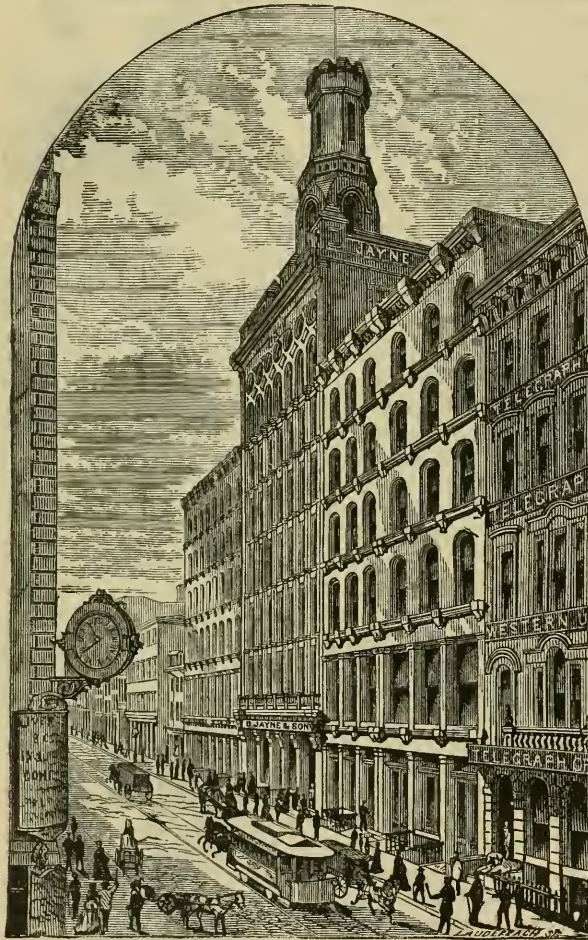
tests which prevailed during its term. One of its first measures was the settlement of a dispute with Mexico by purchasing the territory of Arizona. In 1853 Jefferson

Davis, the secretary of war, inaugurated the surveys for a railway to the Pacific by sending out an expedition of engineers of the United States army for that purpose. In 1853 Stephen A. Douglas, a senator from Illinois, introduced a bill organizing the territories of Kansas and Nebraska, lying west of the Missouri river, and north of the line of $36^{\circ} 30'$ N. latitude, in which region the act of 1820 forever prohibited

senate by a vote of 37 to 14, and the house by a vote of 113 to 100, and received the executive approval on the 31st of May, 1854. The passage of the bill was followed by great agitation throughout the country. It greatly increased the strength of the anti-slavery party, which now began to be known as the republican party, and drove many democrats into its ranks. The act left the territories free to decide between slavery and free labor, and thus opened the way for a long and bloody warfare in Kansas, which was begun by the pro-slavery party for the purpose of obtaining possession of the territory, and was continued until the outbreak of the civil war. An effort was made by President Pierce to purchase Cuba from Spain, but that power declined to sell the island. An expedition of filibusters, under General William Walker, succeeded in conquering the Central American state of Nicaragua. Walker sent an envoy to Washington, who was formally recognized by the president.

In the fall of 1856 the democrats elected James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, president. In this campaign John C. Fremont, the candidate of the republican or anti-slavery party, received a popular vote of 1,341,264, and 114 votes in the electoral college.

Mr. Buchanan's administration was entirely southern in its sympathies, and was marked by a constant struggle in congress and throughout the country over the slavery question. The war in Kansas went on with great bitterness through this whole term, the power of the federal government being generally cast against the free settlers, who were forced to take extraordinary measures for their defence. An effort was



CHESTNUT STREET, PHILADELPHIA, IN 1878.

slavery. This new bill repealed the Missouri compromise act of 1820, and reopened the slavery question in that region. The administration of Mr. Pierce and the leaders of the democratic party supported the measure, which was opposed by the great mass of the people of the free states without regard to party, as a violation of the plighted faith of the nation. The bill was hotly debated in congress, but passed the

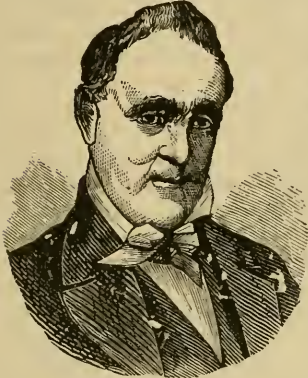
made to force a pro-slavery constitution upon the territory, and it split the democratic party into two wings—the larger of which, led by Stephen A. Douglas, united with the republicans in opposing this constitution; while the smaller, led by the extreme southern men, in congress, received the aid of the administration, and favored the adoption of the constitution.

In 1858 Minnesota was admitted into

the Union as a state, and was followed by Oregon in 1859. In 1857 the Mormon settlers of Utah territory took up arms against the authority of the general government. The rebellion continued for some time, and a military force was sent across

the plains to suppress it; but the troubles were settled without bloodshed.

In October, 1859, John Brown, with a small band of followers, seized the United States arsenal at Harper's Ferry, and endeavored to incite the slaves of Virginia to insurrection. Brown and his men were captured by the United States troops, several of them being killed by the soldiers in the fight. The survivors were surrendered by the federal government to the state of Virginia for trial, and were convicted and hanged. The "John Brown raid" was regarded by the south as incontestable evidence of the determination of the north to destroy the institutions of the south under the cover of the Union, while at the north a formidable party denounced the execution of Brown as a murder, and assailed the south most bitterly for it.



JAMES BUCHANAN.

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CHAPTER IV.

THE CIVIL WAR.

The Presidential Election of 1860—The Sectional Issue—Abraham Lincoln Elected President—Secession of the Cotton States—Anderson Occupies Fort Sumter—Position of the Federal Government—Course of Mr. Buchanan—The Peace Congress—The Confederate States—Jefferson Davis Chosen President—Inauguration of President Lincoln—Fall of Fort Sumter—The War Begun—Secession of the Border States—The Battles of Rich Mountain and Bethel Church—Battle of Bull Run—The War in Missouri—Battle of Wilson's Creek—The Confederates Driven Out of Missouri—Capture of Fort Hatteras and Port Royal—Mason and Slidell—Battle of Mill Spring—Capture of Forts Henry and Donelson—Battle of Shiloh—Loss of Island No. 10 and Fort Pillow by the Confederates—Bragg's Kentucky Campaign—Battles of Murfreesboro' and Stone River—Campaign in North Mississippi—The War in Arkansas—Capture of Roanoke Island—Fall of New Orleans—The War in Virginia—Siege of Yorktown

—The Seven Days' Battles—Defeat of General Pope's Army—Lee Invades Maryland—Capture of Harper's Ferry—Battles of South Mountain and Antietam—McClellan Removed from Command—Battle of Fredericksburg—Battle of Chancellorsville—Death of Stonewall Jackson—Invasion of Pennsylvania—Battle of Gettysburg—Retreat of Lee—Capture of Vicksburg—The Mississippi Reopened—Battle of Chickamauga—The Chattanooga Campaign—The Siege of Knoxville—Siege of Charleston—The Emancipation Proclamation—The Red River Expedition—The War in Virginia—Battles of the Wilderness and Spotsylvania Court-House—Second Battle of Cold Harbor—Grant Crosses the James River—Siege of Petersburg—The Valley Campaign—Sheridan's Successes—The War in Georgia—The Atlanta Campaign—Johnston Removed—Fall of Atlanta—Hood Attacks Nashville—Sherman's March to the Sea—Battle of Mobile Bay—Destruction of the "Alabama"—Re-election of Lincoln—The Hampton Roads Conference—Capture of Fort Fisher—Sherman Marches Through the Carolinas—Charleston Evacuated—Battles of Bentonville and Averasboro'—Grant Moves—Battle of Five Forks—Evacuation of Richmond and Petersburg—Surrender of General Lee—The Other Confederate Armies Surrender—Assassination of President Lincoln—Capture of Jefferson Davis.

THE presidential election of 1860 turned mainly upon the question of slavery in the territories. The democratic party, already weakened by the Kansas question, now finally split into two fragments. The larger wing nominated Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, as its candidate. It held that congress had no power either to sanction or forbid slavery in the territories, and that the question could be decided only by the people thereof, who were the most interested in it. The smaller wing chose John C. Breckenridge, of Kentucky, as its candidate, and declared it to be the express duty of congress to sanction and protect slavery in all the territories of the republic, and maintained that the constitution, of its own force, carried slavery into them. The republican party nominated Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, as its candidate. This party denied all intention to interfere with the domestic institutions of any of the states of the Union, but avowed its determination to prevent the introduction of slavery into the territories by congressional legislation, and denounced as false the doctrine that the constitution established slavery in any part of the Union. It asserted the right of every community to manage its domestic affairs in its own way, and denounced the invasion of Virginia by John Brown as wicked and unjustifiable. A fourth party, known as

the constitutional union party, nominated John Bell, of Tennessee, and adopted the following vague and indefinite platform: "The union, the constitution, and the enforcement of the laws." The contest was bitter beyond all precedent. It resulted in the election of Abraham Lincoln by a plurality in the popular vote, and a majority of fifty-seven votes over all his competitors in the electoral college.

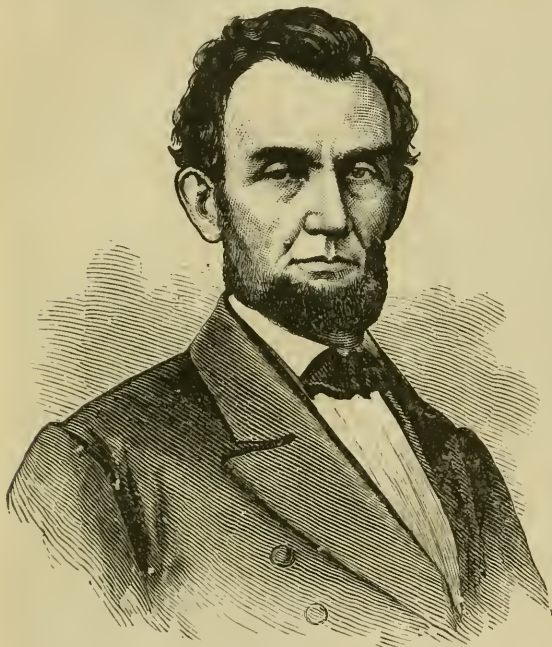
The southern states had threatened to withdraw from the Union in the event of the election of a president hostile to slavery, and now proceeded to put their threats into execution. As soon as the election

their troops, except Fort Sumter, in Charleston harbor, and Fort Pickens, on Santa Rosa island, near Pensacola, Florida. Fort Sumter was occupied by a garrison of eighty men, under Major Robert Anderson, who had originally occupied Fort Moultrie, on Sullivan's island. On the night of December 25th, 1860, Anderson evacuated Fort Moultrie and threw his command into Fort Sumter.

The federal government was at this time almost helpless. The army, but 16,000 strong, was posted on the Indian frontier, and the available vessels of the navy were nearly all in foreign waters. Many of the most prominent officials, including several of the cabinet ministers, were in open sympathy with the seceded states, and the president seemed only anxious to delay any definite action in the matter until the inauguration of his successor. His recommendations to congress were not equal to the emergency. He was in favor of conceding to the south everything but separate independence; not seeing that the leaders of the secession movement would accept nothing but separation, and by his timidity lost the advantages which the government would have obtained by a bold, firm course. Still he refused to yield to the pressure brought to bear upon him for the purpose of inducing him to surrender Fort Sumter to the state of South Carolina. He also refused to sell the fort to the state, or to order Anderson back to Fort Moultrie, as he was urged to do.

Various plans were proposed in congress and by the states for a settlement of the national troubles, but none were attended with success. A convention of delegates from the border states met at Washington in February, 1861, for the purpose of devising a plan of settlement, but adjourned after a session of three weeks, without having accomplished anything. Early in January, 1861, the steamer "Star of the West" was despatched to Charleston by the government with reinforcements and supplies for Fort Sumter. She attempted to enter the harbor on the 9th, and was fired upon and turned back by the South Carolina batteries.

On the 4th of February, 1861, a convention of delegates from the six seceded states met at Montgomery, Alabama, and organ-



ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

of Mr. Lincoln was definitely ascertained, the legislature of South Carolina summoned a convention of the people of that state, which met on the 17th of December, 1860. This convention adopted an ordinance of secession, and withdrew the state from the Union on the 20th of December. The secession of South Carolina was followed by that of the following states: Mississippi, on the 9th of January, 1861; Florida, January 10th; Alabama, January 11th; Georgia, January 19th; Louisiana, January 26th; and Texas, February 1st. The forts, arsenals, and other public property of the United States in these states, were seized by the state authorities and held by

ized the new republic of the confederate states of America, and on the 8th elected Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, president of the provisional government.

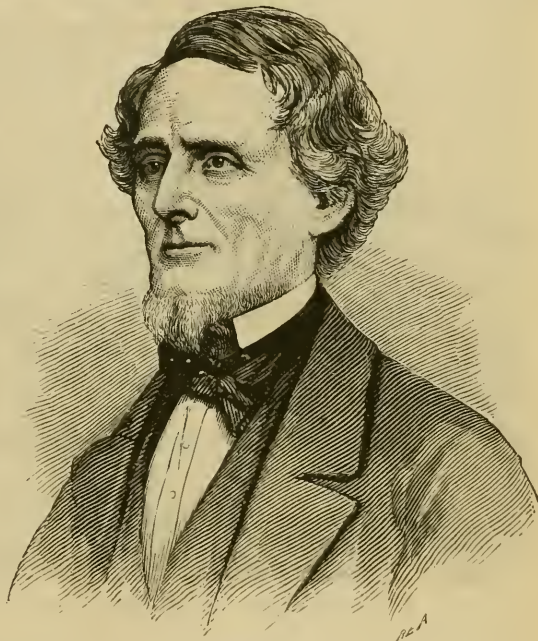
On the 4th of March, 1861, Abraham Lincoln was inaugurated President of the United States. The first act of the new administration was to send an expedition to Charleston harbor for the relief of Fort Sumter. This expedition sailed from New York and Norfolk on the 7th of April, and Governor Pickens of South Carolina was at once informed of its departure. The confederate government thereupon ordered General Beauregard, commanding its forces at Charleston, to reduce Fort Sumter. The bombardment was begun on the morning of the 12th of April, and was continued until the afternoon of the 13th, when the fort surrendered.

Upon the fall of Fort Sumter President Lincoln issued his proclamation for 75,000 troops to aid in suppressing the rebellion against the laws of the United States. The northern and western states responded to it with enthusiasm. The state of Virginia now sided with the south, and seceded from the Union on the 17th of April, and was followed by Arkansas on the 6th of May, North Carolina on the 20th of May, and Tennessee on the 8th of June. These states subsequently became members of the confederate states. Harper's Ferry and the navy yard at Portsmouth, in Virginia, were seized by the state forces. The western part of Virginia refused to act with the eastern counties, and proclaimed its independence of the old state. It was sustained in this action by the federal government, and organized the state of West Virginia, which was admitted into the Union in 1863. Kentucky and Missouri wished to remain neutral in the contest, but neither the federal nor confederate governments were either willing or able to respect their neutrality. The prominent points in Virginia were occupied by the confederate forces, and the federal government assembled an army near Washington and others on the Ohio and at commanding points in the west. Vigorous measures were introduced and carried out with firmness for the purpose of checking the disaffection in Maryland, Missouri, and Kentucky.

Hostilities began in Western Virginia.

The confederate force in that section was defeated at Philippi on the 3d of June, and at Rich Mountain on the 8th, by the federal troops under General McClellan, and driven east of the mountains, with the loss of its commander, General Garnett.

On the 10th of June a federal column advanced from Fortress Monroe, and attacked the confederates under General Magruder, at Bethel Church, on the peninsula below Richmond. This was but the opening of hostilities in the east. The federal government had collected near Washington a strong army under General McDowell, and was preparing for an ad-



JEFFERSON DAVIS.

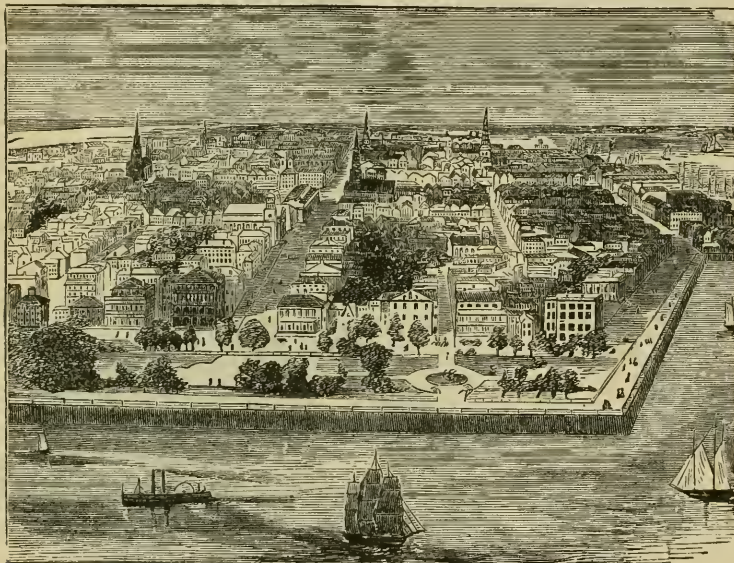
vance upon the confederate army, under General Beauregard, at Manassas Junction, in Virginia. A column of 20,000 federal troops, under General Patterson, was sent into the valley of Virginia to prevent the confederate force under General Johnston, stationed at Harper's Ferry, from assisting Beauregard. On the 17th of July General McDowell, with over 50,000 men, advanced from Washington upon Beauregard's army, which held the line of Bull Run, in advance of Manassas Junction. Johnston, upon learning of this movement, skilfully eluded Patterson's army, and marched to Bull Run with the bulk of his forces. On the 21st of July McDowell attacked the

confederates, now about 31,000 strong, but his army was routed and driven back upon Washington with heavy loss.

The confederates made no effort to advance upon Washington, and the federal government set to work to repair its reverses. The command of the federal army was conferred upon General McClellan, and a call was issued for 500,000 fresh troops. A powerful force, known as the army of the Potomac, was organized near Washington. The confederate government in the meantime had been removed to Richmond, Virginia, in May, and that city remained the capital of the confederacy until the close of the war. The remainder of the year

troops under General McCulloch, at Wilson's Creek, near Springfield. The Union army was repulsed, and General Lyon was killed. On the 20th of September General Price captured Lexington, Missouri, after a short siege. General Fremont was now appointed to command the federal forces in Missouri, but before he could accomplish anything was removed and succeeded by General Halleck, who drove Price's army out of Missouri into Arkansas. The year closed with Missouri in possession of the federal forces.

The confederates early in the summer of 1861 occupied Columbus, on the Mississippi river, and Bowling Green, in the central



CHARLESTON, SOUTH CAROLINA, IN 1878.

part of Kentucky. A small force was stationed at Belmont, on the Missouri shore, opposite Columbus. It was attacked by a federal column from Cairo under General Grant on the 7th of November. Grant was repulsed and forced to return to Cairo.

At the outset of the war the federal government proclaimed the whole coast of the southern states in a state of blockade. In order to make this effective, it was necessary to secure

the principal harbors on the coast, and during the war successive expeditions were sent against them. The first of these was despatched in August, 1861, and captured the works at Hatteras inlet, on the North Carolina coast, thus securing an entrance to Albemarle and Pamlico sounds. On the 7th of November Port Royal, in South Carolina, was reduced.

The confederate government for some time cherished the hope of receiving assistance from France and England, and for the purpose of securing this aid, commissioners were sent to those countries in the fall of 1861. They were arrested on board the English mail-steamer "Trent" on the high seas, by Captain Wilkes of the United States steamer "San Jacinto," and taken to Boston,

was passed by both sides in Virginia in preparing for a fresh struggle in the following spring, and in the winter of 1861-62 the confederate government sent a force under General T. J. Jackson to hold the valley of Virginia. On the 21st of October a federal force of 2,000 men under Colonel Baker was defeated in an attempt to drive in the southern left wing at Leesburg, on the Potomac. Colonel Baker was killed.

In Missouri General Lyon, an energetic officer, collected a force of Union troops, and drove the governor and state forces out of St. Louis and Jefferson City into the southwestern part of the state. On the 10th of August Lyon attacked the Missouri forces under General Price, which had been reinforced by several thousand confederate

where they were imprisoned. Great Britain demanded their release, and they were liberated by the federal government, which disavowed the action of Captain Wilkes. The commissioners repaired to London and Paris, but neither Great Britain nor France would receive them in their official capacity.

The eastern portion of Tennessee did not sympathize in the secession movement, but remained loyal to the Union. In the autumn of 1861 the East Tennesseans rose in insurrection against the confederate government, and burned the bridges of the railways connecting Virginia with the more southern states. During the war East Tennessee remained a constant menace to the confederacy.

The year 1862 found both governments with powerful armies, prepared to prosecute the war upon a gigantic scale. Hostilities opened in the west. General George H. Thomas, on the 19th of January, 1862, defeated General Zollicoffer at Mill Spring, in western Kentucky. This success drove back the right of the confederate line in that state. It was followed by other successes. General U. S. Grant, aided by a fleet of gunboats under Commodore Foote, captured Fort Henry, on the Tennessee river, on the 6th of February, and Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland, on the 16th. These were the most important successes of the war, and compelled the confederates to abandon their position in Kentucky. Bowling Green and Columbus were evacuated, and Nashville fell into the hands of the federal army under General Buell. General Beauregard, commanding the confederate forces at Columbus, fell back to Corinth, an important railroad centre in northern Mississippi, and was subsequently joined there by the army of General Sidney Johnston, which had performed a successful flank march from Nashville, after the loss of Fort Donelson. General Grant had advanced to Pittsburgh Landing on the Tennessee, and was encamped there, awaiting the arrival of Buell's army from Nashville. On the 6th of April he was attacked at Shiloh Church, near Pittsburgh Landing, by the army of General Sidney Johnston, and after a desperate struggle was driven back to the Tennessee. General Johnston was mortally wounded at the close of the day, and the command passed to General Beauregard, who failed to follow up his success. During the night Grant was reinforced by Buell's army, and the next morning at-

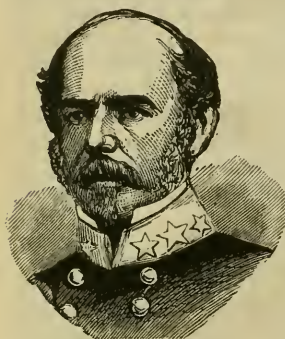
tacked Beauregard, and drove him back to Corinth. Another success was won by the Union arms about the same time in the capture of island No. 10, below Columbus, which occurred on the 7th of March. The Union fleet then descended the Mississippi to Fort Pillow, where its progress was barred by the confederates. General Halleck now assumed the command of the forces of Grant and Buell, and laid siege to Corinth, which was evacuated by the confederates on the 29th of May. The loss of Corinth compelled the confederates to evacuate Fort Pillow. They did so on the 4th of June. The Union fleet then descended the river to Memphis, and on the 7th of June attacked and destroyed the confederate flotilla above that city. Memphis at once surrendered, and the Mississippi was opened as far as Vicksburg.

After the loss of Corinth the confederates assembled an army of 50,000 men in East Tennessee, and in the hope of restoring their falling fortunes invaded Kentucky. They moved in two columns—one from Knoxville, under General E. Kirby Smith, and the main body from Chattanooga, under General Bragg. General Buell fell back from Nashville into Kentucky, and reached Louisville in time to prevent its capture. On the 30th of August General Smith won a victory over a federal force at Richmond, and occupied Frankfort and Lexington, and threatened Cincinnati. Learning that a strong force was assembling for the protection of Cincinnati, General Smith fell back, and joined Bragg at Frankfort on the 4th of October. Finding it impossible to hold Kentucky, Bragg fell back slowly, taking with him a train of wagons forty miles long, loaded with plunder. He was followed leisurely by Buell, who made no serious effort to intercept his retreat. On the 8th of October an indecisive battle was fought at Perryville, and Bragg resumed his retreat to Murfreesboro', Tennessee, about thirty miles beyond Nashville. There he was attacked on the 31st of December by the federal army, which had been taken from Buell and placed under command of General Rosecrans. Rosecrans was driven back with heavy loss. He took up a new position on Stone river, and on the 2d of January, 1863, was attacked by Bragg, who met with a terrible repulse. Bragg then fell back to Tullahoma, about thirty miles from Murfreesboro'.

In the meantime, while Bragg was in

Kentucky, the confederates had attempted to drive Grant's army out of northern Mississippi. On the 19th of September their army under General Price was defeated at Iuka, and on the 4th of October Price and Van Dorn, having united their forces, attacked Corinth, which was held by an equal federal force under General Rosecrans. They were repulsed with great slaughter, and driven southward for thirty miles. Towards the close of the year General Grant undertook an expedition against Vicksburg, Mississippi, but it proved a failure.

As we have stated, the confederates were driven out of Missouri into Arkansas at



GEN. JOS. E. JOHNSTON.

the close of 1861. General Van Dorn was placed in command of their army, and on the 7th of March, 1862, attacked the federal army under General Curtis at Pea Ridge, in the northwestern part of Arkansas. Curtis was driven back the first day, but taking up a new position during the night, repulsed the confederates on the 8th. Van Dorn and Price with their troops were soon after ordered east of the Mississippi, and bore the brunt of the campaign in northern Mississippi in the summer and fall of 1862.

The federal government continued its efforts to capture the prominent points on the southern coast. A powerful expedition under General Burnside was sent to the coast of North Carolina. On the 8th of February it captured Roanoke island, commanding Albemarle and Pamlico sounds, and on the 10th defeated and destroyed the confederate squadron in Albemarle sound. On the 14th of March Newbern was taken, and on the 25th of April Fort Macon, at the mouth of Beaufort harbor, one of the strongest works on the coast, surrendered after a short siege. With the exception of the mouth of the Cape Fear, the whole North Carolina coast was now in possession of the Union forces. Important points were captured on the Florida coast by expeditions from Port Royal.

An expedition was sent against New Orleans under Commodore Farragut and General Butler. Having failed to reduce Forts Jackson and St. Philip, on the lower Mississippi, by a bombardment, Farragut forced his way by them with his fleet on the morning of April 24th, and destroyed the confederate fleet, two of which were ironclads, in the river above. He then ascended to New Orleans, which was surrendered to him on the 25th. On the 28th Forts Jackson and St. Philip surrendered. The loss of New Orleans greatly disheartened the south, and placed the lower Mississippi in the hands of the federal forces. On the 11th of April Fort Pulaski, at the mouth of the Savannah river, surrendered to the federal forces after a bombardment of fifteen days. This capture closed the port of Savannah to the confederates.

Matters in Virginia were of the highest importance. On the 8th of March General Johnston evacuated his position at Centreville, and fell back to the Rapidan. McClellan now determined to assail Richmond from a new direction, and moved his army by water from Washington to Fortress Monroe, intending to advance upon the confederate capital by way of the peninsula between the York and James rivers. On the 4th and 5th of April he attacked the position of General Magruder at Yorktown, but was repulsed, and Magruder maintained his line at all points until the arrival of Johnston's army from the Rapidan put an end to his danger. McClellan then laid siege to Yorktown.

In the meantime a conflict, most important in its results, had occurred in Hampton Roads, at the mouth of the James river. The confederates had prepared a powerful iron-clad ram, called the "Virginia," which, on the 8th of March, steamed out of Norfolk into Hampton Roads, and destroyed the "Cumberland" and "Congress" men-of-war, and threatened to destroy the whole federal fleet. The "Virginia" withdrew at nightfall, and returned the next morning to complete her work. During the night of the 8th, however, the federal iron-clad "Monitor" arrived at Fortress Monroe on her trial trip from New York. On the appearance of the "Virginia" on the 9th, the "Monitor" at once engaged her, and drove her back to Norfolk with heavy loss. This was the first engagement ever fought between iron-clads, and revolutionized the naval system of the entire world.

On the 3d of May Johnston's army fell back from the lines of Yorktown towards Richmond. McClellan at once moved forward in pursuit. An encounter occurred at Williamsburg on the 5th, but Johnston accomplished his movement without further molestation, and took position behind the Chickahominy in front of Richmond. The federal army advanced to the north bank of that river. The city of Norfolk was abandoned upon the retreat from the peninsula, and the iron-clad "Virginia" was blown up. McClellan, towards the last of May, threw his left wing across the Chickahominy. It was attacked by General Johnston on the 31st of May, and was defeated with heavy loss at Seven Pines. General Johnston was wounded in this engagement, and was succeeded by General R. E. Lee, who determined to drive McClellan away from the Chickahominy. McClellan in the meantime had been promised the assistance of McDowell's army of 40,000 men, which had been retained before Washington for the protection of the capital, and he prepared to attack Richmond immediately upon the arrival of this force.

To prevent the execution of this plan General Jackson was ordered to drive the federal forces out of the valley of Virginia, and threaten Washington. He accomplished this object by one of the most brilliant campaigns of the war. He crossed the mountains and drove back the army of General Fremont at the village of McDowell in West Virginia, on the 8th of May, and returning to the valley with all speed defeated Banks' army in a series of encounters, and drove him across the Potomac. General McDowell's march to McClellan's assistance was suspended by the federal government, and he was ordered to co-operate with Fremont in an effort to destroy Jackson. Jackson by a rapid and skilful march eluded his pursuers until he had reached a point from which his line of retreat was safe, and then turned upon them and defeated Fremont at Cross Keys on the 8th of June, and Shields at Port Republic the next day. Having thus prevented the junction of his enemies, he hastened to the Chickahominy to as-

sist General Lee in his attack upon McClellan.

General McClellan, upon the failure of McDowell to join him, became alarmed for the safety of his communications with his base at the head of the York river, and resolved to abandon them and establish a new base on the James river. Before he could accomplish this his right wing at Mechanicsville was attacked by General Lee on the 25th of June, and driven in upon his centre at Cold Harbor. He was attacked at the latter place the next day by the combined forces of Lee and Jackson,

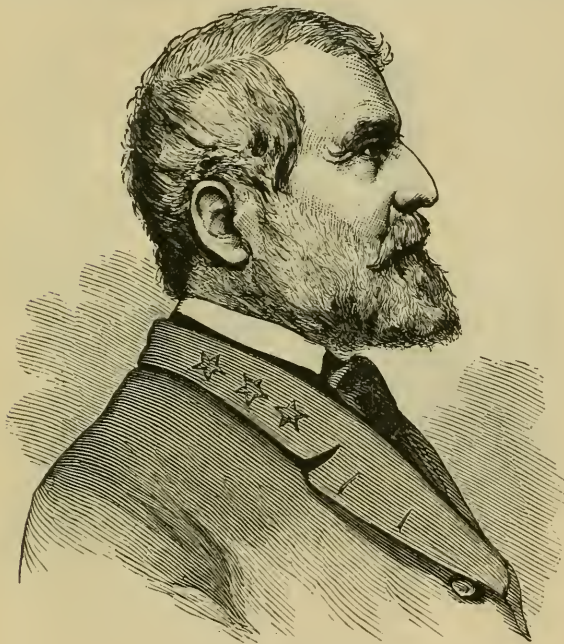


LIEUT.-GEN. T. J. JACKSON.

and was driven across the Chickahominy into the strongly fortified position of his left wing. He now destroyed his communications with the York river, and on the 28th began his retreat to the James, through White Oak Swamp. On the 29th his rear-guard under General Sumner repulsed an attack of the confederates at Savage Station. On the 30th the battle of Frazier's Farm was fought, in which McClellan held his ground until his army was safely out of the swamp. On the 1st of July the confederates made their final attack upon the impregnable position of the federal army at Malvern Hill, and were repulsed with severe loss. The federal army now took

position at Harrison's Landing, on the James river, under the protection of the fleet, which had ascended the James.

The federal government acted with great vigor in its efforts to repair its losses. Six hundred thousand fresh troops were raised in three months, and a large army was collected in northern Virginia under General Pope. A few weeks later McClellan was drawn from his position on the James, and ordered to reinforce Pope. General Lee had sent Jackson's corps to the Rappahannock to watch Pope, and Jackson had defeated the advanced forces of that army at Cedar Mountain on the 9th of August.



GENERAL ROBERT E. LEE.

Upon the withdrawal of McClellan from the James, Lee joined Jackson with his whole force, and attacked Pope, hoping to defeat him before he could be joined by McClellan. He penetrated to his rear, destroyed his depot of supplies at Manassas, and defeated him in a series of battles on the 28th, 29th, and 30th of August—the last engagement, the second battle of Bull Run, being one of the best fought fields of the war—and drove him within the lines of Washington.

Having defeated Pope, Lee crossed the Potomac and entered Maryland. On the 6th of September he occupied Frederick,

and on the 15th Jackson's corps captured Harper's Ferry and its garrison of 11,000 men. General McClellan was restored to the command of the army of the Potomac after Pope's defeat. He reorganized the beaten force on the march, and promptly advanced against Lee, whom he encountered at South Mountain, where the latter had taken position to await the issue of Jackson's attack on Harper's Ferry. McClellan attacked him on the 14th of September, and forced him to fall back. Lee took position behind Antietam creek, where he was joined by Jackson's troops on the morning of the 17th. On the 17th

McClellan attacked the confederate army, and the battle lasted throughout the day. Lee held his position that day and throughout the 18th, and during the night of the 18th retreated into Virginia. McClellan followed leisurely, and moved towards the Rappahannock. On the 7th of November he was removed from his command, and was succeeded by General Burnside. Burnside moved towards Fredericksburg, and Lee took position on the heights in the rear of that town. He was attacked in this position by the federal army on the 13th of December, and repulsed every assault. Burnside retreated across the Rappahannock, and the campaign closed.

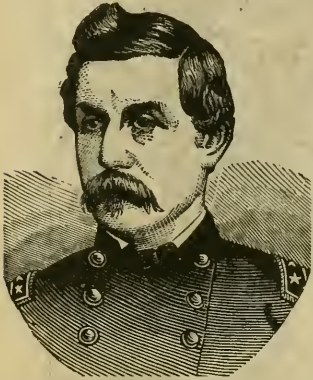
The defeated commander was now removed at his own request, and was succeeded by General Hooker. Towards the last of April, 1863, Hooker, whose army numbered 120,000 men, and was in splendid condition,

crossed the Rappahannock to attack Lee, who had been weakened by the withdrawal of Longstreet's corps for service in lower Virginia. The southern army numbered 50,000 men. Lee, whose situation, perilous in the extreme, demanded the utmost boldness, attacked Hooker, and drove him from the entrenched position he had taken at Chancellorsville to the banks of the Rappahannock, on the 2d and 3d of May. He then turned upon the column of General Sedgewick, which had crossed the Rappahannock and carried his old position at Fredericksburg, and defeated it and compelled it to recross that stream on the 4th,



BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG.

and then moved against Hooker again. The federal commander, however, retreated across the Rappahannock with his main body on the night of the 5th, having lost 12,000 men. The confederates bought their



MAJ.-GEN. GEO. B. McCLELLAN.

victory dearly in the loss of Gen. (Stonewall) Jackson, one of their ablest leaders, who was mortally wounded in the first day's attack. The confederates followed up their victory by an invasion of the north by the army of General Lee, 80,000 strong. The Potomac was crossed on the 22d of June. The federal army followed, moving east of the mountains, and on the march General Hooker, unable to agree with the war department on a plan of operations, resigned his command, and was succeeded by General George G. Meade. Both armies now moved upon Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, where, ignorant of each other's designs, they met on the 1st of July. Each took up a strong position with the town between them, and on the 3d the confederates made a tremendous attack upon the federal line, and were repulsed with terrible loss. On the night of the 4th Lee withdrew from Gettysburg, and retreated to the Potomac, which he recrossed on the 13th and 14th



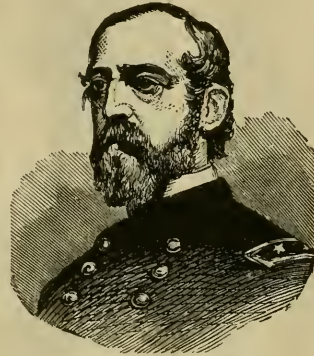
MAJ.-GEN. JOS. HOOKER.

without serious opposition from the federal army. He retreated slowly to the Rapidan, followed by the army of the Potomac. The two forces passed the winter on the banks of this stream.

In the west and southwest the federal arms were equally successful. The army of General Grant crossed the Mississippi below Vicksburg on the 1st of May, and thrust itself boldly between the army col-

lected at Jackson by General Joseph E. Johnston and that of Vicksburg. On the 14th of May Johnston was driven from Jackson, and Grant then turned upon Pemberton, defeated him at Champion Hills on the 16th, and again at the Big Black on the 17th, and drove him within the defences of Vicksburg, which were invested by the federal army. On the 4th of July Vicksburg, with its garrison of 30,000 men, surrendered to General Grant, and on the 8th Port Hudson, lower down the Mississippi, surrendered to General Banks. These victories deprived the confederates of their last hold upon the Mississippi, and with the defeat of Lee's army at Gettysburg, were decisive of the war.

After the battle of Stone river there was no movement of importance until the fall, when Rosecrans advanced against Bragg, who had occupied Chattanooga. Bragg



MAJ.-GEN. GEO. G. MEADE.

fell back into Georgia, where he was heavily reinforced, and then wheeled upon Rosecrans, who had followed in pursuit, and defeated him at Chickamauga on the 19th and 20th of September. Rose-

crans retreated to Chattanooga, which was at once invested by Bragg's army. The federal forces were reduced to great hardships by a scarcity of provisions. After the fall of Vicksburg Rosecrans was relieved of his command. General Thomas succeeded him in command of the army of the Cumberland, and General Grant was given the supreme command of the western armies, and ordered to relieve the army of the Cumberland. He was heavily reinforced for this purpose, and about the middle of November was before Chattanooga with his forces. On the 23d of November General Thomas, by a sudden sortie from Chattanooga, captured the important position of Orchard Knob. On the 24th Hooker stormed and carried Lookout Mountain, and on the 25th Bragg's army was driven from its last position at Mission Ridge. Bragg retreated into Georgia, and was



CAPTURE OF LOOKOUT MOUNTAIN.

soon after succeeded by General Jos. E. Johnston.

In the summer of 1863 General Burnside, with a force of 25,000 men, entered East Tennessee from Kentucky, and occupied Knoxville. After the battle of Chickamauga, Bragg sent Longstreet's corps to drive the federals out of East Tennessee. Longstreet succeeded in confining Burnside to the defences of Knoxville, and besieged him there. Though reduced almost to starvation, Burnside held out reso-

On the 7th of April Dupont endeavored to force his way into the harbor, but was driven back by the southern batteries. Early in July a force of land troops, under General Gilmore, laid siege to Fort Wagner on Morris' island. It was evacuated on the night of the 6th of September, just as the final assault was about to be made by the besiegers. From the position thus gained a heavy fire was maintained upon Fort Sumter by the federal guns, and shells were thrown into Charleston.



ATTACK ON FORT SUMTER BY THE MONITOR FLEET.

lutely, and after the relief of Chattanooga, Grant sent Sherman's army to his assistance. Upon the approach of this force Longstreet raised the siege of Knoxville and retreated into Virginia.

On the 1st of January, 1863, the confederates recaptured Galveston, which had fallen into the hands of the federal forces in the autumn of 1862. Their efforts to recover Arkansas were not successful.

A powerful naval expedition, under Admiral Dupont, was sent against Charleston.

On the 1st of January, 1863, President Lincoln issued a proclamation declaring all the slaves within the limits of the southern states free from that date.

The year 1864 opened with an expedition from New Orleans, under General Banks and Admiral Porter, to the rich region known as the Red river country. Banks was defeated at Sabine Cross-Roads, on the 8th of April, and was forced to retreat. He repulsed an attack at Pleasant Hill on the 9th, but continued his re-



BATTLE OF SPOTTSYLVANIA COURT-HOUSE.

treat, and the expedition proved a total failure.

In March General U. S. Grant was made lieutenant-general and given the chief command of the armies of the United States. He established his head-quarters with the



MAJ.-GEN. PHIL SHERIDAN.

the direction of the campaign against General Johnston in Georgia.

On the 4th of May the army of the Potomac, 140,000 strong, crossed the Rapidan under General Grant's orders. On the 5th it encountered the confederate army, under General Lee, in the Wilderness, and a severe battle ensued, which was continued the next day. Failing to force Lee back by a direct attack, Grant turned his right flank, and moved to Spottsylvania Court-House. Lee reached that point before him and took position on the heights around it. Between the 9th and 12th of May Grant made several determined efforts to dislodge Lee, but failed to do so, and on the 21st renewed his flank movement in the direction of the North Anna river. Arriving there on the 23d he found Lee's army in position behind that stream. Finding the confederate position too strong to be attacked, he moved, on the 26th, to the Chickahominy. Lee followed him and occupied a strong position at Cold Harbor. On the 3d of June Grant attempted to carry the southern works by storm, but was repulsed with a loss of 13,000 men, making his total loss over 60,000 men since the opening of the campaign. He again moved around Lee's right, and, crossing the James river, at Wilcox's Landing, on the 15th and 16th of June, advanced upon Petersburg, and attacked that city. Being unable to carry the confederate works, he laid siege to Petersburg. His right extended across the Appomattox, and rested

on the James, and was subsequently prolonged to the north side of the James. His left was gradually extended during the year for the purpose of seizing the Weldon road, one of Lee's lines of communication with North Carolina.

The federal plan of campaign included the occupation of the valley of Virginia and the seizure of the railway connecting Virginia with East Tennessee and Georgia. General Sigel, with an army of 10,000 men, was charged with the execution of this task, but was defeated by General Breckenridge at New Market, on the 15th of May, and driven down the valley. General Hunter succeeded him in the command, and forced his way to the vicinity of Lynchburg. General Lee became alarmed for the safety of that place, and sent General Early to its relief with 12,000 men. Early drove Hunter into West Virginia, and hastening down the valley, crossed the Potomac, and on the 7th of July occupied Frederick, Maryland. On the 9th he defeated a small force that sought to stop his advance at the Monocacy river, and marched upon Washington, which was defended by a small garrison. Grant hurried reinforcements to the capital, and when Early arrived before its defences, he found them occupied by too strong a force to justify him in attacking them, and retreated across the Potomac. An army of 40,000 men was now assembled in the valley of Virginia by the federal government, and

placed under General Sheridan. He defeated Early at Winchester on the 19th of September; at Fisher's Hill on the 22d; and at Cedar Creek, on the 19th of October, destroyed his army and laid waste the entire valley of the Shenandoah.



GEN. W. T. SHERMAN.

On the 7th of May the western army, under General Sherman, 100,000 strong, advanced from Chattanooga upon the confederate army, 50,000 strong, under General Johnston, which was posted at Dalton,

Georgia. By a flank movement Sherman dislodged Johnston from his position and compelled him to fall back to Resaca. He then attacked Johnston at Resaca on the 14th and 15th of May, but without success. To avoid being outflanked, Johnston



MAJ.-GEN. GEO. H. THOMAS.

fell back to Dallas. After some very heavy fighting at New Hope Church, Sherman turned Allatoona Pass, and Johnston fell back to a line embracing Pine, Lost, and Kennesaw mountains. Between the 15th of June and the 2d of July, Sherman made several attempts to force this line, but failing, moved to the left and turned it. Johnston at once fell back behind the Chattahoochee, and within the lines of Atlanta. He had prepared this important city for a siege, and was resolved, as soon as Sherman had passed the Chattahoochee, to attack him and force him to a decisive battle. The federal army had already lost over 30,000 men since the opening of the campaign, while Johnston had lost less than 8,000. Before the confederate commander could execute his plan, he was removed by the confederate president, who was personally unfriendly to him, and was succeeded by General Hood, a gallant but incompetent commander. Hood attacked Sherman on the 20th and 22d of July, before Atlanta, and was each time defeated with heavy loss. He was outgeneralled by Sherman, and was forced to evacuate Atlanta on the 31st of August, and on the 2d of September Sherman occupied the city.

Hood now endeavored to draw Sherman out of Georgia by an invasion of Tennessee, but the latter left General Thomas, who held Nashville, to manage the confederates, and embarked in another enterprise. Hood moved from the Tennessee river on the 19th of November, and, defeating a federal force under General Schofield at Franklin, on the 30th, advanced to Nashville, and laid

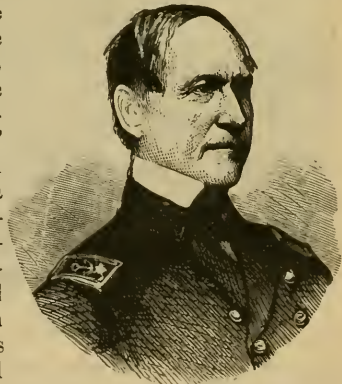
siege to that place, which was defended by General Thomas with an army of 40,000 men. On the 15th and 16th Thomas attacked the confederates, defeated them, and drove them across the Tennessee in utter rout.

In the meantime Sherman cut his communications with Chattanooga, set fire to Atlanta, and, on the 14th of November, began his "march to the sea," through Georgia, at the head of a splendid army of 60,000 men. His march was accomplished without difficulty, as there was no enemy of any consequence in his front, and he devoted his energies to ravaging the country through which he passed. In about four weeks he reached the coast, on the 13th of December stormed and captured Fort McAllister, and on the 22d of December occupied Savannah, which had been evacuated by the confederates.

In the summer of 1864 Admiral Farragut forced his way with his fleet by the forts defending the entrance to Mobile bay, and on the 5th of August defeated the confederate fleet in the lower bay in one of the hardest fought naval battles on record. The forts subsequently surrendered to the land forces accompanying the expedition, but the city of Mobile was not taken for some months afterwards. In December an expedition was sent against Fort Fisher, at the mouth of the Cape Fear river, but was unsuccessful.

On the 19th of June the famous confederate cruiser "Alabama," which had destroyed a large number of merchant vessels owned in northern states, was defeated and sunk by the United States steamer "Kearsarge" off Cherbourg, France.

In the fall of 1864 President Lincoln was re-elected over General McClellan, the candidate of the democratic party. On the 31st of October the state of Nevada was admitted into the Union.



ADMIRAL FARRAGUT.

The year 1865 opened with brilliant prospects for the Union cause. The confederates were at the end of their resources, and the Union forces had recovered a large part of the south. On the 3d of February an informal conference was held, between President Lincoln and several commissioners from the confederate government, in Hampton Roads, but resulted in nothing, as President Lincoln refused to entertain

the confederates, and cut them off from all communication with Europe. On the 22d of February Wilmington was captured by the Union forces.

Towards the end of January Sherman, who had given his army a month's rest on the coast, resumed his advance through South Carolina towards Virginia, to cooperate with Grant in bringing the war to a close. He pushed forward with energy



SINKING OF THE "ALABAMA" BY THE "KEARSARGE."

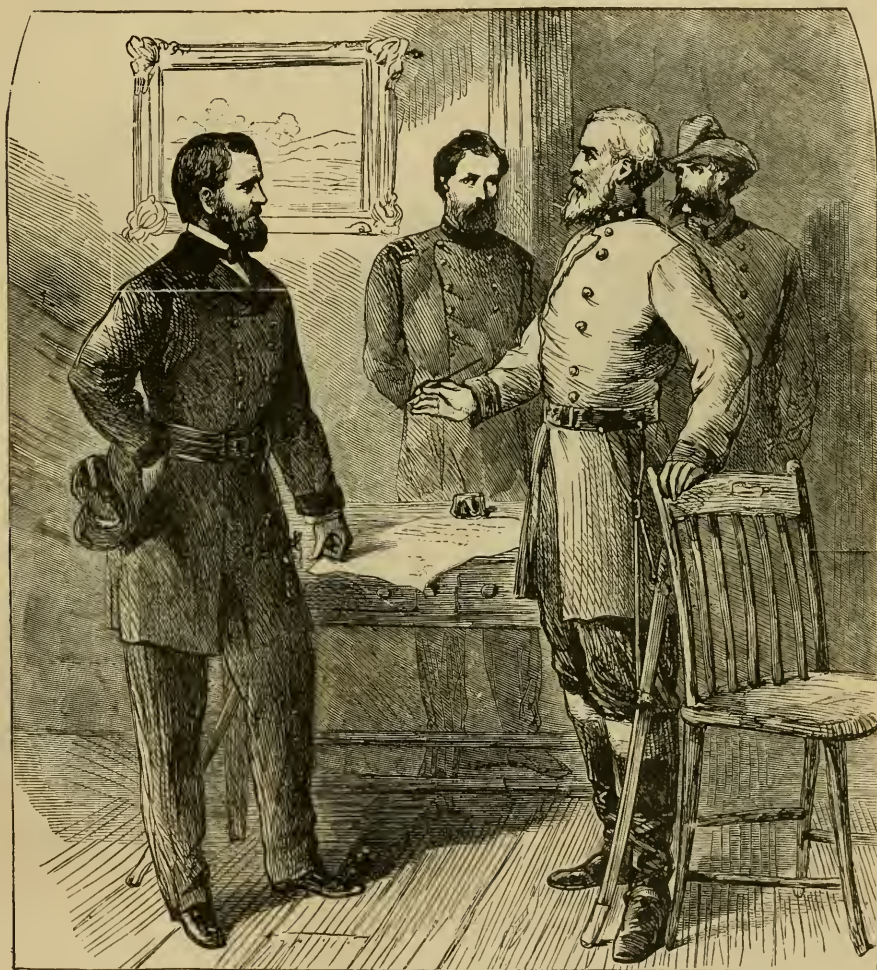
any propositions that were not based upon the unconditional submission of the southern states.

The attempt to capture Fort Fisher was renewed by Admiral Porter and General Terry in January, 1865, and on the 15th the fort was carried by assault after a desperate struggle. The confederates then abandoned their other works at the mouth of the Cape Fear. The capture of Fort Fisher closed the port of Wilmington to

through a country rendered almost impassable by the winter rains, and on the 17th of February occupied Columbia, South Carolina, which was nearly destroyed by fire. Charleston was evacuated by the confederates on the same day, and on the 18th was occupied by the federal forces. On the 12th of March Sherman reached Fayetteville, North Carolina, and moved from that place towards Goldsboro'. The confederate government gathered a force of 35,000 men

under General Johnston in Sherman's front. Johnston with this force attacked Sherman at Averasboro' on the 16th of March, and at Bentonville on the 19th, but was unable to stay the progress of the federal army, which on the 22d of March occupied Goldsboro'. Johnston then withdrew towards Raleigh.

Amelia Court-House, from which he moved towards Lynchburg. Richmond and Petersburg were occupied by the federal forces on the morning of the 3d, and the main body of the army hurried on in pursuit of Lee, who was overtaken, cut off from Lynchburg, and compelled to surrender at Appomattox Court-House on the 9th of April.



SURRENDER OF GENERAL LEE.

The army of General Grant resumed operations towards the last of March, having been joined by 10,000 cavalry from the valley of Virginia, under General Sheridan. Lee's right wing was turned on the 30th of March, and was defeated at Five Forks on the 1st of April. On the night of the 2d of April General Lee evacuated Richmond and Petersburg, and retreated towards

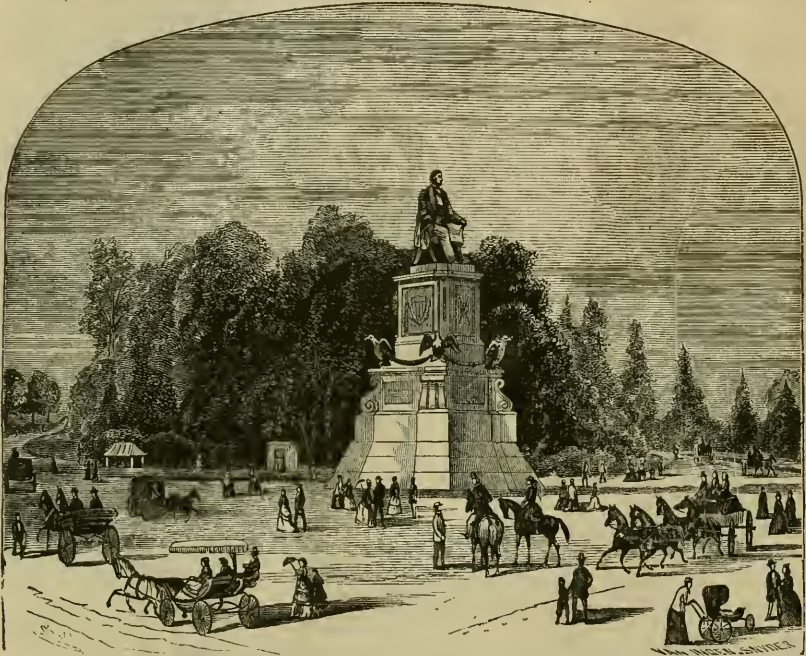
Johnston's army surrendered on the 26th of April to General Sherman. The other southern forces promptly laid down their arms, the last to surrender being the army of General E. Kirby Smith, in Texas, on the 26th of May.

The rejoicings of the north over the close of the war were cut short by the assassination of President Lincoln by John Wilkes

Booth, at Ford's theatre, in Washington, on the night of the 14th of April. The president died the next day. The assassin and his companions were subsequently captured. Booth was killed by his captors. The others were either hanged or imprisoned. The body of the murdered president was conveyed through the principal cities of the north and west to his home in Illi-

nois, where it was buried amid the deep grief of the nation. By the terms of the constitution, Andrew Johnson, the vice-president, became President of the United States.

On the 10th of May Jefferson Davis was captured at Irwinsville, Georgia, and sent as a prisoner to Fortress Monroe.



MONUMENT TO ABRAHAM LINCOLN IN FAIRMOUNT PARK, PHILADELPHIA.

CHAPTER V.

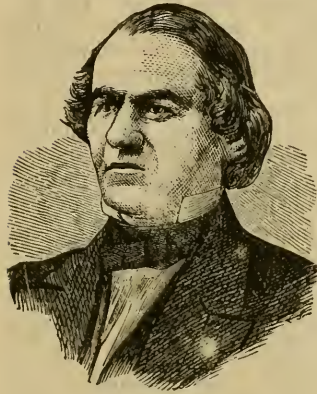
FROM THE CLOSE OF THE CIVIL WAR TO
THE PRESENT TIME.

Close of the War—Andrew Johnson President—The Reconstruction Question—Impeachment of the President—His Acquittal—Amendments to the Constitution—The Public Debt—The Atlantic Telegraph—Ulysses S. Grant Elected President—The Pacific Railway Completed—The Alabama Claims—The Chicago and Boston Fires—Grant Re-elected President—Death of Horace Greeley—The Modoc War—Murder of General Canby and the Peace Commissioners—The "Virginian" Outrage—Firmness of the Government—The Panic of 1873—The Law for the Resumption of Specie Payments—The Centennial Celebrations—The Centennial Exhibition—Its Great Success—Celebration of the 4th of July, 1876—The Sioux War—Massacre of General Custer and the Seventh Cavalry—The Presidential Campaign of 1876—The Result Disputed—Danger to the Country—The Florida and Louisiana Returning Boards—Their Action—Meeting of Congress—Dispute between the two Houses—The Electoral Commission—Counting the Vote—Action of the

Electoral Commission—Hayes Declared President—Inauguration of President Hayes—He Removes the Federal Troops from South Carolina and Louisiana.

THE war was now at an end. It had cost the country a million of men, and an enormous sum in money. The efforts of the government were now devoted to the reconstruction of the Union. The president held that the southern states had never been out of the Union, and attempted to restore them to their former places without consulting congress. That body upon assembling in December, 1865, repudiated the president's action, and demanded that the southern states should adopt the thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the federal constitution abolishing slavery, and admitting the negro to the rights and privileges of a citizen, before being admitted into the Union. A pro-

longed struggle, which lasted for several years, ensued between the conquered states and congress, the former being sustained by the president, who declared the action of congress unconstitutional. The states of



ANDREW JOHNSON.

of the south were finally compelled to accept the terms of congress, and upon ratifying the amendments were at length restored to the Union. The quarrel between the president and congress resulted in an effort to re-

move the former by impeachment. He was tried before the senate on charges preferred by the house of representatives in the spring of 1868, but was acquitted.

The thirteenth amendment to the federal constitution, abolishing slavery, was adopted by the states in 1865. The fourteenth amendment, guaranteeing civil rights to all, without distinction of race or color, and basing representation on the number of inhabitants, was adopted in 1868. The fifteenth amendment, guaranteeing the right of suffrage to all, irrespective of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, was adopted in 1870.

The course of the United States with regard to the French occupation of Mexico has been related in the French history of this century.

The public debt was enormous at the close of the war, amounting to nearly \$2,700,000,000. Measures were set on foot for its reduction, and the national finances were adjusted upon a plan satisfactory to the nation. The heavy rate of taxation was gradually reduced, and the country began to recover rapidly from the effects of the war, the south sharing in the happy improvement of affairs.

In 1866 a telegraphic cable was successfully laid between America and Ireland.

This great work was accomplished only after repeated and costly failures extending through a period of nine years. Its final success was due to the energy and perseverance of Cyrus W. Field, of New York.

In the fall of 1868 Ulysses S. Grant, of Illinois, the successful commander of the Union armies during the civil war, was elected president. He was inaugurated in March, 1869. In the summer of 1869 the great railway from the Missouri river to the Pacific Ocean was completed.

During the civil war a number of confederate cruisers, built, equipped, and manned in British ports, went to sea, and committed great ravages upon the commerce of the United States. After the close of the war the American government demanded compensation from Great Britain for these losses. The British government refused at first to entertain the demand, but after some years agreed to submit the question to the arbitration of a board chosen from the neutral nations. This board met at Geneva in Switzerland on the 15th of April, 1872, and on the 27th



GENERAL U. S. GRANT.

of June submitted its award in favor of the United States. Great Britain was required to pay the United States damages to the amount of \$16,250,000.

A great fire broke out in Chicago on the

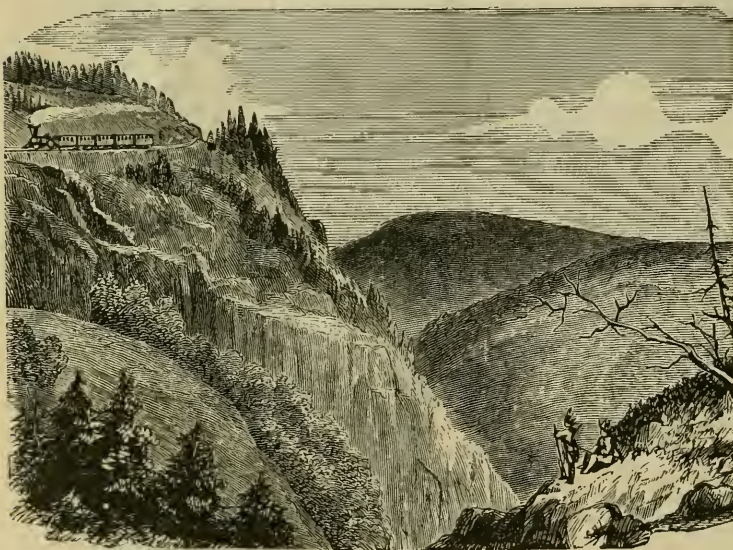
8th of October, 1871, and raged for two days. The area burned over was 2,124 acres, or nearly three and one-third square miles. The number of buildings destroyed was 17,450. The loss was from \$196,000,000 to \$200,000,000. It was the most destructive conflagration of modern times.

On the 9th of November, 1872, a fire occurred in Boston and swept over an area of 65 acres in the heart of the business section of the city. It destroyed 776 buildings, and inflicted a loss of \$78,000,000 upon the city.

In the fall of 1872 General Grant was re-elected president by an overwhelming majority over Horace Greeley, the candidate of the liberal republican and dem-

sioners, and killed all but one. At the same moment, General Canby, commanding the United States troops operating against the savages, who was also present, was shot down, and died instantly. The war was then pressed with vigor. The Indians were forced to surrender, and those who had been concerned in the murder of the peace commissioners and General Canby were hanged on the 3d of October, 1873.

A revolution broke out in the island of Cuba in 1868, and for several years the patriot forces successfully held their ground against the Spanish troops. The government of the United States faithfully endeavored to observe neutrality between the contending parties, and to prevent the sending of supplies or men to the island. In spite of the precautions of the government, however, several expeditions did succeed in getting to sea and reaching Cuba. One of these embarked on the steamer "Virginus" in the fall of 1873. The steamer, though carrying the American flag and sailing in English waters at the time, was captured by the Spanish man-of-war "Tornado" off the coast of Jamaica and taken into the port of Santiago de Cuba.



CAPE HORN, ON THE CENTRAL PACIFIC RAILROAD.

ocratic parties. A deplorable result of the struggle, which was conducted with intense bitterness, was the death of Mr. Greeley on the 29th of November, 1872.

On the 4th of March, 1873, President Grant entered upon his second term of office. Early in the same year a troublesome war began with the Modoc Indians, who were dissatisfied with the reservations assigned them by the government in the northern part of Oregon. They took refuge in a difficult region known as the "lava beds," where they maintained a successful resistance of several months. Efforts were made to settle the war by treaty, and during one of these conferences the Indians suddenly turned upon the peace commis-

sioners, and about forty of the crew and passengers, were given a mock trial by the Spaniards, and were shot. The consul of the United States at Santiago de Cuba made great exertions to save the doomed men, but was treated with indignity by the Spanish officials, and was not allowed to communicate with Havana, from which point he could telegraph to Washington. The popular indignation in the United States upon the receipt of the news of this outrage was intense and outspoken. The government acted with prudence and firmness. Several vessels of war were sent to Santiago de Cuba to prevent the execution of the surviving prisoners, and the fleet in the West Indies was re-

inforced as rapidly as possible. Every preparation was made for war, but it was determined to settle the matter peacefully if possible. The United States demanded of Spain the arrest and punishment of the officials concerned in the massacre of the prisoners, a suitable indemnity in money for the families of the murdered men, an apology to the United States for the outrage upon their flag, and the surrender of the "Virginus" and her remaining passengers and crew to an American man-of-war. The alternative was war. The Spanish government was compelled to concede these terms, and orders were sent to Cuba to surrender the "Virginus" and all the survivors to the naval forces of the United States. The Cuban officials endeavored to evade these orders, but were compelled to submit, and the "Virginus" and the prisoners were delivered to an American man-of-war in the harbor of Havana. The apology was also made, and at a later period the indemnity was paid to the United States.

In the fall of 1873 a severe commercial crisis, known as the "railroad panic," caused by excessive speculations in railroad stocks and the reckless construction of railroads in sections of the country where they were not needed, burst upon the country. It was the occasion of the failure of many of the leading banking houses and financial institutions of the Union, and produced great hardship and suffering in all parts of the country, and was followed by several years of great dulness and loss in all branches of trade.

In January, 1875, congress passed an act providing for the resumption of specie payments, and requiring that on and after January 1st, 1879, the legal tender notes of the government shall be redeemed in specie.

On the 4th of March, 1875, the territory of Colorado was admitted into the Union as a state, making the thirty-eighth member of the confederacy.

The year 1875 completed the period of

one hundred years from the opening of the revolution, and the events of 1775 were celebrated with appropriate ceremonies at the places at which they occurred. The centennial anniversary of the battles of Lexington and Concord was commemorated at both those places on the 19th of April, with great rejoicings. On the 17th of June the centennial of the battle of Bunker Hill was celebrated at Charlestown. Vast crowds were present from all parts of the country. One of the most gratifying features of the last-named celebration was the



HORACE GREELEY.

presence of a large body of troops from the southern states, all of whom had served in the confederate armies during the civil war.

As early as 1872 measures were set on foot for the proper observance of the completion of the first century of American independence. For this purpose it was resolved to hold, in the city of Philadelphia, an international exhibition in 1876, in which all the nations of the world were invited to participate. Preparations were at once set on foot for the celebration. The European governments accepted, with great cordiality, the invitations extended to them by the government of the United States,

and made liberal provisions for the display of their respective products and achievements. On the 10th of May, 1876, the exhibition was opened by the president of the United States in the presence of an immense concourse of citizens from all parts of the Union, and of the Emperor of Brazil. The exhibition remained open until November 10th, 1876, and was visited by 9,789,392 persons, from the various states of the Union, from Canada, South America, and Europe. It was one of the

was naturally that which was held at Philadelphia, in which city the Declaration of Independence was adopted. It began on the 1st of July and was continued until midnight on the 4th, and was in all respects a grand and enthusiastic demonstration.

The year 1876 was not destined to be altogether a period of peace. In 1867 the government of the United States made a treaty with the Sioux Indians, by which the latter agreed to relinquish to the United States all the territory south of

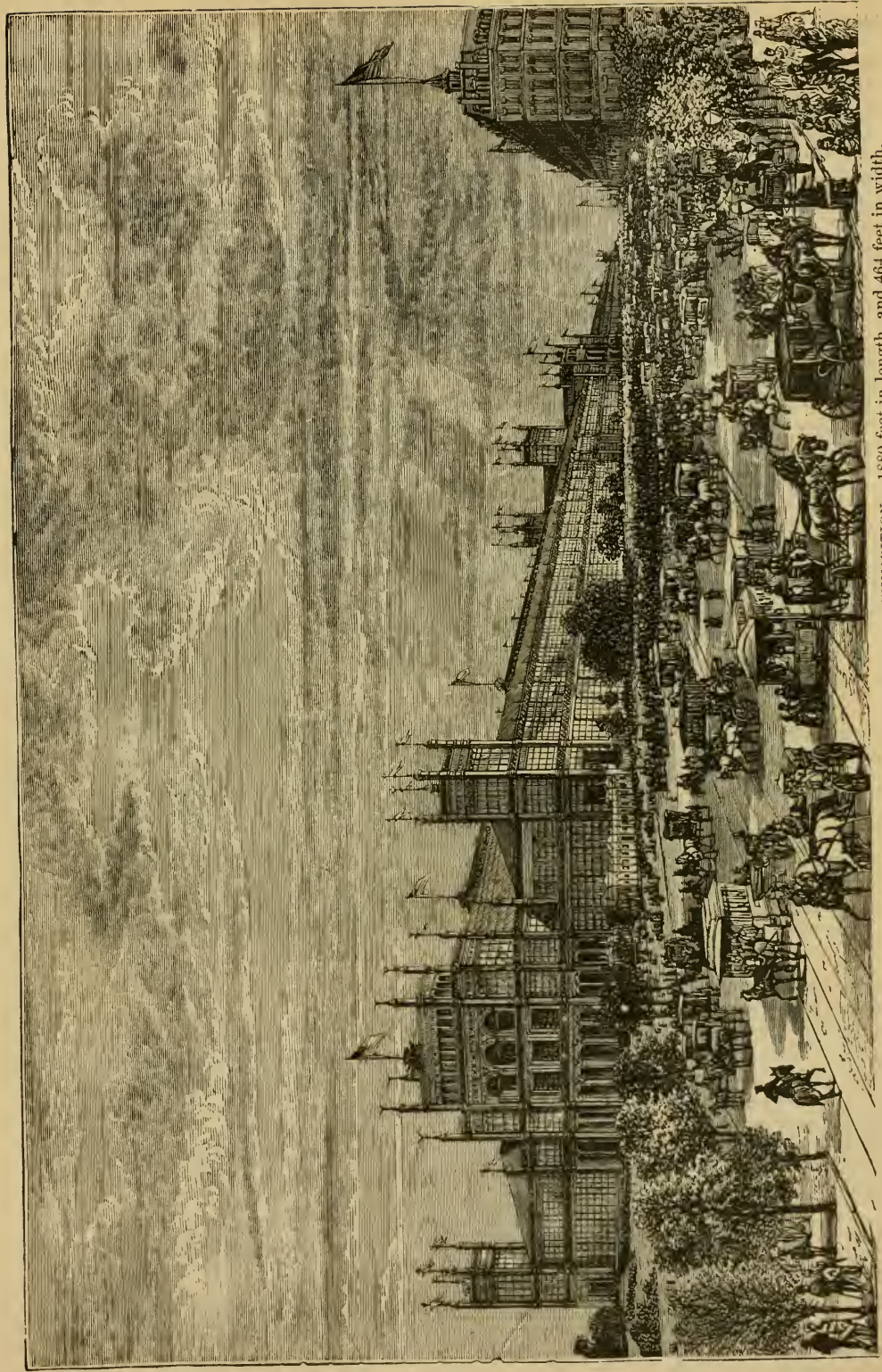


THE BURNING OF CHICAGO.

grandest and most notable events of the century, and was successful in every respect.

On the 4th day of July, 1876, the United States of America completed the one hundredth year of their existence as an independent nation. The day was celebrated with imposing ceremonies in all parts of the Union. The celebrations began on the night of the 3d, and were kept up until near midnight on the 4th. Each of the great cities of the Union vied with the others in the splendor and completeness of its festival; but the most interesting of all

Niobrara river, west of the one hundred and fourth meridian of longitude, and north of the forty-sixth parallel of latitude. This treaty secured to the Sioux a large reservation in the southwestern part of Dakota, and they agreed to withdraw to this reservation by the 1st of January, 1876. A few years later gold was discovered in the Black Hills country, a region lying within the Sioux reservation, and this discovery produced great excitement among the mining class. An expedition under General Custer in 1874 confirmed this discovery, and

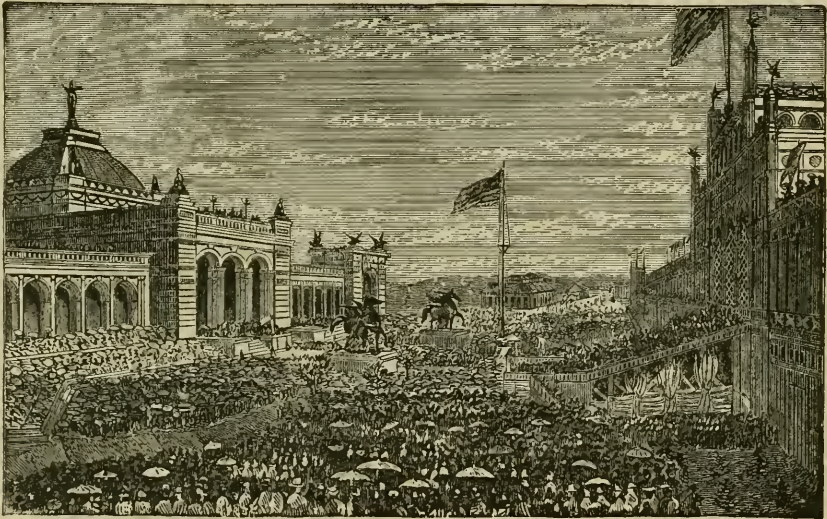


VIEW OF THE MAIN BUILDING OF THE INTERNATIONAL CENTENNIAL EXHIBITION. 1880 feet in length, and 464 feet in width.

preparations were at once made by the miners to proceed to the Black Hills and open the mines. The government ordered the military authorities to prevent any such intrusions into the territories of the Indians, but many parties set out in spite of these orders. Some were driven back by the Indians, but others succeeded in reaching the gold regions.

It was now evident that a systematic and determined effort would be made to settle the Black Hills, and as a measure of peace the government resolved to purchase that region from the Indians, and throw it open to emigration. Efforts were made during 1875 to induce the Sioux to sell their lands, but they refused to do so. They had never been really willing to retire to the reserva-

too small for the work required of it, but in spite of this succeeded in forcing the savages back to the Big Horn mountains. On the 25th of June, 1876, the seventh cavalry, under General Custer, was defeated and cut to pieces to a man by an overwhelming force of Indians. It was the most terrible reverse ever suffered by the American army at the hands of the savages. The popular indignation compelled the government to hurry reinforcements to the scene of war, and Generals Terry and Crook were able to conduct the campaign with more vigor. The Indians were beaten in a number of engagements, and on the 24th of November suffered a decisive defeat in a battle with the fourth cavalry, under Colonel McKenzie, at one of the passes of the Big Horn

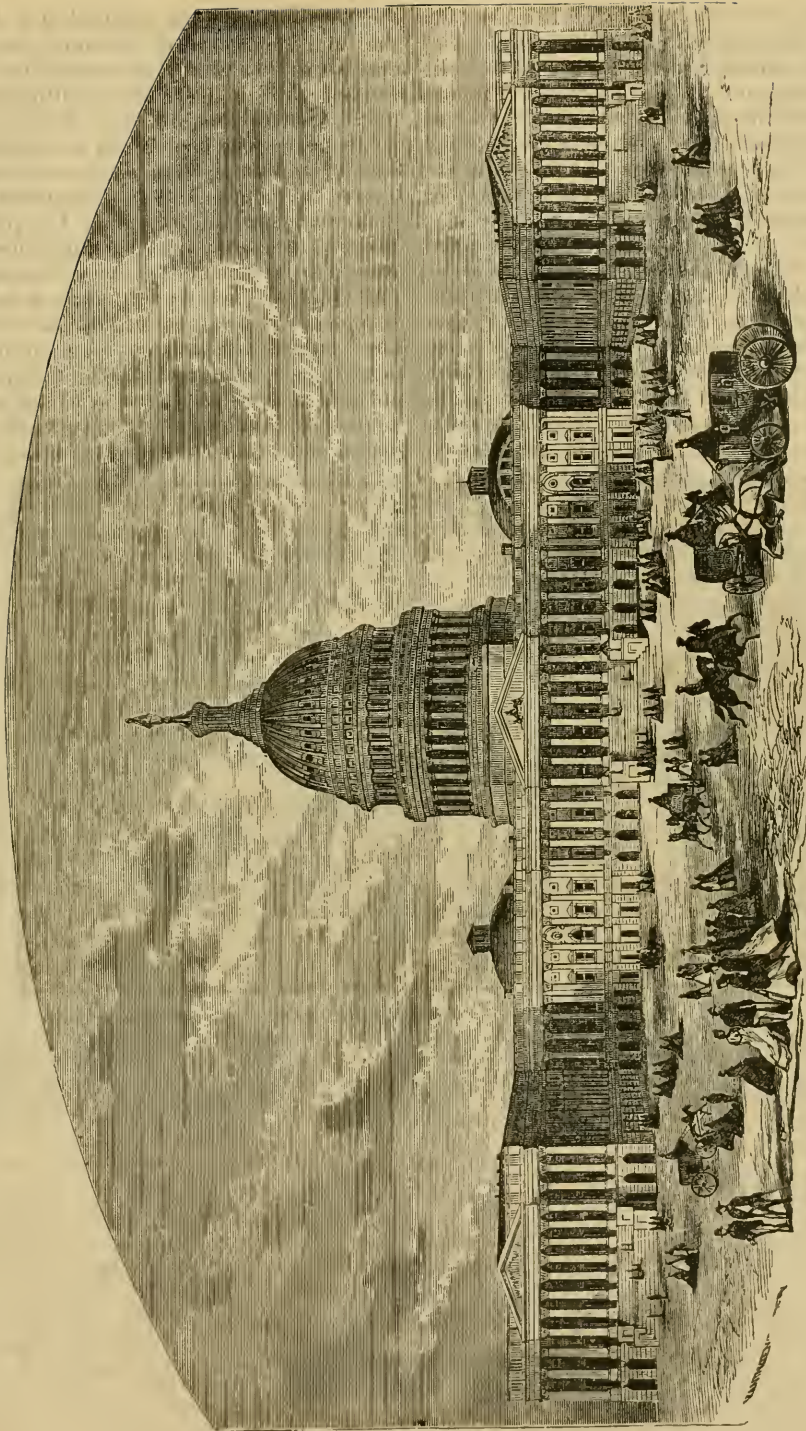


OPENING CEREMONIES OF THE INTERNATIONAL CENTENNIAL EXHIBITION.

tions to which the treaty of 1867 confined them, and now took advantage of the intrusion of the whites into their territory to gratify their long-cherished wish for war. They broke away from their reservation, and made repeated forays into Wyoming and Montana, laid the country waste, carried off the horses and cattle, and murdered such settlers as ventured to oppose them.

This brought matters to a crisis, and early in 1876 the government resolved to drive the Sioux back to their reservation. A force of regular troops under Generals Terry and Crook was sent into the difficult and mountainous region of the upper Yellowstone, and an active campaign was begun against the Indians. The force was

mountains. Negotiations were in progress during the summer and autumn for the removal of the Sioux to the Indian territory, and by the beginning of the winter the majority of them had surrendered. A few bands under Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse continued in the field. They were not allowed to remain in security during the winter, but were pushed vigorously. On the 8th of January, 1877, a decisive victory was won over the band of Crazy Horse, at Wolf mountains, in Montana territory, by a force of infantry and artillery under General Miles. This victory led to the surrender of other bands of Indians, and early in 1877 the operations against Sitting Bull obliged that chief to take refuge in the territory of British



FRONT VIEW OF THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON.

America. By the spring of 1877 the war had been practically brought to a close.

In the summer of 1876 the various political parties of the Union met in their respective conventions to nominate candidates for the offices of President and Vice-President of the United States. The candidates of the republican party were: for president, Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio; for vice-president, William A. Wheeler, of New York. The democratic candidates were: for president, Samuel J. Tilden, of New York; for vice-president, Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana. A third party, called the independent greenback party, nominated Peter Cooper, of New York, for president, and Samuel F. Cary, of Ohio, for vice-president. The campaign which followed these nominations was one of unprecedented bitterness, and was conducted by the republican party upon distinct sectional issues; the old wounds of the civil war were torn open, and threats of a new conflict freely indulged in. The election was held on the 7th of November. The popular vote was as follows: for Samuel J. Tilden, 4,284,265; for Rutherford B. Hayes, 4,033,295; for Peter Cooper, 81,737. Tilden thus received a majority of 250,970 popular votes over Hayes, and a majority of 169,233 votes over both Hayes and Cooper.

In the electoral colleges 185 votes were necessary to a choice. Of this number Governor Tilden received 184 and Governor Hayes 163 undisputed votes. The votes of the states of Florida, Louisiana, South Carolina, and Oregon—twenty-two in number—were claimed by both parties for their respective candidates. It was declared by the democrats that, even conceding the votes of Oregon and South Carolina to Mr. Hayes, Mr. Tilden had fairly carried both Florida and Louisiana, and was entitled to 196 electoral votes. The revision of the vote in Florida and Louisiana had been confided, since the reorganization of those states, to returning boards, which bodies had power to manipulate the votes of the people of their respective states to an extent sufficient to make the result what they pleased. In consequence of this, it had several times happened in Louisiana that the returning board had, after canvassing the vote, announced a result entirely at variance with the vote at the polls. In the present case these boards were republican in their composition. In the Florida board

there was one democratic member, but in the Louisiana board the place of the democratic member was vacant, and the board refused to fill the vacancy, leaving the board entirely republican.

The returning boards did not possess the confidence of the country, and it was regarded as of the highest importance that some restraint should be placed upon them. Immediately after the election, therefore, President Grant induced a number of prominent republicans to proceed to Florida and Louisiana to watch the counting of the votes of those states; and a number of leading democrats repaired to Tallahassee and New Orleans for the same purpose. These gentlemen had no official character, and were without power to interfere in any way with the counting of the vote. It was hoped, however, that their presence would act as a check upon the returning boards and secure a fair count. This hope was not destined to be realized. The Louisiana board, in particular, was composed of reckless and disreputable men, and in spite of the presence of the gentlemen referred to, some of the most prominent of whom gave open encouragement to the course of the board, returned the vote of the state for Hayes, thus setting aside the popular majority at the polls of over 10,000 votes for the democratic candidates. The Florida board by a similar course returned the vote of that state for Hayes. Investigations showed that the electoral vote of South Carolina had been fairly cast for Hayes, and it was generally conceded to him. The democratic Governor of Oregon attempted by a transparent trick to give the electoral vote of that state to Mr. Tilden, and thus elect him; but it came to be the general sentiment of the country that the electoral vote of Oregon should be rightfully cast for Hayes.

This confined the real struggle to the votes of Florida and Louisiana. It was the general conviction of the country that both of those states had been fairly carried by the democratic party, and many earnest republicans gave open expression to this belief. The action of the return boards, however, though so evidently in defiance of the will of the people, was still within the letter of the laws under which they had acted. The republican party, therefore, claimed that, as such action was not contrary to the laws of Florida and Louisiana, it must stand; that neither congress nor

any other body had power to go behind the certificate of the electoral vote of a state, properly signed and authenticated by the state officials; and that when such certificates were presented to the two houses of congress, at the counting of the electoral votes of the states, they must be accepted without question, and the electoral votes of Florida and Louisiana be counted for Hayes. They declared that the states had power to make any laws they might see fit for the counting of their popular vote, and

crats, on the other hand, maintained that the popular majority for Tilden in Florida and Louisiana was too evident to be doubted, being simply overwhelming in the latter state, and that the return boards had overcome these majorities only by a fraudulent use of their powers in throwing out democratic votes to an extent sufficient to give Florida and Louisiana to the republicans. They declared, moreover, that, as the Louisiana board had refused to appoint a democratic member to the vacancy in



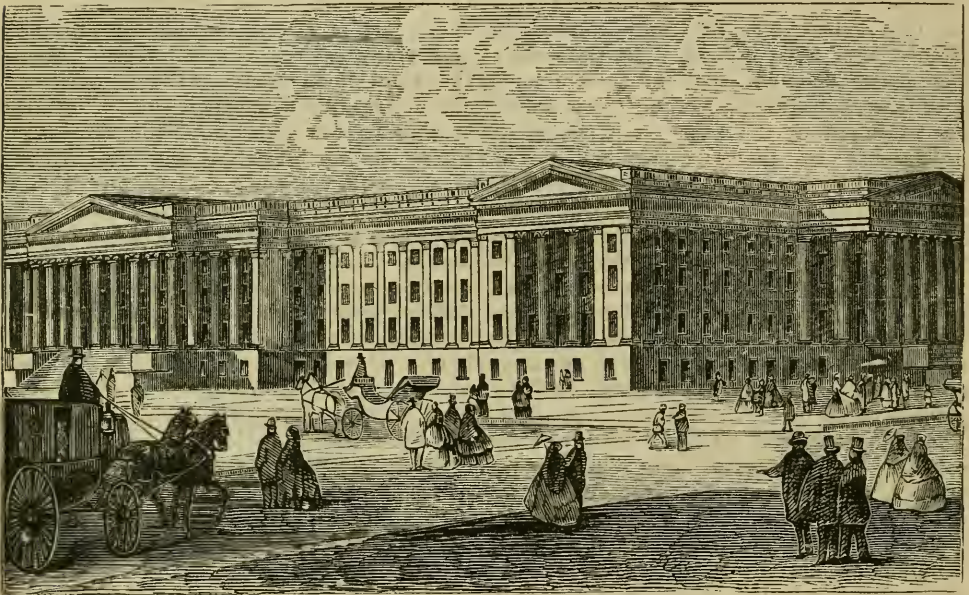
BIRDS'-EYE VIEW OF NEW YORK CITY.

that for congress to seek to interfere with such laws would be to illegally trespass upon the reserved rights of the states. They held, therefore, that as the action of the return boards was within the letter of the laws of their respective states, Florida and Louisiana must be counted for Hayes; and in order to maintain this position the republican party was compelled to assume the strange and inconsistent role of the champion of states' rights, the doctrine against which it had waged a relentless war of nearly twenty years. The demo-

crats, on the other hand, maintained that that body, as required by the law under which they acted, their action was necessarily illegal. They held that, as both Florida and Louisiana had been wrongfully and fraudulently given to the republicans by the return boards, in defiance of the will of the people of those states, as expressed at the polls, the electoral votes of both of those states should not be counted by congress. Such action on the part of congress would have resulted in a declaration by that body that there had been no popular choice of a president and vice-

president, and the election of the president would have devolved upon the house of representatives, and the choice of the vice-president upon the senate, in accordance with the provisions of the constitution. The democrats, therefore, declared that they would insist upon the rejection of the votes of Florida and Louisiana, upon the ground of fraud on the part of the return boards; and the republicans announced their decision to insist upon the counting of the votes of those states as certified by the state officials. Each party denounced the other with great bitterness; the country was deeply agitated, and threats of armed

that, by the terms of the constitution, the vice-president was compelled to open the certificates of the states in the presence of the two houses of congress, in joint convention, and declare the result, the two houses being present merely as witnesses of the count by the vice-president. With this view the republicans in the lower house agreed. The democrats in both houses maintained that while the constitution required the vice-president to open the certificates and count the electoral votes, the two houses of congress were made the judges of the legality of those certificates, and that, in the case of the presentation of two cer-



THE UNITED STATES TREASURY, WASHINGTON CITY.

resistance were freely indulged in by both parties. The crisis was the most alarming that had threatened the country since the outbreak of the civil war. A feeling of general uneasiness prevailed throughout the Union, which showed itself in the depression of business in all sections.

Congress met on the 4th of December, 1876. The house of representatives was organized by the democratic majority by the election of Samuel J. Randall, of Pennsylvania, as speaker. Immediately upon the organization of congress the question of the manner of counting the electoral votes of the states came up in that body. The republican majority in the senate claimed

certificates from the same state, the two houses were the rightful judges of which was the proper one; and that, in the event of a failure of the two houses to agree in such a decision, the vote of such state must be rejected. In support of this view they brought forward the twenty-second joint rule of congress, adopted February 6th, 1865, by a republican congress, and under which the counting of the electoral vote in 1865, 1869, and 1873 had been conducted. This rule was designed to secure a republican triumph at the time of its passage, but in January, 1876, when it was evident that, the house of representatives having become democratic, the rule would be used

by the democrats for their own advantage, the senate, still republican, passed a concurrent resolution adopting the joint rules of the previous session of congress as the joint rules for that session, "excepting the twenty-second joint rule." The house failed to act upon the resolution. At the opening of the session in December, 1876, the president of the senate ruled that there were no joint rules in operation. The speaker of the house, on the other hand, ruled that the joint rules previously existing still existed. Thus the issue between the two houses was distinctly made. The house declared its intention of insisting upon the right secured to it by the twenty-second joint rule of objecting to the vote of a state, and that it would withdraw from the joint convention if this right were denied it by the senate. The senate declared that, in case of such withdrawal by the house, the count would be continued by the senate, and the result proclaimed by the vice-president. The house, on the other hand, announced its intention of acting in such a case as if there had been no choice by the electoral vote; it would at once proceed to elect the president as required by the constitution. Each house was firm in its resolution, and the breach between them widened daily. Angry speeches and threats were made by members of congress, and the general alarm and uneasiness deepened throughout the country. The time appointed by the constitution for counting the electoral vote was rapidly drawing nigh, and it seemed likely that an era of anarchy was about to ensue. Each house would act for itself; two presidents would be declared elected. There was no doubt that President Grant would sustain the choice of the senate with the army. In such an event civil war was inevitable.

The danger was so great that patriotic men of both parties in congress set to work to devise some means of settlement. It was plain that this could be accomplished only by a compromise. A conference committee was appointed by each house, which committee, after a long deliberation, reported to the two houses of congress a bill providing for the appointment of a commission, to consist of fifteen members. Five of these were to be appointed by the senate, and five by the house of representatives. The remaining five were to be chosen from the justices of the supreme court. Four of the justices were designated by the bill; the fifth was to be chosen by the justices named

in the bill. The bill provided for the meeting of the two houses of congress in joint convention on the first Thursday in February. The votes were to be opened by the vice-president, and counted by tellers appointed for the purpose. Each house was to have the right to object to the vote of a state, but in cases where only one certificate was presented, the objection must be sustained by the affirmative vote of both houses. If not so sustained, the objection must fall and the vote be counted. Section II. of the bill provided, "That, if more than one return, or paper purporting to be a return from a state, shall have been received by the president of the senate, purporting to be the certificates of electoral votes given at the last preceding election for president and vice-president in such state (unless they shall be duplicates of the same return), all such returns and papers shall be opened by him in the presence of the two houses when met as aforesaid, and read by the tellers, and all such returns and papers shall thereupon be submitted to the judgment and decision, as to which is the true and lawful electoral vote of such state," of the commission appointed by the bill. The decision of the commission, with the reasons therefor, was to be submitted to the two houses of congress. Should objection be made by five senators and five representatives to the report of the commission, the two houses were to separate and discuss the said objections, the time allowed for debate being limited by the bill; but unless both houses should agree to sustain the objections, the decision of the commission should stand.

This plan met with considerable favor from the conservative element of both houses, but was strongly opposed by the more ultra of both parties. It was debated at length and with great vigor. It passed the senate on the 25th of January, 1877, by a vote of 47 yeas and 17 nays; ten senators not voting. The vote in the house was taken the next day, and stood, yeas, 191; nays, 86; fourteen representatives not voting. The vote in the senate was divided as follows: *Yeas*—Republicans, 21; Democrats, 46. *Nays*—Republicans, 16; Democrats, 1. In the house it stood: *Yeas*—Democrats, 159; Republicans, 32. *Nays*—Democrats, 18; Republicans, 68. The bill was immediately signed by President Grant, who had from the first given it his warm encouragement.

The members of the commission were promptly appointed. They were as follows: Justices Clifford, Strong, Miller, Field and Bradley, of the supreme court; Senators Edmunds, Morton, Frelinghuysen, Thurman and Bayard; and Representatives Payne, Hunton, Abbott, Garfield and Hoar.

The two houses of congress met in joint convention on the 1st of February, 1877, and began the counting of the electoral vote. When the vote of Florida was

commission mortified and disgusted the whole country, which had looked to the commission for a decision that should be beyond question. A similar conclusion was come to in the case of Louisiana. Objections were made to the reception of the votes of Oregon and South Carolina. In the Oregon case the decision was *unanimously* in favor of counting the votes of the Hayes' electors. In the South Carolina case the commission decided that the democratic electors were not lawfully chosen; but on



BOSTON IN 1878.

reached, three certificates were presented and were referred to the electoral commission. This body, upon hearing the arguments of the council of the democratic and republican parties, decided that it had no power to go behind the action of the return board, and that the certificate of that body giving the vote of that state to Hayes must be accepted by the two houses of congress. The vote by which this decision was reached stood eight (all republicans) in favor of it, and seven (all democrats) against it. The party line appearing thus so sharply in the

the motion to give the state to Hayes, the vote stood eight yeas to seven nays. So South Carolina was counted for Hayes. Objection was made, on the ground of ineligibility, to certain electors from Michigan, Nevada, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont and Wisconsin, but the objections were not sustained by the two houses.

The final result was reached at ten minutes after four o'clock on the morning of the 2d of March, 1877. The counting of the votes of the states having been concluded, Mr. Allison, one of the tellers on the part of the

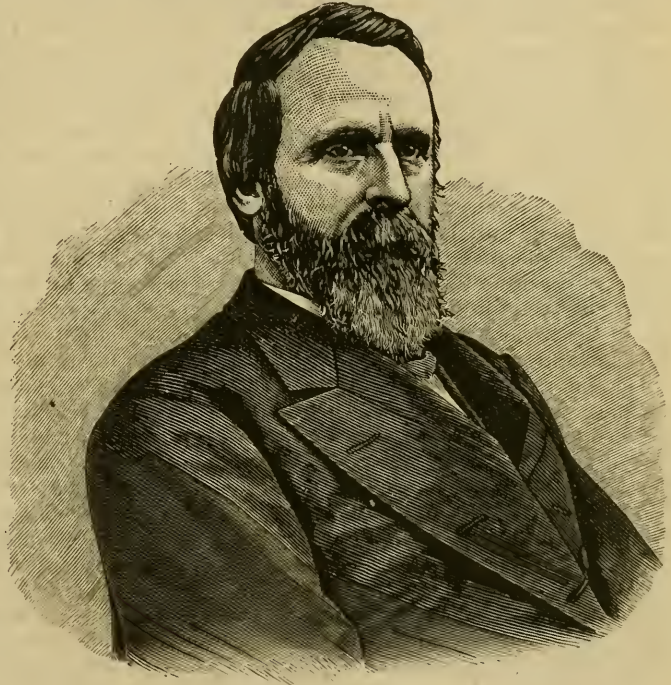
senate, announced the result of the footings; whereupon the presiding officer of the two houses declared Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, the duly elected president, and William A. Wheeler, of New York, the duly elected vice-president, for the term of four years, commencing on the 4th of March, 1877.

The country had watched the proceedings of the electoral commission with the deepest interest, and with feelings of pain and disgust at the strong partisan bias which marked all of its decisions. For a while there was a disposition to reject its award; but the conservative sentiment of the nation prevailed, and it was finally resolved to accept the decision as the only escape from worse trouble.

Rutherford B. Hayes, the nineteenth President of the United States, was inaugurated at Washington on Monday, the 5th of March, 1877, with imposing ceremonies.

The most important matter which presented itself to the new president for settlement was the condition of the states of Louisiana and South Carolina. Under President Grant the troops of the United States had been freely used to control the political affairs of those states. In the fall of 1876 an election for governor and other state officers was held in each of these states. The result at the polls was in favor of the democratic or conservative candidates. In each state the revision of the vote was controlled by the most ultra republicans, some of whom were candidates for re-election. The returning boards, therefore, made such changes in the popular vote as they found necessary for their own success, and announced the triumph of the republican tickets in Louisiana and South Carolina. The outrage was too transparent this time, and the patience of the people was exhausted. The republican party of the North declined to sustain their southern associates any longer.

In South Carolina the conservatives resolved to inaugurate General Wade Hampton, their candidate, as governor. All investigations into the election made it evident that Hampton and his associates had been fairly chosen by the people at the polls; and the party which had elected him, and which represented the property and intelligence of the state, determined not to submit to the rule of the men whom they had defeated. The governor of the state was Mr. Daniel H. Chamberlain, who had been the republican candidate for re-election. Upon



RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

learning the intention of the democrats to inaugurate their governor, Mr. Chamberlain applied to President Grant for military aid. He hoped to repeat in South Carolina what had been done in Louisiana—to organize his legislature under the protection of the troops of the United States, declare the result of the election in his favor, and compel the people to submit on pain of a conflict with the United States. His application to President Grant was promptly responded to, and General Ruger, commanding the department of the south, was ordered to place the troops stationed in Columbia at Governor Chamberlain's disposal. Having secured the aid of the troops, Governor

Chamberlain now proceeded to take the first step in his plan. On the night of the 27th of November the state house was occupied by a detachment of troops, which was posted so as to command all the approaches to the halls of the legislature.

The 28th of November, 1876, was the day appointed for the meeting of the legislature. The democratic members met in caucus at ten o'clock in the morning, and proceeded in a body to the state house. Arriving there they found the building occupied by the troops, and were compelled to submit their credentials to the officer of the guard, who admitted such as had papers which he pronounced satisfactory. Passing through the troops the members of the legislature reached the door of the hall of the lower house, which they found guarded also by troops. The doorkeeper, backed by the military force, refused to admit certain of the delegates, whose credentials he declared were null and void. The entire body of democratic members then withdrew, after protesting against the interference of the military. Under the protection of the troops the republicans organized the legislature.

The interference of the troops aroused the most intense excitement in Columbia, and it was with difficulty that an outbreak was prevented, mainly through the influence of General Hampton. This indignation spread throughout the country, and the unwarrantable interference of President Grant in the domestic affairs of a state was sharply denounced.

The democrats, on the 29th of November, succeeded in gaining admission to the state house, where they organized the house of representatives. After a struggle of a week with the republicans, they withdrew to South Carolina Hall, and conducted the sessions of their legislature there, gaining members by degrees from Chamberlain's legislature at the state house. The republican legislature declared the election of Governor Chamberlain, and on the 7th of December he was sworn into office, under the protection of the federal troops.

The conservative legislature continued its sessions at South Carolina Hall, and on the 14th of December Governor Hampton was publicly inaugurated amid the greatest enthusiasm. He at once set to work, with his associates, to administer the government of the state. He was recognized by the vast majority of the people of South

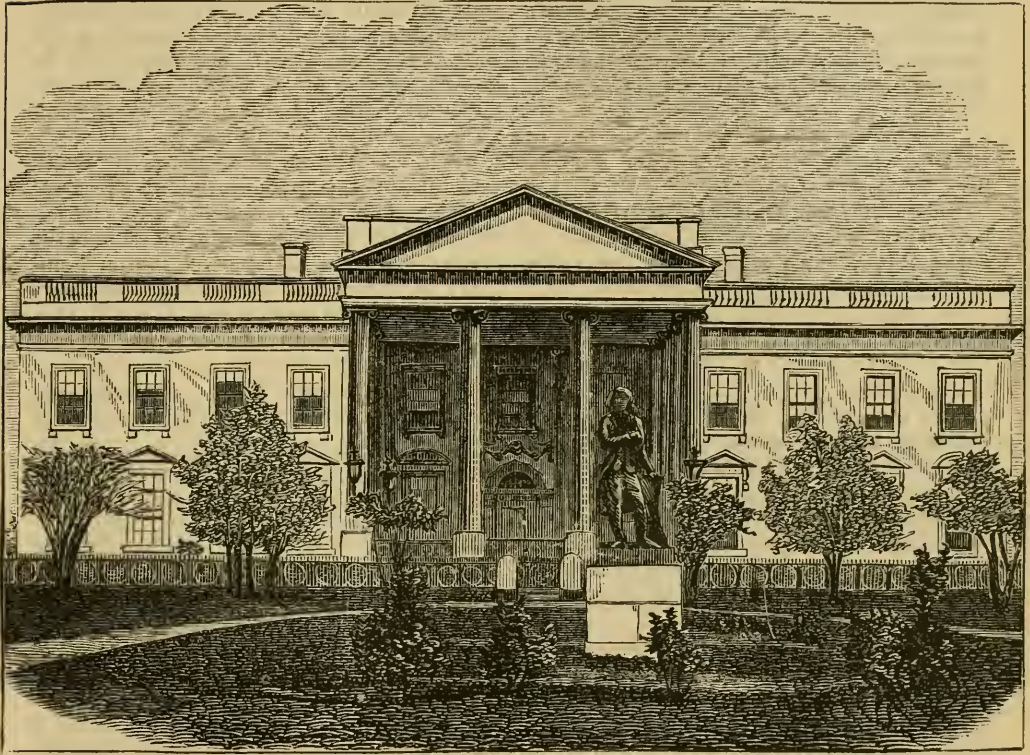
Carolina, by many even who had voted against him. His authority was everywhere respected; and his calls upon the people to advance a portion of the taxes to enable him to carry on the government were cordially and promptly responded to. The authority of Governor Chamberlain was not recognized beyond the limits of the state house, in which the federal troops were quartered; the people refused to pay their taxes to his government, and his governorship was a mere name. In view of this state of affairs President Grant was repeatedly urged to withdraw the troops from the state buildings to their barracks; but as he knew that such a step would result in the downfall of the Chamberlain government, he persistently refused to do so.

Such was the state of affairs in South Carolina at the inauguration of President Hayes. The new president, with characteristic caution, proceeded to investigate the matter. After a patient and thorough inquiry he found that the federal troops were quartered in the state house of South Carolina in an unlawful manner; that the constitution gave to the federal government no authority to interfere in the domestic concerns of a state, leaving the decision of disputed elections to the state courts for settlement; and that no such state of lawlessness or insurrection as would justify federal interference existed in South Carolina. In view of these facts, his duty in the case was plain. It was to restore the proper relations between the federal government and the state of South Carolina, and to put an end to the unlawful and unjustifiable interference with the affairs of that state. The matter was laid before the cabinet, and on the 2d of April, 1877, it was resolved to order the troops to withdraw from the state house to their barracks at Columbia. The order was at once issued, and was carried into effect on the 6th of April. The troops were withdrawn, and South Carolina was left to settle her own affairs. This step was followed by the speedy withdrawal of Governor Chamberlain from the contest. The Hampton government was soon installed in the state house, and its authority was firmly established in all parts of the state, to the great joy of its people.

The state buildings of Louisiana had been held by the federal troops ever since the expulsion of the members of the legislature by General De Trobriand in 1873.

At the election, in 1876, Mr. Stephen B. Packard was the republican candidate for governor, and Mr. H. T. Nicholls was the candidate of the democratic party for the same office. The election resulted in the choice at the polls of Governor Nicholls by an overwhelming majority. The returning board, however, so manipulated the popular vote as to make it appear that Mr. Packard had been chosen governor. This fraudulent return was supported by the federal

day Mr. Packard was sworn into office under the protection of the troops. The Nicholls government got to work as soon as possible; its authority was recognized throughout the state by the courts and people; taxes were paid to it, and it was indorsed and supported by a vast majority of the people of Louisiana. President Grant was urged to remove the troops from the state-house and other buildings belonging to Louisiana, and was assured that



THE WHITE HOUSE, WASHINGTON CITY.

government, and under the protection of the troops Packard was inaugurated.

The substitution of Mr. Packard for Mr. Kellogg as Governor of Louisiana did not touch the evils from which the people of that state had been suffering for so many years. Their patience was exhausted, and they resolved to repudiate the men that had been forced upon them and to sustain the government of their choice. The conservative legislature was accordingly organized, and on the 8th of January, 1877, Governor Nicholls was publicly inaugurated. On the same

day the Packard government would fall to pieces for lack of support as soon as he should take the troops away. He refused to do so, however.

President Hayes found Louisiana in this condition when he entered upon his duties as chief magistrate. He selected a commission, consisting of four republicans and one democrat, and these gentlemen, at his request, proceeded to New Orleans to investigate and report to him the real state of affairs in Louisiana. They made an investigation of the affairs of the state, and

found Packard a governor in name only, while the authority of the Nicholls government extended throughout the state. They found also that the condition of affairs in Louisiana was not such as to justify the further interference of the federal government in the domestic concerns of the state. The conclusions of the commission were reported to the president on the 19th of April, and the next day he issued the order to withdraw the United States troops in New Orleans from the state buildings to their barracks. The troops were withdrawn at noon on the 24th of April, amid the rejoicings of the people. Governor Packard at once abandoned the contest. The mem-

bers of his legislature joined the Nicholls legislature, and the affairs of the state were once more placed in her own hands.

The action of the president in withdrawing the troops from South Carolina and Louisiana gave great satisfaction to the country at large. A small class of extreme politicians were disposed to denounce it, but their partisan outcries were silenced by the general voice of approval which came from all parts of the Union. The nation was sick of civil war and partisan strife, and hailed the action of the president as the beginning of the long-hoped-for, long-delayed era of peace and good-will.

BOOK XXXIII.

THE HISTORY OF THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE SETTLEMENT OF CANADA TO THE PRESENT DAY.

Geographical Position of Canada—Discoveries of Cartier—The First Emigrants—The St. Lawrence Discovered and Named—Cartier at Montreal—Failure of the Enterprise—Colonies of Roberval and Cartier—Samuel Champlain—Des Monts Settles Nova Scotia—Quebec Founded—Death of Champlain—Character of the French Settlements—Intercourse with the Indians—Labors of the Jesuit Missionaries—Wars with the English Colonies—Canada Ceded to Great Britain—Settlement of Nova Scotia by the French—Argall's Expedition—Efforts of the English to Settle the Peninsula—Port Royal Taken by them—Nova Scotia Ceded to Great Britain—Expulsion of the Acadians—Settlement of New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island—The British Provinces during the American Revolution—The War of 1812-15—Canada after the Peace—Its Marked Prosperity—The Welland Canal—Rebellion of 1837—Union of Upper and Lower Canada—The Montreal Riots—Ottawa Made the Capital—The Fenian Invasion—The Dominion of Canada Established.

THE Dominion of Canada occupies the northern part of the continent of North America. It is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean, on the east by the Atlantic, on the south by the United States, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean and Alaska. It comprises the following provinces and

territories: British Columbia, 220,000 square miles; Manitoba, 14,340 square miles; New Brunswick, 27,322 square miles; Northwest territories (exclusive of Labrador and the islands in the Arctic Ocean), 2,750,000 square miles; Nova Scotia, 21,731 square miles; Ontario, 107,780 square miles; Prince Edward Island, 2,173 square miles; and Quebec, 193,355 square miles; making the total area 3,336,701 square miles. The population in 1875 was 3,712,331; of which Ontario has 1,620,851, and Quebec 1,191,516. Labrador is not included in the dominion, being a part of the province of Newfoundland, the only British American province which has not entered the dominion.

Until 1867 the term Canada was applied only to the provinces of Ontario and Quebec.

In the year 1534 Chabot, Admiral of France, induced Francis I. to send out an exploring expedition to America. The expedition was placed under the command of Jacques Cartier, a mariner of St. Malo, and despatched in April, 1534, for the purpose of exploring the American coast with a view to colonizing it. A quick voyage of twenty days carried Cartier to Newfoundland. Having passed through the Straits of Belleisle, he crossed the gulf and

entered a bay which he named *Des Chaleurs*, from the extreme heats he experienced there. He proceeded along the coast as far as the small inlet called *Gaspé*, where he landed and took formal possession of the country in the name of the King of France. Leaving *Gaspé* bay, Cartier discovered the great river of Canada, and sailed up the stream until he could see the land on either side. His explorations consumed the months of May, June and July. Being unprepared to pass the winter in America, the fleet sailed for Europe early in August, and reached *St. Malo* in safety in about thirty days.

The reports of Cartier concerning America aroused the deepest interest in France, and it was determined by the government to proceed at once to the founding of a colony in the new world. A fleet of three well-equipped ships was fitted out, and volunteers from some of the noblest families in France were not lacking. The whole company repaired to the cathedral, where they received the bishop's blessing, and on the 19th of May, 1535, the expedition sailed from *St. Malo*. The voyage was long and stormy, but *Newfoundland* was reached at length. Passing through the straits of *Belleisle*, they entered the gulf lying west of *Newfoundland* on the 10th of August, the festival of *St. Lawrence* the martyr, and gave to the gulf the name of that saint, which was subsequently applied to the great river emptying into it. The voyagers ascended the stream to the island since called *Orleans*. There the fleet anchored, while Cartier proceeded farther up the river to the chief Indian settlement on the island of *Hochelega*. It was the delightful season of September, and the country was beautiful and inviting. Cartier ascended a hill, at the foot of which the Indian settlement lay, and gazed with admiration at the magnificent region which spread out before him. He named the hill *Mont Real*, or *Royal mount*, a name which is now borne by the island and by the great city which marks the site of the Indian village.

The balminess of the autumn induced Cartier to hope that the climate would prove as mild as that of France; but a rigorous winter, which was rendered horrible by the prevalence of scurvy among the ships' crews, disheartened the whole expedition. The winter was spent at the *Isle of Orleans*, and in the early spring Cartier

erected a cross on the shore, to which was affixed a shield inscribed with the arms of France and a legend declaring *Francis I.* the true and rightful king of the country. The fleet then sailed for France, and arrived at *St. Malo* on the 6th of July, 1536. Cartier published a truthful account of his voyage, setting forth the severity of the Canadian climate and the absence of mines of precious metals. His report checked for the time the enthusiasm with which the French had regarded America, and for four years the plan of colonizing the new country was laid aside.

Some ardent spirits, however, still believed in the possibility of planting successful colonies in the new world and bringing that vast region under the dominion of France. Among these was *Francis de la Roque*, Lord of *Roberval*, a nobleman of *Picardy*. He was appointed, by King *Francis*, viceroy of the territories on or near the gulf and river of *St. Lawrence*, to which the high-sounding name of *Norimbega* was given, and was empowered to colonize it. The assistance of Cartier was necessary to such an undertaking, and he had the additional advantage of possessing the entire confidence of the king. *Roberval* was forced to employ him, and Cartier was given authority by the king to search the prisons and take from them such persons as he needed for the expedition. *Roberval* and Cartier, however, failed to agree, and their dissensions defeated the object of the undertaking. Cartier sailed from *St. Malo* in May, 1541, and ascended the *St. Lawrence* to a point near the present city of *Quebec*, where he built a fort. The winter was passed in idleness and discord, and in the spring of 1542 Cartier abandoned the attempt, and sailed away for France with his ships just as *Roberval* arrived with a large reinforcement.

Roberval was unable to accomplish more than Cartier. His new subjects had been largely drawn from the prisons, and they gave him considerable trouble, if we may judge from the efforts resorted to to keep them quiet. One of them was hanged for theft during the winter, several were put in irons, and a number of men and women were whipped. After remaining in Canada for a year, *Roberval* became disheartened, and re-embarked his subjects and returned to France.

Nearly thirty years passed away, during which the French made no effort to secure

to themselves the region of the St. Lawrence. Their fishermen, however, continued to frequent the American waters. By the close of the sixteenth century 150 vessels were engaged in the fisheries of Newfoundland, and voyages for the purpose of trading with the Indians had become common. In 1598 the Marquis de la Roche, a nobleman of Brittany, attempted to plant a colony on the Isle of Sable. The colonists consisted of criminals from the prisons of France, and the effort proved a failure.

In 1600 Chauvin obtained a patent from the crown, conferring upon him a monopoly of the fur trade, and Pontgravé, a merchant of St. Malo, became his partner in the enterprise. Two successful voyages were made to Canada, and Chauvin intended

territory embraced the St. Lawrence region, the Rouen company were unable for the present to accomplish anything. Des Monts proceeded with his preparations, and in March, 1604, an expedition consisting of two ships was sent out to Acadie, or Nova Scotia. The summer was passed in trading with the Indians and exploring the coast, and in the autumn the colonists made a settlement on the island of St. Croix, at the mouth of the river of the same name. In the spring of 1605 they abandoned this settlement and removed to Port Royal, now known as Annapolis. Efforts were made to find a more southern location in the latter part of 1605 and 1606, but the expeditions sent out for this purpose were driven back by storms, or wrecked among the



SCENE ON THE ST. LAWRENCE.

founding a colony there. His death, in 1602, prevented the execution of this plan.

In 1603 a company of merchants of Rouen was organized, and Samuel Champlain, an able and experienced officer of the French navy, was placed in charge of an expedition, and sent to Canada to explore the country. He was in every way qualified for the task committed to him, and after making a thorough and systematic examination of the region of the St. Lawrence, and fixing upon Quebec as the proper site for a fort, returned to France and laid before his employers his report, which is still valuable for its accurate description of the country and the manners of the natives.

Soon after Champlain's return to France a patent was issued to Des Monts, conferring upon him the sole right to colonize the vast region lying between the fortieth and forty-sixth parallels of latitude. As this

shoals of Cape Cod, and the colonists decided to remain at Port Royal. Thus the permanency of the colony was established. Some years later a number of Jesuit missionaries were sent out to Port Royal. These labored diligently among the tribes between the Penobscot and the Kennebec, and not only spread the Christian faith among them, but won for the French the constant affection of the savages. During all her contests with the English in America, these tribes remained the faithful and unwavering allies of France.

In the meantime the French merchants had succeeded in obtaining a revocation of the impolitic monopoly of Des Monts. A company of merchants of St. Malo and Dieppe was formed, and an expedition was sent out to Canada under Champlain, who "aimed not at the profits of trade, but at the glory of founding a state." On the 3d

of July, 1608, the city of Quebec was begun by the erection of one or two cottages. In 1609 Champlain, with but two Europeans, joined a party of Hurons from Montreal, and Algonquins from Quebec, in an expedition against the Five Nations. He ascended the Sorel, explored the lake which is now called by his name, and examined a considerable part of northern New York. The religious disputes of France spread to the colony, and Champlain was obliged to use all his energy and authority to overcome the evils which these inflicted upon the infant settlement. He succeeded in overcoming them, and by his energy and perseverance the fortunes of Quebec were placed beyond the reach of failure. Champlain died in 1635, and was buried in "New France," of which he is justly called "the father."

The efforts of Champlain established the settlement of Canada upon a sure basis of success, and after his death settlers came over to Canada from France in considerable numbers. Quebec became an important place, and other settlements were founded. It was apparent from the first that the French colonies must occupy a very different footing from those of England. The soil and the climate were both unfavorable to agriculture, and the French settlements were of necessity organized chiefly as trading-posts. The trade in furs was immensely valuable, and the French sought to secure the exclusive possession of it. To this end it was indispensable to secure the friendship of the Indians, especially of those tribes inhabiting the country to the north and west of the great lakes.

In 1634, three years before the death of Champlain, Louis XIII. granted a charter to a company of French nobles and merchants, bestowing upon them the entire region embraced in the valley of the St. Lawrence, then known as New France. Richelieu and Champlain, who were members of this company, were wise enough to understand that their countrymen were not suited to the task of colonization, and that if France was to found an empire in the new world, it must be by civilizing and Christianizing the Indians, and bringing them under the rule of her king, and not by seeking to people Canada with Frenchmen. From this time it became the policy of France to bring the savages under her sway. The efforts of the settlers in Canada were mainly devoted to trading with the

Indians, and no attempt was made to found an agricultural state.

The task of Christianizing and civilizing the savages was confided to the Jesuit missionaries. These pushed their operations far beyond the limits of Canada, and by the close of the year 1646 the French had established a line of missions extending across the continent from Lake Superior to Nova Scotia, and between sixty and seventy missionaries were actively engaged in instructing and preaching to the savages. How far the labors of these devoted men were actually successful will never be known, as their work was of a character which cannot be submitted to any human test. They did not succeed, however, in changing either the character or the habits of their converts. They were still wild men, who scorned to engage in the labor of cultivating their lands, and lived by hunting and fishing. They learned to engage in the religious services of the missionaries: to chant matins and vespers, but they made no approach to civilization. When in after years the zeal of the whites for their conversion became less active, and the missionaries less numerous, they fell back into their old ways.

Though the French were exceedingly successful in establishing friendly relations with the Indians dwelling in Canada, they were almost constantly at war with the Iroquois, or, as they were afterwards called by the English, the Five Nations, who dwelt south of the lakes.

The efforts of the French to control the valley of the Mississippi at length brought them in conflict with the English colonies, and led to several wars between them. The events of these wars have been related in *The History of the United States*, to which the reader is referred, and need not be repeated here. The struggle was ended by the capture of Quebec in 1759 by the English army under General Wolfe, and of Montreal by General Amherst in 1760. On the 10th of February, 1763, the treaty of Paris was signed. By this treaty all the French possessions in North America east of the Mississippi were ceded to Great Britain. Thus Canada became an English province.

Nova Scotia was discovered by the Cabots, but the first settlement was made, as we have seen, by Des Mouts in 1604. He named the country Acadia. For eight years efforts were made to found settlements

at Port Royal, now Annapolis, and other places. In 1613 Captain Samuel Argall, commanding an English vessel, discovered these settlements and destroyed them, claiming the country for England in right of the original discovery by Cabot. In 1621 James I. of England granted the peninsula to Sir William Alexander, under the name of Nova Scotia. Alexander intended to colonize the country upon an extensive scale, and sent out several companies of emigrants. These found the places they intended to colonize already settled by the French, who had returned after Argall's departure, and sailed back to England. The French settlements increased rapidly, and soon covered the greater part of the peninsula. Under Cromwell the English claim to Nova Scotia was renewed, and in 1654 a strong expedition reduced the French to submission to Great Britain. In 1667 the treaty of Breda restored Nova Scotia to France. After this several efforts were made by the English to conquer Nova Scotia. These are related in *The History of the United States*, to which the reader is referred. In 1710 an expedition from Boston, aided by an English fleet, took Port Royal, drove the French out of the greater part of the province, and annexed it to Great Britain under the name of Nova Scotia. The name of Port Royal was changed to Annapolis, in honor of the English queen. In 1713 the treaty of Utrecht ceded Nova Scotia to Great Britain.

A considerable part of Nova Scotia still remained in the hands of the Acadians, or French settlers. It lay at the head of the Bay of Fundy, and was defended by two French forts. This region was the oldest French colony in North America, having been settled sixteen years before the landing of the Pilgrims, but was regarded by the English as within their jurisdiction. In May, 1755, during the French and Indian war, an expedition of three thousand New England troops was despatched from Boston, under Colonel John Winslow, to attack these forts and establish the English authority over the French settlements. Upon reaching the Bay of Fundy Winslow was joined by three hundred English regulars, under Colonel Monckton, who assumed the command. The forts were taken with comparatively little effort, and the authority of England was extended over the whole of Nova Scotia.

The Acadians agreed to acknowledge the authority of their new masters, and to observe a strict neutrality between France and England in the war; and the English on their part promised not to require of them the usual oaths of allegiance; to excuse them from bearing arms against France, and to protect them in the exercise of the Catholic religion.

The Acadians numbered about 17,000 souls. They were a simple and harmless people, and were enjoying in a marked degree the blessings of industry and thrift. They had begun their settlements by depending upon the fur-trade and the fisheries for their support, but had abandoned these pursuits for that of agriculture, which was already yielding them rich rewards for their skill and labor. They were proud of their farms and took but little interest in public affairs, scarcely knowing what was transpiring in the world around them. It is hard to imagine a more peaceful or a happier community than this one at the time they passed under the baleful rule of England. Crime was unknown among them, and they seldom carried their disputes before the English magistrates, but settled them by the arbitration of their old men. They were devoted Catholics; and were attached to the rule of France by language and religion; but submitted peacefully to the rule of the English and faithfully observed the terms of their surrender.

Unfortunately for the Acadians their possessions soon began to excite the envy of the English. The English authorities prepared a cunningly-devised scheme for dispossessing these simple people of their homes, and now proceeded to put it in execution. The usual oaths of allegiance had not been tendered to the Acadians upon their surrender, as it was known that as Frenchmen and Catholics they could not take them, as they required them to bear arms against their own brethren in Canada, and to make war upon their religion. It was resolved now to offer the oaths to them, and thus either drive them into rebellion or force them to abandon their homes. When this intention was known, the priests urged their people to refuse the oaths. The Acadians hesitated.

The officers sent by the English authorities to enforce their demands acted with a haughtiness and cruelty which added greatly to the sorrows of the Acadians. Their titles to their lands were declared null and

void, and all their papers and title-deeds were taken from them. Their property was taken for the public service without compensation, and if they failed to furnish wood at the times required, the English soldiers "might take their houses for fuel." Their guns were seized, and they were deprived of their boats on the pretext that they might be used to communicate with the French in Canada. At last, wearied out with these oppressions, the Acadians offered to swear allegiance to Great Britain. This, however, formed no part of the plan of their persecutors, and they were answered, that by a British statute persons who had been once offered the oaths, and who had refused them, could not be permitted to take them, but must be treated as popish recusants.

This brought matters to a crisis, and the English now resolved to strike the decisive blow. A proclamation was issued, requiring "the old men, and young men, as well as all lads over ten years of age," to assemble on the 5th of September, 1755, at a certain hour, at

designated places in their respective districts, to hear the "wishes of the king." In the greater number of places the order was obeyed. What happened at the village of Grand Pré, the principal settlement, will show the course pursued by the English in all the districts. Four hundred and eighteen of the men of the place assembled. They were unarmed, and were marched into the church, which was securely guarded. Winslow, the New England commander, then addressed them as follows: "You are convened together to manifest to you his majesty's final resolution to the French inhabitants of this his province. Your lands and tenements, cattle of all kinds, and live stock of all sorts, are forfeited to the crown, and you yourselves are to be removed from

this his province. I am, through his majesty's goodness, directed to allow you liberty to carry off your money and household goods, as many as you can, without discommoding the vessels you go in." He then declared them, together with their wives and children, a total of nineteen hundred and twenty-three souls, the king's prisoners. The announcement took the unfortunate men by surprise, and filled them with the deepest indignation; but they were unarmed, and unable to resist. They were held close prisoners in the church, and their homes, which they had left in the morning full of hope, were to see them no more. They were kept without food for themselves or their children



VIEW OF MONTREAL FROM MOUNT ROYAL.

that day, and were poorly fed during the remainder of their captivity. They were held in confinement until the 10th of September, when it was announced that the vessels were in readiness to carry them away. They were not to be allowed to join their brethren in Canada, lest they should serve as a reinforcement to the French in that province, but were to be scattered as paupers through the English colonies, among people of another race and a different faith.

On the morning of the 10th, the captives were drawn up six deep. The English, intending to make their trial as bitter and as painful as possible, had resolved upon the barbarous measure of separating the families of their victims. The young men

and boys were driven at the point of the bayonet from the church to the ship, and compelled to embark. They passed amid the rows of their mothers and sisters, who, kneeling, prayed heaven to bless and keep them. Then the fathers and husbands were forced by the bayonet on board of another ship, and as the vessels were now full, the women and children were left behind until more ships could come for them. They were kept for weeks near the sea, suffering greatly from lack of proper shelter and food, and it was December before the last of them were removed. Those who tried to escape were ruthlessly shot down by the sentinels.

In some of the settlements the designs of the English were suspected and the proclamation was not heeded. Some of the people fled to Canada; others sought shelter with the Indians, who received them with kindness; others still fled to the woods, hoping to hide there till the storm was over. The English at once proceeded to lay waste their homes; the country was made desolate in order that the fugitives might be compelled through starvation to surrender themselves.

Seven thousand Acadians were torn from their homes and scattered among the English colonies on the Atlantic coast, from New Hampshire to Georgia. Families were utterly broken up, never to be reunited. The colonial newspapers for many years were filled with mournful advertisements, inquiring for a lost husband or wife; parents sought their missing children, and children their parents in this way. But of all these inquiries few were answered. The exiles were doomed to a parting worse than death, and their captors had done their work so well that human ingenuity could not undo it. Some of those who had been carried to Georgia attempted to return to their homes. They escaped to sea in boats, and coasted from point to point northward, until they reached New England, when they were sternly ordered back. Their homes were their own no longer. More than three thousand Acadians fled to Canada, and of these about fifteen hundred settled south of the Ristigouche. Upon the surrender of Canada they were again subjected to the persecutions of the English.

In 1763 Cape Breton and Prince Edward island were made a part of the province of Nova Scotia, but in 1770 the latter was separated from it. The growth of

Nova Scotia was greatly promoted by the result of the American revolution. Large numbers of the royalist refugees from the United States settled there during and after the war, and gave a new impetus to the progress of the province.

New Brunswick originally formed a part of the colony of Acadia or New France. The first settlement was made by the French on the Bay of Chaleurs in 1639. In 1672 other settlements were made on the Miramichi river, and at other points on the eastern coast. In 1713 the province, as a part of Acadia, was ceded to Great Britain by France by the treaty of Utrecht. In 1764 the first English settlement was made on the banks of the Miramichi. In 1784 New Brunswick was formally separated from Nova Scotia, and became a distinct colony. At the close of the American revolution 5,000 royalist refugees settled in the province.

Prince Edward island was settled by the French, and was named by them *Isle St. Jean* (St. John's island). It was held by France until 1763, when it was ceded to Great Britain. A few settlements had been planted in the island previous to this, but the permanent colonization did not begin until after the cession to Great Britain. The island was placed by the British crown under the government of Nova Scotia. In 1768 it was given a separate government. In 1800 the name of the island was changed by an act of the colonial legislature to Prince Edward island, in honor of Prince Edward, Duke of Kent, the father of Queen Victoria.

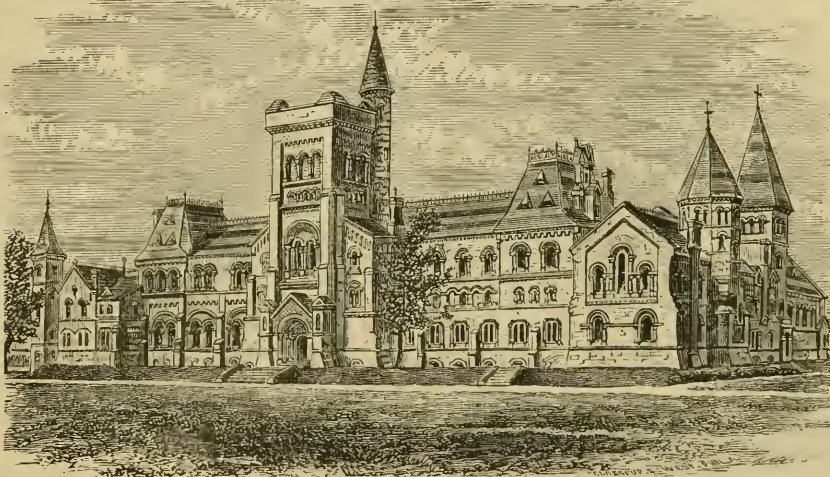
During the American revolution Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward island, and Newfoundland remained loyal to Great Britain. The part played by these provinces in this war is related in *The History of the United States*, to which the reader is referred. During the second war between the United States and England several unsuccessful efforts were made by the former power to conquer Canada. For the events of this war the reader is referred to *The History of the United States*.

The history of the British American provinces after the peace of 1815 was quiet and uneventful. The government of Canada was administered under the act of parliament of 1774, organizing the province of Quebec, as the newly-acquired region was then called. By the provisions of this

act the government was administered by a council of not less than seventeen nor more than twenty-three members, appointed by the King of England. This council had power to levy taxes for public roads or buildings, but for no other purpose. Such ordinances as it might pass concerning religion were invalid until they had received the sanction of the king. The criminal laws of Great Britain were extended to the colony. In 1791 the British parliament divided Canada into two provinces, called Upper and Lower Canada, and gave to each a legislative council appointed by the crown, and a popular assembly chosen by the people. Over each province was placed a governor appointed by the crown. In the hope of introducing the Church of England

of steamboats upon the St. Lawrence and the lakes did much to promote the growth of Canada, and increased its internal and foreign commerce in a marked degree. In 1824 the Welland canal was begun, and was completed in 1829, giving a continuous water passage from Lake Ontario to Lake Erie. It was followed by the Lachine and other canals, all of which have been important agents in the growth of Canadian commerce.

In the early part of the present century a bitter dispute arose in Canada concerning the proper interpretation of the act of parliament for the government of the two provinces. One party insisted that Canada was in possession of a transcript of the British constitution, and that the council,



UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

as the religious establishment of the provinces, an area of 3,400,000 acres of the public land was set apart for the endowment of the clergy. The effort proved a failure, and in 1854 the lands were devoted to secular purposes, and the idea of establishing a state church was abandoned.

The provinces grew steadily in population and prosperity, and if their advance was not as rapid as that of their southern neighbor, the United States, yet it was as substantial. As the bitter feelings engendered by the war died away, cordial relations sprang up between Canada and the United States, and a profitable commerce was inaugurated between them, and grew steadily year by year until it attained its present vast proportions. The introduction

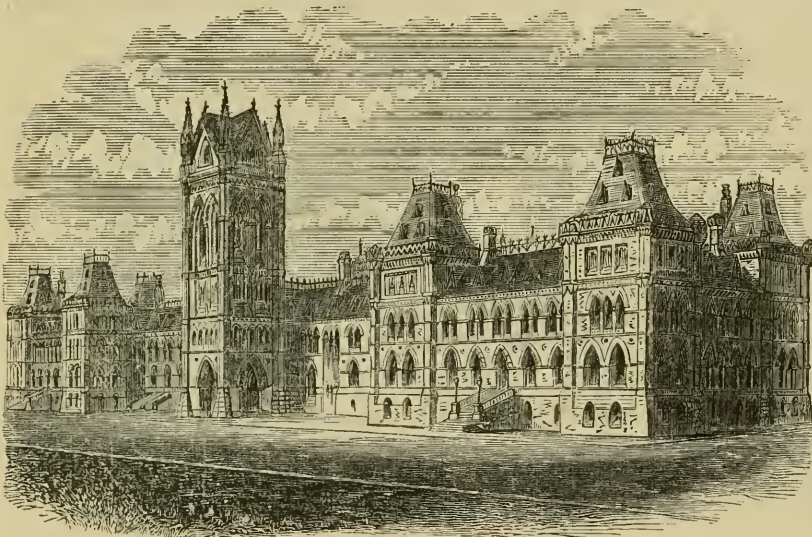
which constituted the advisers of the governors in matters of state, should be responsible to the popular assembly. The other party maintained that the council was responsible to the governor only, and that the assembly had no claim upon it. The disputes ran very high, and the trouble was increased by the general course of the governors of the provinces, who administered their governments in an arbitrary manner, paying little attention to the popular assembly, and utterly disregarding the demands of the people. In Lower Canada the popular discontent was very great, and in 1837 a portion of the inhabitants of that province, under the leadership of Louis Joseph Papineau, took up arms with the avowed purpose of throwing off the rule of

Great Britain. They were defeated by the government troops in a series of engagements, and were at length compelled to submit. Papineau and the other leaders fled the country. In December, 1837, the popular party of Upper Canada, indignant at the arbitrary measures of Sir Francis Head, the governor, rose in rebellion under the leadership of William Lyon Mackenzie. The revolt was suppressed by the government forces after some serious conflicts with the insurgents. For some weeks the insurgents had possession of Navy island, situated in the Niagara river, just above the falls. Considerable sympathy was manifested for them by the people of the state of New York, and substantial aid was

into the stream and set on fire. She drifted down to the falls, and plunged over them in a blaze. The British minister at Washington at once declared the responsibility of his government for the capture of the boat, and justified it on the ground of self-defence. In the meantime the president had sent General Wool with a strong force to the Canadian border with orders to prevent any expedition from leaving this country to aid the Canadians. He compelled the force on Navy island to surrender, but the border war continued until the close of 1838, when it was ended.

These outbreaks drew the attention of the British government more closely to the defective system of government in operation

in Canada. The people of Canada addressed petitions to the crown, praying for a union of the provinces. This prayer was granted, and in 1841 the two provinces were united under one government, which was modelled upon the British system, and was in every respect a vast



PARLIAMENT HOUSE, OTTAWA.

rendered them in spite of the efforts of the President of the United States and the Governor of New York to prevent it. Navy island forms a part of Canada, and lies near the shore of that country. The insurgents in possession of the island employed the steambot "Caroline" to convey men and provisions from the town of Schlosser, on the American shore, to the island. The British authorities in Canada determined to destroy the boat. One dark night in December, 1837, a detachment from Canada was sent to Navy island for this purpose. Not finding the "Caroline" there, they went over to Schlosser, where she was moored at her dock. The boat was captured after a short struggle, in which one American was killed, and was carried out

improvement upon the former establishments. The country was now styled the Province of Canada. In 1849 a general amnesty to all who had taken part in the rebellion of 1837 was passed.

In 1849 a bill was introduced into the Canadian parliament to indemnify certain persons for the losses sustained by them during the rebellion. This measure was bitterly opposed by the people of Montreal, and gave rise to a formidable and disgraceful riot, in which the parliament was dispersed and the parliament house burned down by the mob. This riot induced the parliament to remove the seat of government to Toronto for the next two years, and to Quebec for the four succeeding years. In 1857 Ottawa was selected as

the permanent seat of government, and costly public buildings were erected there for the use of the various departments of the state.

In the spring of 1866 Canada was invaded by the Fenians, an organization of Irishmen dwelling in the United States. This insane movement was met promptly by the Canadian authorities, and the President of the United States sent General Meade, with a sufficient force of troops, to the Canadian border to arrest the Fenian leaders and seize their supplies. General Meade executed his orders with promptness and decision, and the Canadian authorities drove back the force that had entered their country. The affair was over in a few days.

In the meantime measures had been set on foot for the union of all the British provinces in North America. The initiative was taken by the province of Canada, and the scheme was pushed forward with vigor and ability. On the 4th of December, 1866, delegates appointed by the legislative assemblies of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick met at London to arrange the terms of a confederation. This task was successfully performed, and on the 7th of February, 1867, a bill was introduced into the British parliament

creating the union. It passed both houses, and on the 29th of March received the royal assent. On the 22d of May the queen issued her proclamation appointing the 1st of July, 1867, as the day from which the new confederation should date its existence. The new state was styled the Dominion of Canada, and was given the right of self-government. The Governor-General of Canada is appointed by the crown, but all the other offices are filled by the people or by their chosen delegates. Canada is thus practically independent of Great Britain, though constituting an important part of the British empire, and owing allegiance to the British sovereign. Besides the federal government, the seat of which is fixed at Ottawa, each province of the dominion has its local government, and is independent of the others in the management of its domestic affairs.

In 1870 Manitoba and the northwest territories were purchased from the Hudson Bay Company and added to the dominion. In 1871 British Columbia joined the confederation, and in 1873 Prince Edward island did likewise. At present (1878) Newfoundland is the only British province in North America which has not entered into the Canadian union.

BOOK XXXIV.

THE HISTORY OF THE MODERN KINGDOM OF PERSIA.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE FALL OF THE PARTHIAN EMPIRE TO THE PRESENT TIME.

Extent and Situation of the Modern Kingdom—The Persians Throw Off the Parthian Yoke and Establish their Independence—Reign of Artaxerxes—He Restores Magism—Reigns of the Two Sapers—Varanes V.—Khosru Nurshivan—His Great Reign—The Endless Peace—Conquests of the Persian King—Khosru Parviz Wrests the Asiatic and African Provinces from the Roman Empire—The Splendor of his Court—Mohammed's Prediction—Last Years of Khosru—His Fate—Siroes Becomes King—The Arabian Conquest—Magism Exterminated—Persia Becomes Mohammedan—Restoration of the Independence of Persia by Sofar—The Seljukian Turks Con-

quer the Kingdom—Togrul Beg—Reign of Malek Shah—The Tartar Conquest—Ismail Re-establishes the Native Kingdom—Reign of Abbas—Persia Conquered by the Afghans—Nadir Shah Drives them Out and Restores the Kingdom—His Reign—Aga Mohammed Khan—His Successors—Wars with Russia—Accession of Nasr-ed-Din—War with England—The Shah's Visit to Europe.

THE modern kingdom of Persia is situated in western Asia, and lies between latitude $25^{\circ} 30'$ and $39^{\circ} 50' N.$, and longitude 44° and $62^{\circ} E.$ Its greatest length from northwest to southeast is 1,200 miles, and its greatest breadth 850 miles. It comprises an area of about 600,000 square

miles, and contains a population of between six and seven millions. It is bounded on the north by the Russian empire, the Caspian Sea, and Khiva; on the east by Bokhara, Afghanistan, and Beluchistan; on the south by the Indian Ocean and the Persian Gulf; and on the west by the Turkish empire.

The events of the history of the Persian empire, from its foundation to its destruction by Alexander the Great, have been related in Book IX. of this work. The subsequent history of Persia under the Parthian rule is related in Book XIV.

The modern kingdom of Persia, as we have seen, arose upon the ruins of the Parthian empire. Arsaces XXX., the last of the Parthian kings, began his reign in A. D. 213. Shortly afterward the Roman Emperor Caracalla renewed the war with Parthia. In 216 he crossed the Euphrates, and advancing through Mesopotamia to the Tigris, took Arbela and forced the Parthians back to the mountains. The next year he was murdered, and his successor, Macrinus, undertook to continue the war, but was defeated in two pitched battles by Arsaces, and was obliged to purchase peace by the surrender of all the Roman conquests east of the Euphrates. These successes restored the old limits of the Parthian empire, and seemed to give back to it its former vigor; but at this moment it received its death-blow.

The Persians had long been restless and discontented under the Parthian rule. Although the Romans had been defeated, the empire was distracted with the claims of pretenders who disputed the crown with Arsaces XXX. "Two branches of the Arsacid family, both of them settled in Bactria, were at feud with the reigning prince; and these offended relatives carried their enmity to such a length as to consider submission to a foreigner a less evil than subjection to the *de facto* head of their house. The success of Artabanus (Arsaces XXX.) in the war against Rome had no effect upon his domestic foes." This state of affairs encouraged the Persians to throw off their submission to the Parthians and recover their independence. "The Persians had, in the original arrangements of the Parthian empire, been treated with a certain amount of favor. They had been allowed to retain their native monarchs—a concession which naturally involved the continuance of the nation's laws, customs,

and traditions. Their religion had not been persecuted, and had even in the early times attracted a considerable amount of court favor. But it would seem that latterly the privileges of the nation had been diminished, while their prejudices were wantonly shocked." The tributary King of Persia under Parthia at this time was Artaxerxes, or Ardeshir, as he is called by the native historians, the son of Sassan, who claimed to be descended from the ancient line of Cyrus. Encouraged by the dissensions in the Parthian kingdom, he took up arms against his sovereign in A. D. 220, or perhaps a little later, and in a short while succeeded in establishing the independence of Persia proper, or the modern province of Faristan. Then turning his arms eastward against Carmania (the modern Kerman), he reduced it, and next proceeded to overrun Media. The Parthian king now took the field against his rebellious vassal, but was defeated and slain in the great battle of Hormuz, A. D. 226. The struggle was continued by the sons of Arsaces, who were aided by the King of Armenia; but the Persians were everywhere successful, and after a struggle of a few years the old Parthian empire yielded, and Artaxerxes was left in undisputed possession of the modern kingdom of Persia. He at once proceeded to consolidate his kingdom, and restored the ancient religion of Zoroaster and the authority of the Magi. The dynasty which he founded is known as the Sassanidæ. It held the throne for more than four hundred years, and gave to Persia twenty-nine kings. But few of these are worthy of historic mention.

Sapor I., the son of the founder of the kingdom, was a vigorous ruler. He became involved in a war with the Romans, and defeated their armies and took the Emperor Valerian prisoner. Sapor II., the ninth king of the new dynasty, was born in A. D. 309, and reigned seventy-one years, or from the day of his birth. As we have related elsewhere, he waged frequent and bloody wars with the Roman Emperors Constantius and Julian. The latter was defeated and killed, A. D. 363. Varanes V., the twelfth king, reigned twenty years. He was famous for the splendor of his court and his generosity. He drove back a Tartar horde which endeavored to overrun Persia. Chosroes, or Khosro Nushirvan, the twenty-first king, came to the throne in A. D. 531, and

reigned until 579. He was one of Persia's greatest monarchs, and is regarded by his countrymen as a model of justice, wisdom, generosity, and statesmanship. He found his kingdom involved in a war with the Roman empire. The Emperor Justinian was anxious for peace, and purchased it at the price of 11,000 pounds of gold, A. D. 533. The two sovereigns termed this an *endless peace*, but in 540, Chosroes, who had become jealous of the great successes of Justinian in Africa, Sicily, and Italy,

peace upon condition of paying to Persia annually the sum of 30,000 pieces of silver. Chosroes, besides conducting these wars with the Romans, carried his conquests beyond the Oxus and Indus on the east, and into Arabia on the south. His reign is regarded as the golden age of modern Persia. He "built or repaired a number of caravansaries, bazaars, bridges, and other public edifices; founded colleges and schools, encouraged learning, and introduced at his court the philosophers of Greece."



VIEW OF TEHERAN, THE CAPITAL OF PERSIA.

suddenly renewed the war, and invading Syria and Palestine with a powerful army, speedily conquered those countries. The great general Belisarius was sent to command the Roman army, and in two successive campaigns (A. D. 541-542) compelled the Persian king to retire to his own dominions without striking a blow. Belisarius was then removed from his command and sent to direct the operations in Italy, and the Persian arms were once more successful. The war was continued until 561, when the Romans were obliged to make

Chosroes was succeeded by his son Hormuz III., a weak and wicked prince, who was put to death by one of his generals in 590. The Roman Emperor Maurice took up the cause of Khosru Parviz, the son of the murdered monarch, and secured to him his father's throne. Khosru, grateful for this assistance, maintained the most friendly relations with the empire during the life of Maurice; but upon the assassination of that monarch turned his arms against the empire and wrested some of its finest provinces from it. Syria, Palestine, Egypt,

Carthage, and Tripoli were subdued, and for a time were subject to the Persian king. Jerusalem suffered severely. "The devout offerings of three hundred years," says Gibbon, "were rifled in one sacrilegious day. The patriarch Zachariah and the true cross were transported into Persia, and the massacre of 90,000 Christians is attributed to the Jews and Arabs who swelled the disorder of the Persian monarch. . . . Egypt itself, the only province which had been exempt since the time of Diocletian from foreign and domestic wars, was again subdued by the successor of Cyrus. . . . His western trophy was erected, not on the walls of Carthage, but in the neighborhood of Tripoli. The Greek colonies of Cyrené were finally extirpated; and the conqueror, following the footsteps of Alexander, returned in triumph through the sands of the Libyan desert." In another campaign he subdued the entire region between the Euphrates and the Bosphorus. Chalcedon was taken after a long siege, and for ten years a Persian camp was maintained within sight of Constantinople. Khosru is also celebrated for the magnificence and luxury of his court. "Six thousand guards successively mounted before the palace gate; the service of the interior apartments was performed by 12,000 slaves; and the various treasures of gold, silver, gems, silk, and aromatics were deposited in a hundred subterranean vaults. The voice of flattery, and perhaps of fiction, is not ashamed to compute the 30,000 rich hangings that adorned the walls; the 40,000 columns of silver, or more probably of marble and plated wood, that supported the roof; and the 1,000 globes of gold suspended in the dome to imitate the motions of the planets and the constellations of the zodiac." The "Great King" was surrounded by poets of rare skill, his stables held 50,000 horses of the purest blood, and his harem contained 3,000 of the loveliest of women, the most beautiful of whom was Shirin, or Irene, a Greek Christian, whose beauty and whose passion for the king constitute the favorite theme of Persian poets. "While the Persian monarch contemplated the wonders of his art and power, he received an epistle from an obscure citizen of Mecca, inviting him to acknowledge Mohammed as the apostle of God. He rejected the invitation and tore the epistle. 'It is thus,' exclaimed the Arabian prophet, 'that God will tear the kingdom and reject the sup-

lications of Khosru.'" The last years of Khosru justified this prediction, which seemed so absurd at the time of its utterance. The Emperor Heraclius awoke from the lethargy that marked the first years of his reign, drove the Persians back from the Bosphorus (A. D. 622), and in six years stripped Khosru of all his foreign conquests, invaded Persia, and captured, plundered, and burned his famous palace at Dastagerd. In the midst of his misfortunes Khosru was seized by his eldest son, Siroes; eighteen of his sons were put to death before his eyes, and he was thrown into a dungeon, where he died five days later, A. D. 628.

Siroes, or Shirueh, at once mounted the throne, and concluded a peace with the Emperor Heraclius. He reigned only eight months, and in the four years which followed his death nine kings successively reigned over Persia. These "disputed with the sword or dagger the fragments of an exhausted monarchy. Every province and each city of Persia was the scene of independence, of discord, and blood."

In 632 Yezdegerd III. united the factions under him. It was too late to save the old Persian system, however, for the Mohammedan Arabs were already directing their invincible armies against the kingdom. Yezdegerd strove manfully to beat them back, but in vain. He was defeated in a great battle at Cadesia in 636, and again at Nehavend in 641. In the latter fight 100,000 men are said to have fallen in the Persian ranks. The battle decided the fate of Persia. Yezdegerd was forced to seek safety in flight; he wandered a fugitive in the eastern provinces until 651, when a miller, tempted by the richness of his dress, put him to death, and threw his body into the river. With him ended the line of the Sassanidæ and the religion of the Magi.

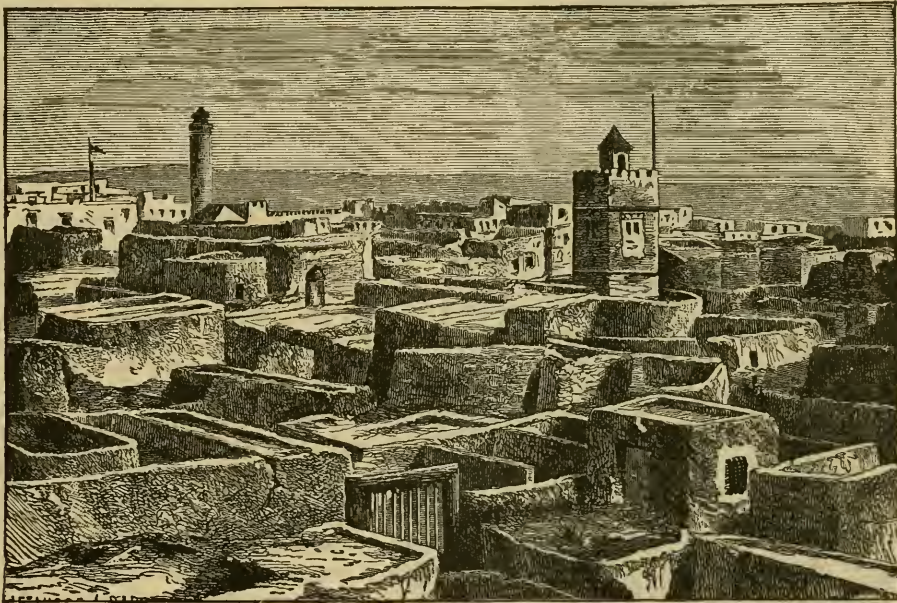
The Mohammedans, upon becoming masters of the kingdom after the battle of Nehavend, inaugurated a cruel persecution of the Magi. The adherents to the ancient religion were massacred without mercy, and only a handful of daring souls ventured to adhere to the faith of their fathers.

For two hundred years Persia was simply a province of the empire of the khalifs, and during this time the people became Mohammedans in faith. Though they accepted the religion of their conquerors, the Persians were by no means satisfied with their rule. In 868 Soffar, an adventurer,

who had been a pewterer, and afterwards a bandit chief, raised the standard of revolt. The people flocked to him, and the viceroy of the khalif was driven out, and the independence of the country restored. The successful leader founded a dynasty known as the Soffarides, which embraced four kings in all. These maintained their authority only by constant wars with the khalifs and the rebellious nobles of the kingdom. About the beginning of the tenth century this dynasty came to an end, and Persia was divided between the houses of Samani and Dilami. The first of these reigned over eastern Persia and Afghanis-

generous king. His son, Malek Shah, succeeded him at his death in 1072. "Malek Shah," says Gibbon, was, "by his personal merit and the extent of his empire, the greatest prince of his age." He died in 1092, and the next thirty years were passed in wars between his sons. Sanjar, the last of the house of Togrul, died in 1175, and for nearly a century anarchy prevailed in Persia.

In 1258 Hoolaku Khan, the grandson of Zinghis Khan, conquered Persia and established the seat of his empire at Maragha, in Azerbaijan. From this time the history of the country is uneventful.



A PERSIAN TOWN.

tan; the other governed the balance of the kingdom.

Thus divided Persia fell an easy prey to the Seljukian Turks. In 1042 Togrul Beg having made himself master of Khorasan, declared himself King of Persia, and in less than twenty years reduced the whole kingdom to submission to him. The neighboring countries were also subdued. Bagdad was taken, and the Arabian khalif made prisoner. The conqueror treated the commander of the faithful with honor and reverence, and was vested by him with the temporal rule of the Mohammedan empire.

Togrul Beg was succeeded on the throne of Persia by his nephew, Alp Arslan, who was also a great conqueror, and a just and

In 1393 Timour or Tamerlane, the great Tartar conqueror, burst into Persia and speedily reduced the kingdom to submission to him, scattering ruin and desolation through every part of it. The reigns of his successors make up a period of almost constant civil war, extending through more than a century.

About 1503 Ismail, a descendant of the famous saint, Sheik Suffi, summoned his followers and claimed the throne. In four years he made himself master of all Persia, and founded the Suffavean dynasty. He died in 1523, and his son Tamasp succeeded him on the throne. This monarch reigned fifty-three years—a period of great prosperity to the country. "Anthony Jenkinson, one of the earliest of English adven-

turers to Persia, visited the court of Tamasp as an envoy from Queen Elizabeth; but the intolerance of the Mohammedan sovereign drove the Christian from his presence."

At the death of Tamasp his sons disputed the crown among themselves. At last his

He tolerated all forms of religion, and was especially friendly to the few Christians who came into his kingdom. "His revenues were spent on improvements. Caravansaries, bridges, aqueducts, bazaars, mosques, and colleges arose in every quarter. Ispahan, the capital, was splendidly embellished. Mushed was ornamented; and the ruins of the palaces of Furrabad in Mazunderan, and of Ashruff in Astrabad, still declare his taste and munificence." In his administration of justice he was severe, and in his later years his punishments were sudden and summary, and were inflicted upon mere suspicion. To his own family he was a cruel tyrant; he put to death his eldest son because he suspected him of meditating a rebellion, and put out the eyes of all the rest. He died in 1628, and after his death the Suffavean dynasty steadily declined. For nearly a century the history of Persia is little more than a record of the names of her kings.

In 1722 the Afghans invaded Persia, and reduced the country, captured Ispahan, and set up a dynasty of their own. The first king was Mahmoud Ghiljee, who began his reign by a terrible massacre of the male population of Ispahan, and ended it a madman. The Afghans ruled Persia for seven years, and their reign is marked by the most horrible tyranny.

At length, in 1730, Nadir Shah, a chief of the Afshar tribe, took up arms and declared his determination to drive every Afghan from the soil of Persia. He revived the claims of the son of the last Suffavean king, and the people flocked to his standard. In a series of vigorous campaigns he defeated the Afghans and destroyed them almost to a man. The last of the Afghan kings was recognized while endeavoring to escape from Persia, and was slain. "Thus was destroyed the grisly phantom which for seven

wretched years had brooded over Persia, converting her fairest provinces into deserts, her cities into charnel-houses, and glutting itself with the blood of a million of her people."

In 1736 Nadir deposed the king whom



NASR-ED-DIN, SHAH OF PERSIA.

grandson Abbas was proclaimed king in 1587. He was a great and powerful monarch, and successfully defended his kingdom against the efforts of the Turks to conquer it. During his reign a commercial intercourse was established with England.

he had restored to his throne, and assumed the sovereignty himself. He reduced Khorasan, took Candahar, subdued Afghanistan, and even invaded India, and captured and plundered the great city of Delhi. Under him the limits of Persia were the Oxus, the Indus, the Caspian, the Caucasus, and the Tigris. To his people and to his own family Nadir was a cruel tyrant. Suspecting his eldest son of plotting against him, he caused his eyes to be put out. "It is not my eyes you have put out," said the prince, "it is those of Persia." "The prophetic truth," says Sir John Malcolm, "sank deep into the heart of Nadir, who, becoming from that moment a prey to remorse and gloomy anticipations, never knew happiness, nor desired that others should feel it." His barbarities at length drove his people to despair, and in 1747 he was assassinated by the captain of his guard. His death was followed by more than fifty years of revolution and disorder, caused by the efforts of various claimants to secure the crown.

About the last of the eighteenth century Aga Mohammed Khan seized the throne, restored order to the country, and founded the dynasty of the Kadjars—the present reigning family of Persia. He was a man of extraordinary ferocity of disposition, and treated his family with great cruelty. "He was a sagacious and profound dissembler, yet severely just, and although grasping and avaricious himself, a deadly foe to peculation in his officers. To his soldiers he was particularly indulgent, and they repaid his kindness by their fidelity. In the latter years of his reign his temper, at all times pævish and dangerous, became ferocious. His countenance, which resembled that of a shrivelled old woman, assumed occasionally a horrible expression, of which he was sensible, and could not endure to be looked at. Even his confidential domestics approached him trembling, and their blood curdled at the sound of his shrill, dissonant voice, which was seldom raised without uttering a term of gross abuse or an order for punishment."

He was murdered in 1797 by two of his attendants whom he had sentenced to death for disturbing him with their noise.

Futeh Ali Shah, the nephew of the murdered monarch, succeeded him. Soon after the opening of his reign he became involved in a war with Russia, in which he suffered an unbroken series of reverses. In 1800 he was compelled to surrender Georgia to the czar, and in 1803 Mingrelia was also wrested from him by the Russians. Daghestan and Shirwan were overrun by the Russians, and in 1805 Karabang voluntarily submitted to them. The war was brought to an end by the intervention of England, and in October, 1813, the treaty of Goolistan was signed. It fixed the boundary between Persia and Russia so indefinitely as to give cause for constant disputes and a fresh war. This broke out in 1826, and was closed by the treaty of Turkomanshaee, February 21st, 1828. By this treaty Persia lost still more of her territory, and the Russian frontier was advanced to Mount Ararat and the left bank of the Aras, the present boundary.

Mohammed succeeded to the throne in 1835, at the death of Futeh Ali. He reigned until 1848, but his reign was uneventful. He was succeeded by Nasr-ed-Din, the present shah, who was but eighteen years old at the time. In 1856 Persia became involved in a war with Great Britain. After several victories of the English troops in the southern part of the kingdom, under the command of Generals Outram and Havelock, Persia was forced to make peace. The treaty, which was signed at Paris on the 4th of March, 1857, conceded all the demands of Great Britain. In 1860 a terrible pestilence and famine swept over a large part of the country, and in 1870 and 1871 a still more serious famine scourged the kingdom. Two millions of people are said to have perished during the latter famine. In the summer of 1873, the Shah Nasr-ed-Din made a tour through Europe, visiting Vienna, Paris, and London, where he was magnificently entertained. Since then the history of Persia has been uneventful.

BOOK XXXV.

THE HISTORY OF CHINA.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT DAY.

Geographical Position of China—Early History—Yu the Great—Early Sovereigns—Reign of Wu-wang—The Tsin Dynasty—The Great Wall of China—The Han Dynasty—Division of the Empire—Christianity Preached in China—Inroads of the Tartars—They Conquer China—Kublai Khan—Rise of the Ming Dynasty—The Tartars Driven Back—Beginning of the intercourse of China with Europe—Rise of the Manchoo Dynasty—Reign of Kang-hi—The Jesuits in China—The Protestant Missionaries—The Bible Translated into Chinese—The Opium War—Its Results—Treaties of China with the Western Powers—Efforts of the Chinese Government to Evade these Treaties—The Western Powers Compel China to Keep Faith with them—Pekin Captured by the French and English—The Taiping Rebellion—The Mohammedan Revolt—Change in the Policy of China—The Burlingame Embassy—The Massacre at Tien-tsin—Action of the Chinese Government—The First Railway in China.

THE empire of China occupies the larger part of southeastern Asia. China proper, called by the inhabitants Chungkwoh or the Middle Kingdom, or Chunghwa (the Central Flowery Land), comprises the most important portion of the empire. It extends from longitude 98° to 123° E., and from latitude 18° to 43° N. It comprises an area of about 1,500,000 square miles, and contains a population estimated at about 400,000,000.

The history of China dates back nearly 5,000 years, but the earlier portions of it are entirely mythical. According to the Chinese writers, Fuh-hi became the ruler of the country about B. C. 2852, and founded the Chinese empire. He is said to have taught his people how to raise cattle, and the art of writing, and to have introduced the institution of marriage and the divisions of the year. He was succeeded by Shin-nung, who taught the people agriculture and medicine. Then came Hwang-ti, who is said to have invented clocks, weapons, ships, wheeled vehicles, and musical instruments, and to have introduced coins and weights and measures. Ti-ku, the next emperor, established schools, and introduced the practice of polygamy. He was

succeeded in 2357 B. C. by his son Yau, with whom the more certain history of China commences. He reigned until B. C. 2258, and greatly advanced the civilization and wealth of his country, and built many roads and canals. His son Shun succeeded him and reigned until B. C. 2207. He was as good and wise a ruler as his father. In 2207 the throne passed to Yu the Great, who founded the dynasty of Hia, which held the throne until B. C. 1767. This sovereign was the first to make himself the head of the national religion as well as the temporal ruler of China. His son's reign was uneventful, but his grandson, the third of the dynasty, lost his crown in a popular revolution, which placed his brother, Chung-kang, a vigorous ruler, on the throne. His death was followed by a period of war which was closed by the elevation of Shang-kang to the throne. He governed the country well, and was succeeded by his son Ti-chu, the last of the great Hia sovereigns. After his death the dynasty declined, and in 1766 was overthrown by a revolution. The Shang or Yin dynasty now came into power, and held the throne from B. C. 1766 to B. C. 1122. It consisted of twenty-eight sovereigns, whose reigns were uneventful. With but few exceptions they were wicked, cruel, and despicable. In B. C. 1122 Wu-wang, a great general, headed a revolt against Chow-sin, the last of the Shang emperors, and reduced him to such straits that he collected his treasures and women in his palace, and placing himself in the midst of them, set fire to the building, and perished with them in the flames.

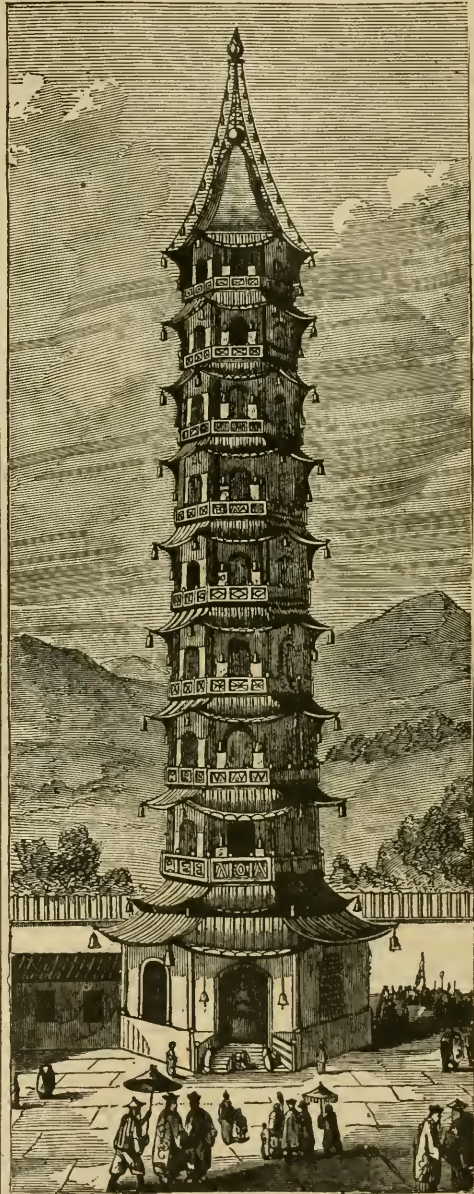
Wu-wang now mounted the throne, and founded the Chow dynasty, which ruled China for 873 years—from B. C. 1122 to B. C. 249. Wu-wang was a great ruler, and introduced many wise and useful reforms into the empire. His successors were his inferiors, and the history of their reigns is simply a record of the civil wars, conflicts with the Tartars, and struggles with the rebellious princes which marked the period. The power of the crown was never weaker than under this dynasty. The reign of the Emperor Li-wang (B. C. 571-544) is mem-

orable principally as the period of the birth of Meng-tse, or Mencius, the chief disciple and expounder of Confucius.

In B. C. 249 the Chow dynasty gave way to that of Tsin, a more vigorous race of sovereigns. They curbed the power of the great vassal princes, and made the emperor once more the supreme ruler of China. The Emperor Ching-wang, the second sovereign, who reigned from B. C. 246 to B. C. 210, erected the "great wall of China" for the protection of the empire against the incursions of the Tartars. "The great wall (*wan-li-chang*, *i. e.*, the myriad mile wall), on the northern frontier of China proper, is the most gigantic work of defence ever erected by man. It runs from a point on the coast of Liantung, latitude $40^{\circ} 4' N.$, longitude $120^{\circ} 2' E.$, in a westerly direction to the Yellow river, in latitude $39\frac{1}{2}^{\circ} N.$ and longitude $111\frac{1}{2}^{\circ} E.$; thence to latitude $37^{\circ} N.$ and again in a northwesterly direction to its termination in longitude $99^{\circ} E.$ and latitude $40^{\circ} N.$, making twenty-one degrees of longitude, and with its windings a length of 1,250 or 1,500 miles. In some places it is a single rampart, in others a solid foundation of granite, while the eastern section has a height of from fifteen to thirty feet, and a breadth such that six horsemen may ride abreast on it. There are brick towers on it at different intervals, about forty feet high." Ching-wang was the first to formally assume the title of *huang* or emperor. He resolved that the history of China should commence with his reign, and in order to efface the memory of all former events, ordered all the books treating of them to be burned. In this way a vast mass of the earlier literature of China was destroyed, among others the writings of Confucius and Mencius. A few fragments of their works escaped, and it is to them that moderns owe their acquaintance with the principles of these sages.

In B. C. 206 the dynasty of the Han succeeded that of Tsin, and ruled China until A. D. 220. This was a race of great sovereigns. The Emperor Wen-ti, who ascended the throne in B. C. 180, is known as the restorer of the ancient literature. Wu-ti (B. C. 141) was a liberal friend to science and art, and made his court the home of scholars. Siuen-ti (B. C. 73) conquered the Tartars, and extended his sway over their country as far as the Caspian Sea. In the reign of Ming-ti (A. D. 58-76) Ho-shung, a Buddhist priest from India, came into China and intro-

duced the Buddhist religion into that country. The Armenian Christians have a tradition that the Apostle Thomas visited China and preached the gospel there in this reign. The Emperor Ho-ti, who reigned from A. D. 89 to 106, introduced the culture of the grape.



CHINESE PAGODA.

In A. D. 220 the dynasty of the Han came to an end, and China was divided into three kingdoms. In A. D. 260 Wu-ti restored the

empire by the reunion of the three kingdoms, and founded the second Tsin dynasty, which existed until A. D. 420. The Han dynasty had held the Tartars firmly in check, but now they managed to obtain a firm lodgment in the northern part of the empire, where, in A. D. 386, they set up an independent kingdom. From this time until A. D. 590 the southern part of the empire was ruled by four successive dynasties, the Sung, Tse, Liang, and Chin, in the order named. This period was one of constant civil strife and religious dissension. This state of affairs was ended in 590 by the Prince of Sui, who, having conquered the Tartar kingdom, reduced the southern empire also, and reunited China in a single

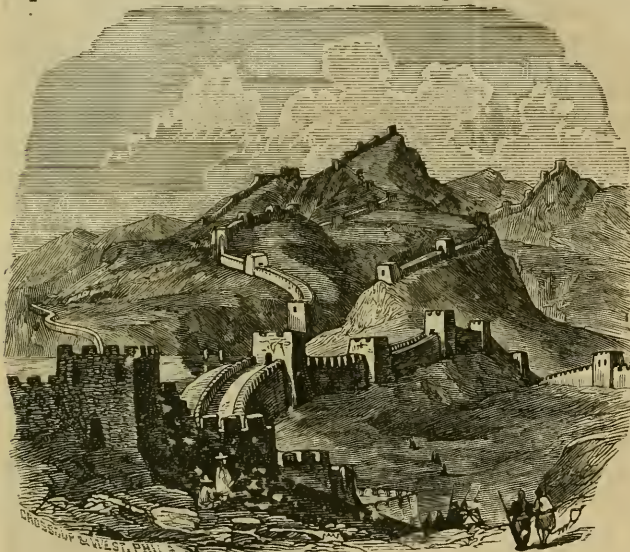
Chow-tsung (A. D. 890) was a more vigorous monarch, and destroyed the eunuchs and made a commendable attempt to restore the power of the crown, but too late to accomplish anything. The empire was plunged into civil war, and the Tartars took advantage of this unhappy state of affairs to steadily increase their own power.

In A. D. 960 Tai-tsu restored order and founded the dynasty of the Sung, which ended in 1279. The sovereigns of this house were liberal friends of the arts and sciences, which flourished under them. They were not able, however, to restrain the growing power of the Tartars, and were driven to the necessity of seeking aid from one tribe against the others. The tribes

thus admitted to the empire made common cause with their countrymen, and in 1215 the Tartars under Zingis-Khan overran China and advanced upon Peking. The success of these warlike hordes was rapid, and all China was obliged to submit to them. In 1279 Kublai Khan, or She-tsu, as he is called by the Chinese, established the first Mongol dynasty in China. Peking was made the capital of the empire, and Cochin China and Tonquin were conquered and added to it. The Mongol conquerors wisely refrained from attempting to change the national customs or religion, and favored Buddhism.

Marco Polo, the famous European traveller, visited China during this reign, and was hospitably received by Kublai. After Kublai's death the Tartar power declined in China. In 1342 a famine broke out in the empire, and swept away 13,000,000 people. This was followed by a bloody revolution, which scourged the country for several years.

In 1358 Chu Yuen-chang, a Buddhist monk of humble origin, rose to the leadership of the revolution. He overthrew the Mongol dynasty, ascended the throne under the name of Hung-wu, and founded the Ming dynasty, which governed China from 1368 to 1644—a period of 276 years. The sovereigns of this house were sixteen in number, and were mostly men of ability. Towards the middle of the fifteenth century



THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA.

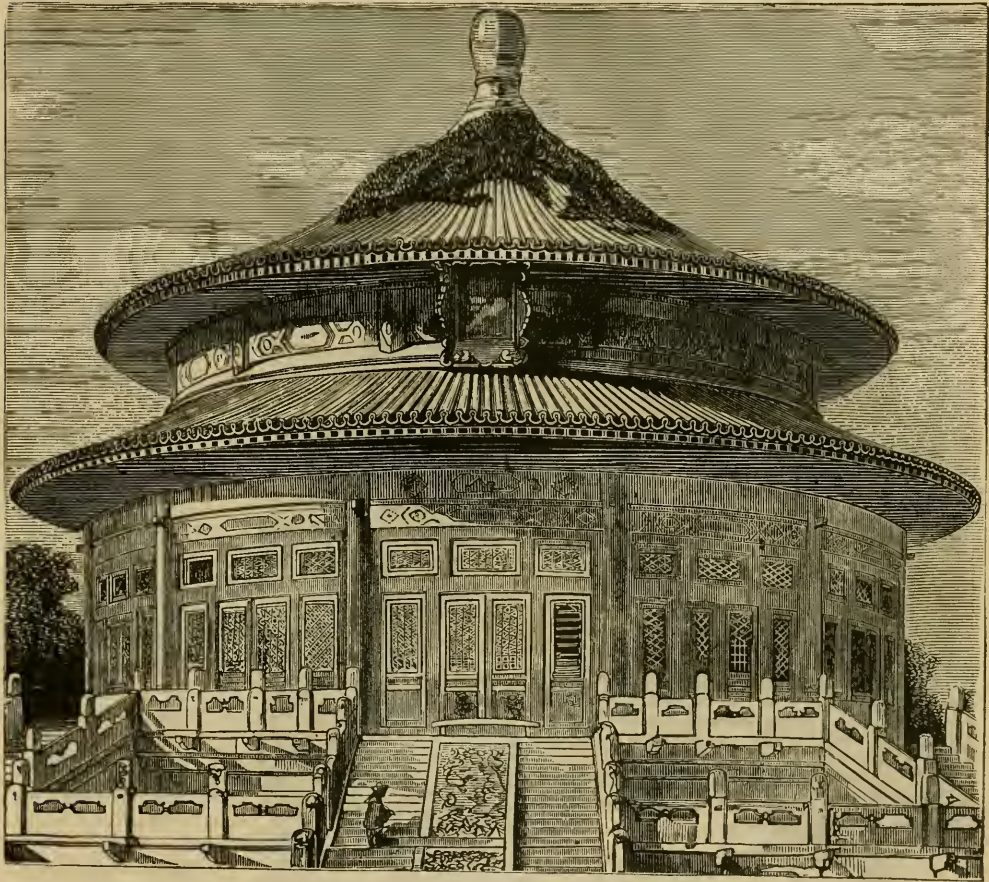
monarchy. He made himself emperor, and was one of the wisest and best of Chinese sovereigns. He was untiring in his efforts to promote literature, science, education, internal prosperity, and commerce. He died in 619.

The dynasty of the Tang now rose into power, and lasted from A. D. 619 to 907. In 636 the Nestorian monk Olopen came into China and began to preach Christianity. The Emperor Kow-tsung was the most illustrious of the Tang sovereigns. He was a great warrior, and carried his conquests to the confines of Persia. His son, Tai-tsung, who succeeded him, is the great hero of Chinese romance. His successors lacked the vigor of the earlier monarchs of this house, and became the subservient tools of their eunuch courtiers.

the invasions of the Tartars were renewed, but were successfully repulsed. During the reign of the Emperor Shi-tsung (1522-1567) the Mantchoos invaded China, but were driven back. About the same time the intercourse between China and Europe was begun by the trading ventures of the Portuguese with the neighboring islands. In 1604 the Dutch endeavored to open a direct trade with China by sending three

the former. At last the Emperor of China caused the King of Mantchooria to be assassinated, and this act so exasperated the Mantchoos that they took up arms against the emperor.

In 1635 a bloody civil war broke out in China, and lasted until 1644. The imperial party was defeated, and Li-tse-ching, the leader of the insurgents, seized the throne. The defeated imperialists appealed



A CHINESE TEMPLE.

vessels to that country, but these were refused admittance to any Chinese port. In 1662 a second effort was made by the Dutch. They were again resisted, and endeavored to enter the empire by force, but were driven off. They succeeded, however, in effecting a lodgment upon one of the Pescadore islands, which they subsequently relinquished for Formosa. Several wars had taken place in the meantime between the Chinese and the Mantchoos, and the latter had been reduced to subjection by

to the Mantchoos for aid, and the latter espoused their cause, defeated the usurper, entered Peking in triumph, and made Sun-chi, the son of their own king, Emperor of China. This prince was the founder of the present Mantchoo dynasty, which, though hated at first by the Chinese, has by its tact and good government succeeded in conciliating the nation and winning its cordial support. Sun-chi was a mere youth when he came to the throne, and his education was conducted by a German Jesuit named Adam Schall,

who was made by the emperor at a later period Prime Minister of China. This reign was in the main a good and prosperous one. In 1653 the Dutch again attempted to open a trade with China, but were refused admittance. On the other hand the Russians were granted permission to trade with the northern parts of the empire. In 1661 the Emperor Kang-hi came to the throne. His chief counsellors

into the financial administration of the empire, and showed great favor to the Christian missionaries who had come into his dominions. The city of Pekin was destroyed during his reign by an earthquake, in which 400,000 persons are said to have perished. A different policy was pursued by the Emperor Yung-ching, who came to the throne in 1722, and reigned fourteen years. His suspicions were aroused by the

haughty conduct of the Christian missionaries, and he broke up their schools, and imposed many restrictions upon them. He was succeeded by his son Kien-lung (1736-1796), who conquered the greater part of central Asia. To his own subjects he was on the whole a just and good ruler, but he shared his father's dislike of the Christians, and for a time persecuted them severely. He pursued the narrow-minded policy of his predecessors, and sternly refused to allow the European powers to open commercial relations with China, making a solitary exception in favor of Russia, which country carried on an extensive commerce with the northern provinces of the empire. He was succeeded by the Emperor Kia-king,



INTERIOR OF A CHINESE TEMPLE, SHOWING THEIR IDOLS.

were two Frenchmen named Bouvet and Gerbillon, and to them he owed much of the success which attended his efforts to govern China. He greatly enlarged his dominions by the conquest of Formosa and Thibet. He caused his empire to be surveyed, and a map of it made by European engineers, and established institutions of learning, and greatly promoted science and literature. He introduced wise reforms

(1796-1820). This was a cruel and lustful tyrant, whose oppressions at length drove his people into a rebellion which he was unable to suppress. During his reign the Bible was translated into Chinese by Mr. Morrison, an English Protestant missionary, A. D. 1807, who, together with Mr. Milne, founded the Anglo-Chinese college at Malacca. A better state of affairs was brought about in 1820 by the accession to

the throne of the Emperor Tau-kwang, whose reign ended with his death, February 24th, 1850.

Towards the end of the seventeenth century the Chinese government, while refusing to Great Britain, as a European power, permission to trade with the empire, granted that privilege to the British East India Company. This company conducted the trade with China until 1834, when its charter expired. The British government then sent Lord Napier to superintend the trade with China, but he was refused permission to communicate with the imperial viceroy at Canton on terms of equality. He endeavored to force his way to Canton with two frigates, but after a spirited engagement with the forts at the Bogue, September 11th, 1834, withdrew to Macao, where he died about a month later. After this the trade between the British merchants and the Chinese was carried on for several years without the superintendence of the British officials. One of the principal articles of this traffic was opium, of which large quantities were sold yearly in China by British merchants.

The imperial government at first tolerated this trade, but, at length, becoming alarmed by the fearful evils which the use of opium was fastening upon the people of China, endeavored to put a stop to it. In the autumn of 1837 Captain Elliot, the English representative at Canton, was ordered by an imperial decree to send away the opium ships and discontinue the trade in that article. This command was disregarded and the trade went on. In the early part of 1839 the imperial viceroy Lin, acting under the orders of his government, seized and destroyed all the opium on hand at Canton, to the value of \$10,000,000. An illicit trade in opium at once sprang up, and was resented by the Chinese government, which declared all commercial relations with Great Britain at an end. This led to the opium war, to which we have referred in *The History of England*. The result was that China was forced to surrender her exclusiveness, and enter into more intimate commercial relations with Europe. The war was brought to an end by the treaty of Nankin, in August, 1842. The island of Hong Kong was ceded to the British, and the ports of Canton, Amoy, Foochoo, Ningpo and Shanghai were thrown open to the trade of the world, and made the official residences of European consuls.

China was also compelled to pay to Great Britain an indemnity of \$21,000,000. In 1842 Caleb Cushing, who had been sent out by the United States to China, arrived in that country and readily negotiated a commercial treaty between the two countries, July 3d, 1844. This was followed by a treaty with France, signed October 23d, 1844.

The Chinese government never meant to observe these treaties in good faith, and its treatment of the foreigners within its dominions was at all times marked by deceit and an ill-concealed hostility. This feeling led to constant disputes between the impe-

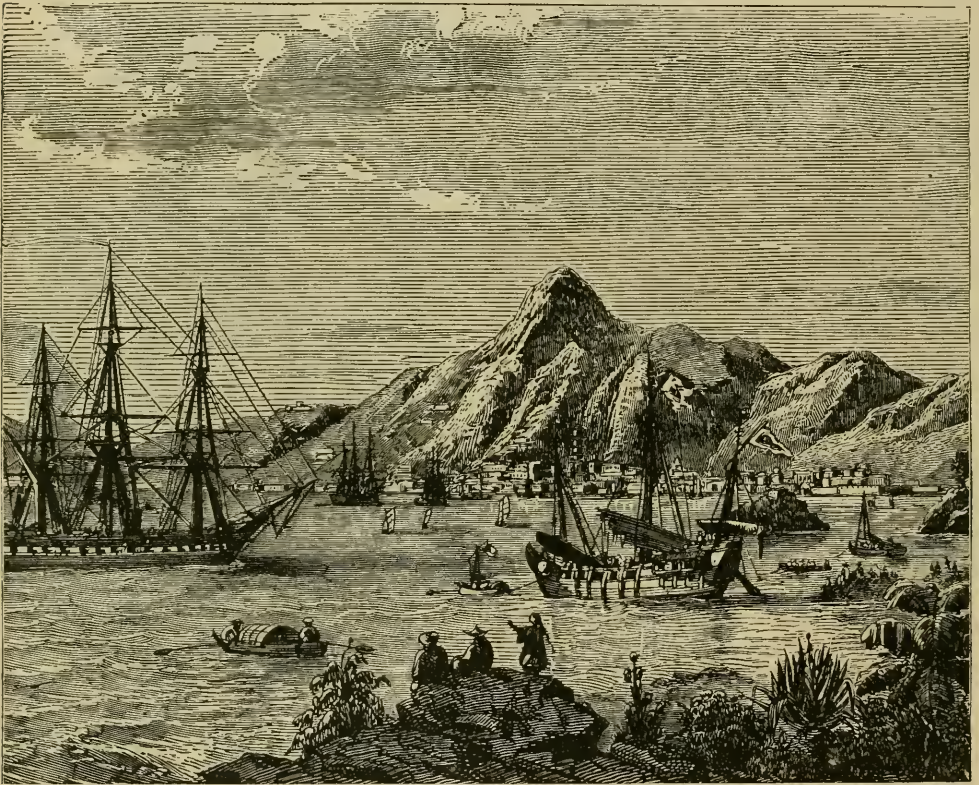


CHINESE MANDARIN.

rial authorities and the foreign consuls and merchants. In October, 1856, matters were brought to a crisis by the seizure of the "Arrow," a British vessel built in China by the Chinese officials. This act led to a desultory war between China and Great Britain, which lasted several years, and in which the Chinese were as a rule the winners. France had experienced similar wrongs at the hands of the Chinese, and made common cause with England. The two powers now resolved to force China to a settlement, and in 1857 sent a joint expedition to that country. Canton was bombarded by the Anglo-French fleet on the 28th of December, and the next day was occupied by the English and French

land forces, which numbered less than 6,000 men. The viceroy Yeh was captured, but the Chinese government endeavored to offset this reverse by degrading Yeh and appointing his successor. Russia and the United States now joined England and France in endeavoring to force China to negotiate more liberal treaties with the western powers. The action of the Chinese government was unsatisfactory, and the allied forces attacked and captured the

million dollars, and France a smaller sum. China endeavored as usual to evade this treaty, and the imperial authorities exerted themselves by prescribing a most unusual route for them, and imposing various and vexatious delays upon them, to prevent the foreign ministers from reaching Peking. The British minister thereupon ordered Admiral Hope to force the passage of the Pei-ho. That officer attempted to execute his orders, but was driven back with great loss by the



VICTORIA, HONG KONG.

forts at the mouth of the Pei-ho, and pushed on to Tien-tsiu, fifty miles above the mouth of the river. The Chinese government now yielded, and entered into treaties with Great Britain, France, Russia, and the United States, which stipulated for the residence of foreign ministers at Peking, for the opening of several ports in addition to those named in the treaty of Nankin, for travel and trade under certain conditions in the whole empire, for the free navigation of the Yangste-kiang river, and the settlement of the transit-dues question. Great Britain was paid an indemnity of five and a half

forts at the mouth of the river. The British and French ministers then withdrew to Shanghai to await the instructions of their respective governments. The American minister, Mr. Ward, concluded to accept the Chinese programme, and submitting to many inconveniences and indignities, at length reached Peking. He was denied an interview with the emperor, except upon conditions degrading to himself and his country, and returned in disgust to Shanghai, where he joined his European colleagues. England and France resented the bad faith of China by renewing the

war with that country. A joint expedition was sent against the Chinese capital. The Pei-ho forts were taken (August 21st, 1860), and Tien-tsin was occupied (August 24th). The Chinese officials endeavored to stay the progress of the allies by negotiation, but their design being understood, the Anglo-French forces pushed on, and on the 6th of October arrived before Peking. The operations against the city were conducted with vigor; the emperor's "summer palace," a magnificent structure, was plundered and burned, and on the 13th of October one of the gates of the city was surren-

dered to the allies. The last body of rebels was dispersed and the imperial authority restored. In 1857 the Mohammedans of Yunnan rose in rebellion, and were for a time victorious. This revolt extended over a period of fifteen years, but was suppressed in 1872. A second Mohammedan rebellion broke out in the northwestern part of the empire in 1862. It was suppressed in 1873. In 1871 China became involved in a quarrel with Russia, and was obliged to cede to that power the district of Kulja and the whole of the basin of the Ili, a region embracing an area of about 600,000 square miles, and



INTERIOR OF A CHINESE THEATRE.

dered to the allies. The imperial government was now forced to yield, and the treaties with France and England were renewed and ratified. The allies then withdrew to the coast. Since that time the policy of China has been to keep faith with the western powers.

During all this time China had been torn by a rebellion of unusual magnitude. This was the Taiping rebellion, which broke out in the southern provinces of the empire in 1850. At first the rebels were successful, and overran a large part of southern China. The war lasted until 1864, when

containing a population of 2,000,000 people. In 1861 the Emperor Hieng-fun, who had succeeded the Emperor Tau-Kwang, in 1856, died, and his son T'oung-ché came to the throne. He was but five years old at the time. In 1873 he was declared of age and assumed the government. In the autumn of 1867 an embassy was sent by the Chinese government to the various European powers and to the United States. At its head was Anson Burlingame, formerly minister from the United States to China. "It had its origin in the desire of the government to demonstrate to western powers

its friendliness, and to forestall demands of an extreme character which it anticipated would be made during the revision of the treaties of 1858 then about to take place. Its chief seized the opportunity to place before the world the indications of a marked change of policy on the part of the government, and to demonstrate that the old system of recourse to local authorities for the redress of grievances should be abandoned in favor of representation to the imperial authorities at Peking. The facts

some others. The French consulate, the cathedral, and the missionary hospital were destroyed. The outbreak was severely punished by the Chinese government, and an apology was made to France.

In 1875 the Emperor Kwang-liu, the reigning sovereign (1878) succeeded to the throne. On the 30th of June, 1876, the first line of railway in China, from Shanghai to Woosung, a distance of eleven miles, was opened. It was built by an English company.



VIEW OF TIEN-TSIN.

of his (Burlingame's) appointment to represent China, and of his being accredited to western states on terms of equality, afforded an indication of the marvellous change which had ensued since the war, and a more complete justification of the wisdom of the allies in insisting upon residence at the capital."

In 1870 the Chinese attacked the French consulate at Tien-tsin and massacred the consul, vice-consul, the interpreter of the French legation at Peking and his wife, a Catholic priest, nine sisters of charity, and

The road was at first regarded with jealous hostility by the Chinese, and at one time there was a probability that the government would cause the tracks to be torn up; but the vigorous protestations of the English representatives compelled the Chinese government to remain faithful to its obligations, and to respect the rights of the owners of the road. As soon as the trains began running, the hostility of the Chinese changed to delight, and they were loud in their praises of this new means of locomotion.

BOOK XXXVI.

THE HISTORY OF JAPAN.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT DAY.

Description of the Empire of Japan—Its Inhabitants—Early History Fabulous—Establishment of the Empire by Jimmu Tenno—His Successors—The Empress Jingu-Kogo—Conquest of Corea—Introduction of Buddhism into Japan—Decline of the Imperial Power—The Shogun—Origin of the Office—Yoritomo—Relations of the Shogun to the Mikado—Nobunaga—He Persecutes the Buddhists and Favors the Jesuits—Reign of Hidéyoshi—Ieyasu Becomes Shogun—The Policy of the Shoguns—A Perfect System of Tyranny—Introduction of Christianity—Rapid Success of the Jesuits—Mistakes of the Christians—Hidéyoshi Resolves to Exterminate them—Persecution of the Christians—Foreigners Expelled—Japan Refuses to Trade with Europe—Reaction Against the Shogun—The Mikado and the People—Expedition of Commodore Perry—The Shogun Enters into Treaties with the United States and the European Powers—Action of the Mikado's Party—Foreign Vessels Fired upon—The Western Powers Compel Japan to Keep Faith—The Revolution of 1868—Downfall of the Shogunate—The Mikado Restored to Power—The Mikado Enters into Cordial Relations with Europe and America—Great Change in the Policy and Civilization of Japan—Growth of Western Ideas—The Feudal System Abolished—The Japan of To-day.

JAPAN, or, as it is called by the natives, Dai Nippon, or Dai Nihon, is an empire, consisting of a group of islands lying off the eastern coast of Asia, between latitude 23° and 50° N., and longitude 122° and 153° E. It comprises the principal islands of Yezo, Hondo, Kiushiu, Shikoku, and an immense number of smaller islands lying in the Pacific Ocean and the Sea of Japan, off the shores of these principal members of the empire. The total number of islands composing Japan is officially stated to be nearly 4,000. Of these many are too small to be inhabited. The total area of the empire is 157,447 square miles, and the population in 1876 was 33,299,014. In May, 1875, Japan ceded to Russia the island of Saghalien, and received in return the Kurile islands, which formerly belonged to Russia. The island of Yezo contains about 30,000, Shikoku about 7,000, and Kiushiu about 15,000 square miles. Two-thirds of the area of the empire is mountain land. "There are few high mountains

along the seacoast. The land slopes up gradually into hills, thence into lesser peaks, and finally into lofty ranges. . . . The rivers on such narrow islands, where steep mountains and sharply excavated valleys predominate, are of necessity mainly useless for navigation. Ordinarily they are little more than brooks that flow lazily and in narrow channels to the sea. After a storm, in rainy weather, or in winter, they become swollen torrents, often miles wide, sweeping resistlessly over large tracts of land, which they keep perpetually desolate—wilder-nesses of stone and gravel where fruitful fields ought to be. . . . There are, however, some large plains," in which are a few navigable rivers. The country is rendered fertile by means of an admirable and carefully conducted system of irrigation. It is scrupulously cultivated, and is one of the most productive regions upon the globe. It contains many large cities, and a vast number of towns of smaller size. "The Japanese people are of middling size, in general active and vigorous; and in their mental characteristics they resemble Europeans more than the average Asiatic peoples. Their skins range through all colors from white to light brown, yellow, copper color, dirty red, and almost black. The average hue is a pale copper on the body, and shades of yellowish brown in the face. The color depends greatly upon the degree of exposure." There is a great difference between the upper and lower classes in the type of features, as well as in color. "Among the upper classes, the fine, long, oval face, with prominent, well-chiselled features, deep sunken eye-sockets, oblique eyes, long, drooping eyelids, elevated and arched eyebrows, high and narrow forehead, rounded nose, bud-like mouth, pointed chin, small hands and feet, contrast strikingly with the round, flattened face, less oblique eyes, almost level with the face, and straight noses, expanded and turned up at the roots. The former type prevails among the higher classes—the nobility and gentry; the latter among the agricultural and laboring classes."

The early history of Japan is purely fabulous. Yezo and Hondo appear to have been occupied by an indigenous, savage race, known as the Ainōs; Shikoku and Kiushiu were peopled by mixed races from various

people the simple arts of civilization, and subdued the savage inhabitants of the two great northern islands.

We do not reach an authentic period in Japanese history until about B. C. 660,



JAPANESE WARRIORS, OLD STYLE.

parts of southern Asia. The Japanese legends relate that when the divine ancestors of the imperial family came to the southern islands, they found them thus inhabited. These and their descendants taught the

when Jimmu Tenno, the first mikado, or emperor, having established his power over the southern islands and conquered the Ainōs of the north, ascended the throne. He was not only a great conqueror, but

was a wise and good ruler. He established his capital at a place near Kioto, and gave to his people a code of laws and a strong settled government. He labored earnestly to advance the civilization of his dominions, and was greatly beloved by his subjects. His descendants held the throne for many centuries, bearing the title of mikado, and claiming to reign by divine right, since Jimmu was regarded as the fifth in descent from the "sun goddess." The anniversary

came to the throne, and reigned until A. D. 30. He was one of Japan's greatest monarchs, and labored so earnestly to promote the prosperity of his country, that he is known as "Sujin the Civilizer." He improved, if he did not found, the Japanese system of irrigation, and was the originator of the military system by which the empire was governed for many centuries after his death. Yamato-Daké, the son of Keiko, the twelfth mikado, greatly enlarged his



BUDDHIST PRIESTS.

of Jimmu's accession to the throne is still celebrated in Japan as a national holiday.

Under his successors Japan advanced steadily in civilization and prosperity. "Twelve mikados lived to be over one hundred years old. One of them ruled one hundred and one years. The reigns of the first seventeen averaged over sixty-one years. From the seventeenth to the thirty-first the average reign is little over twelve years."

In B. C. 97 Sujin, the tenth mikado,

father's dominions by conquering the Kwantó, or the region lying east of Ozaka, which now comprises thirty-three provinces of the empire. He died in A. D. 113, at the age of thirty-six, and ranks as one of the great legendary heroes of Japan. In A. D. 203 the Empress-Regent Jingu-Kogo subdued Corea. Immediately afterwards she was delivered of a son, whom she named Ojin. He succeeded her, and was a great warrior. At his death he was deified, and is now worshipped as the Japanese god of war.

The conquest of Corea was followed by a social revolution in Japan of the greatest importance. Emigrants from that country came into Japan in great numbers, and brought with them the Buddhist faith. The new religion spread silently, and in A. D. 552 a company of doctors, diviners, astronomers, and mathematicians came from Corea to live at the Japanese court. With them came a band of Buddhist missionaries. This Corean emigration, which had continued steadily from the time of the Empress Jingu, introduced into Japan the civilization of continental Asia, and brought with it arts, sciences, letters, and written literature, and the Buddhist religion, all until then unknown to the island empire. Thus were the character and history of Japan forever changed. The emperor and the people endeavored to suppress Buddhism at first, but it grew in spite of all opposition, and in 593 the Empress Suiko granted full toleration to the Buddhist faith. Since then Buddhism has grown with unceasing rapidity. At present it divides with the Shinto—the ancient faith—the allegiance of the Japanese. This empress was one of the great rulers of Japan. She caused written codes of laws to be drawn up, constituted a new and rigid system of official grades, caused the empire to be resurveyed, and fixed the boundaries of the provinces with greater accuracy.

After the death of the Empress Suiko, the imperial power began to decline, and for the next five centuries Japan was torn by the contentions of the rival families of the Fujiwara, Taira, Minamoto, and Tachibana. The mikado soon lost all real power, and became the mere puppet of the great nobles, who were prompt to advance their own importance at the expense of the crown. "The real origin of the decline of the imperial power is found in the basis of the system of succession. The looseness in the marriage tie produced weakness in the social structure and in the government. The mikado was allowed twelve concubines and one wife, so as to insure offspring; but no law existed defining the constitution of a legal heirship, or the rights of an heir to the throne. The succession did not depend upon birth, but wholly upon the arbitrary will of the sovereign. Every member of the imperial family was, under these circumstances, left free to promote his ambitious designs upon the throne as best he could." The natural consequence was the

civil strife which followed, and which extended over centuries. At length, to remedy these evils and bring back peace and order to the empire, the mikado created the office of shogun, or governor-generalissimo, and placed in his hands the civil power of the realm.

The first person appointed shogun was Yoritomo, one of the greatest of Japanese heroes. He was the son of a Minamoto noble by a peasant family. He rapidly established his power over the empire, reducing the rebellious nobles to submission, and enforcing his orders with a sternness and vigor that broke down all opposition. He took into his own hands the full power of the government, but at the same time preserved to the mikado his hereditary rank, dignity and sacred character. From this time until the revolution of 1868, the shogun was the real ruler of Japan, while the mikado was the true source of power. The office of shogun was made hereditary in the family of Yoritomo, but eventually passed to other houses. Yoritomo fixed his seat of government at Kamakura, about thirty-five miles from Yedo, and set up a magnificent court. "There were now two capitals, Kioto and Kamakura, and two centres of authority: one, the lawful but overawed emperor and the imperial court; the other, the 'military vassal, and a government based on the power of arms. It must never be forgotten, however, that the fountain of authority was at Kioto, the ultimate seat of power in the ancient constitution. Throughout the centuries the prestige of the mikado's person never declined." This dual system of government led foreigners to regard Japan as having "two emperors, one temporal, the other spiritual." This was never the case. The mikado was always the sole emperor; the shogun, while he kept the mikado in retirement, and was the real ruler of the empire, always governed the country "as a vassal, in the name and for the sake of the mikado at Kioto." Yoritomo restored peace to Japan, and died in 1199, after a reign of fifteen years. At his death the shogunate passed to the Hojo family, which held it until A. D. 1333. "The Hojo were able rulers, and kept order and peace in the empire for over a century. They encouraged literature and the cultivation of the arts and sciences. During their period the resources of the country were developed, and some branches of useful handicraft and

fine arts were brought to a perfection never since surpassed. To this time belong the famous image carver, sculptor, and architect, Uneki, and the lacquer artists, who are the 'old masters' in this branch of art. The military spirit of the people was kept alive, tactics were improved, and the methods of governmental administration simplified." Splendid temples were erected, and the glory and prestige of the empire were maintained at a high state. In 1274 an expedition, sent from China by the Tartar conquerors of that country, attempted the subjugation of Japan, but was routed; and in 1281 a still more powerful Tartar fleet and army were destroyed by a storm and the desperate valor of the Japanese. From that time no foreign power has attempted to invade Japan.

In 1333 the mikado threw off the rule of the shogun and asserted his power, but in 1336 he was again compelled to submit to his great vassal, and the dual government was restored. From 1336 to 1573 Japan was ruled by thirteen shoguns of the house of Ashikaga. Three of these are among the greatest personages in Japanese history. Nobunaga, the first of the three, was made shogun in 1558. He began his reign with the deliberate intention to reduce the whole empire to submission to him. He partly accomplished this by subduing the weaker clans, but was killed by an officer whom he had offended before he could bring the greater clans into submission. Nobunaga was a bitter foe to the Buddhists, whom he hated cordially. He persecuted them severely, burned their temples and monasteries, and put thousands of them to the sword. As a means of counteracting their influence, he showed great favor to the Jesuits, who were now in the midst of their labors in Japan.

The next great shogun was Hidéyoshi, whom the Jesuit fathers call Faxiba (properly Hashiba), and who is also called Taiko Sama by foreigners. After the death of Nobunaga a period of disorder ensued, and was ended in the course of a year by Hidéyoshi, who defeated his rivals, made himself shogun, and obliged the mikado to confirm him in this office. He was a great soldier and a great statesman, and gave to Japan one of its most useful codes, known as "the laws of Taiko." Having firmly established his authority in Japan, he determined to conquer China, and in 1592 sent an army of 160,000 men into Corea.

The Coreans at once submitted, but the death of Hidéyoshi, on the 15th of September, 1598, compelled the return of the expedition to Japan.

Two parties now contested the supremacy. At the head of the first was the infant son of Hidéyoshi; the other was led by Tokugawa Iyeyasu, the greatest man in Japanese history. The latter succeeded, and in 1603 became shogun. His family, the Tokugawa, held the shogunate from 1603 until 1867, and during this period Japan enjoyed a profound peace. Iyeyasu made Yedo, until then a small town, his capital, and in a few years it became a magnificent and populous city. He perfected the system of dual government, and though he did not dare to depose the mikado, and professed to rule in his name and for his benefit, the real power of the empire was firmly held by himself and his successors. Under him also the feudal system of Japan was brought to perfection, and the great nobles were made directly responsible to the shogun.

The system adopted by Iyeyasu and his successors for the government of the empire and the perpetuation of their power, was perfect in its way. "According to their scheme the intellect of the nation was to be bounded by the Great Wall of the Chinese classics, while to the hierarchy of Buddhism—one of the most potent engines ever devised for crushing and keeping crushed the intellect of the Asiatic masses—was given the ample encouragement of government example and patronage. An embargo was laid upon all foreign ideas. Edicts commanded the destruction of all boats built upon a foreign model, and forbade the building of vessels of any size or shape superior to that of a junk. Death was the penalty of believing in Christianity, of travelling abroad, of studying foreign languages, of introducing foreign customs. Before the august train of the shogun men must seal their upper windows and bow their faces to the earth. Even to his tea jars and cooking pots the populace must do obeisance with face in the dust. To study ancient history, which might expose the origin of the shogunate, was forbidden to the vulgar, and discouraged among the higher. A rigid censorship dried the life-blood of many a master spirit, while the manufacture and concoction of false and garbled histories which extolled the reigning dynasty, or glorified the dual system as

the best and only one for Japan, were encouraged. . . . One of the most perfect systems of espionage and repression ever devised was elaborated to fetter all men in helpless subjection to the great usurper. An incredibly large army of spies was kept in the pay of the government. . . . The majority of the daimios who had received lands and titles from the shogun believed their allegiance to be forever due to him,

basis unchangeable, and the feudal system in eternal stability. . . . The eight classes of the people were kept contented and happy. A fertile soil and genial climate gave food in unstinted profusion. . . . As there was no commerce, there was no vast wealth to be accumulated, nor could the mind of the merchant expand to a limit dangerous to despotism by fertilizing contact with foreigners. All learning and



A JAPANESE NOBLE PASSING THROUGH THE STREETS OF A TOWN.

instead of to the mikado, a belief stigmatized as rank treason by the students of history. As for the common people, the great mass of them forgot, or never knew, that the emperor ever held power, or governed his people; and being officially taught to believe him a divine personage, supposed he had lived thus from time immemorial. . . . Under the firm rule of the shoguns the dual form of government seemed fixed on a

education, properly so called, were confined to the Samurai, to whom also belonged the sword and privilege. The perfection of the governmental machinery at Yedo kept, as was the design, the daimios poor and at jealous variance with each other, and rendered it impossible for them to combine their power. No two of them were ever allowed to meet in private or to visit each other without spies." Under such a system

it seemed that the shogunate was indestructible.

In the meantime Christianity had been introduced into Japan. Vasco da Gama had heard of Japan during his residence in China in the thirteenth century, and had given glowing accounts of it on his return to Europe. In 1542 three Portuguese sailors came to Taneshima, and were kindly received by the people. Three years later Fernam Mendez Pinto, a Portuguese adventurer, visited the country. His account of it induced many Portuguese traders to repair to it, and an active commerce with Japan soon sprang up. The Jesuit missionaries followed close upon the traders, and in 1549 St. Francis Xavier, "the apostle of the Indies," came to Japan. The missionaries were kindly received, and made converts with great rapidity. Roman Catholicism had many charms for the Japanese; it was a great improvement upon Buddhism, and its gorgeous ceremonies and scenic displays captivated the lively imaginations of this impressible people. Some of the most powerful nobles were among the converts, and the native Christians of Japan, in the course of a few years, could be counted by thousands. In 1582 they despatched an embassy to the pope to assure him of their submission to the Roman church. In 1598 the Dutch, who were Protestants in religion, opened commercial relations with Japan, and in 1609 were granted a port on the island of Hirado (called by the Hollanders *Firando*), where they established a factory or trading settlement. They were granted important privileges.

Nobunaga, as we have seen, favored the Portuguese and the Jesuits, regarding them as useful allies in his attempts to destroy Buddhism. Hidéyoshi found the native Christians refractory and inclined to oppose his arbitrary measures, and so became their enemy. The missionaries and the Portuguese drew upon themselves the anger of the government by their haughty and insubordinate actions, their vicious habits, and the encouragement they gave to the native Christians in their fierce attacks upon the native Shinto and Buddhist temples and religious observances. The Jesuits at length became so open in their insolent defiance of the government, that Hidéyoshi issued an edict banishing them from the empire. This edict was renewed in 1596, and the next year twenty-three

priests were killed in one day at Nagasaki. The native Christians espoused the cause of their teachers, and openly defied the government. This led to a frightful persecution of the Christians, thousands of whom were put to death; their churches and schools were destroyed, and it was declared treason to hold or teach the Christian faith. The Portuguese were stripped of their privilege of free access to the empire, and were confined to the island of *Deshima* at Nagasaki. In 1622 a terrible massacre of the Christians took place at Nagasaki. Driven to despair, the surviving native Christians began to plot for the overthrow of the empire. The plot was discovered in 1637, and the persecution was renewed with greater severity. The Portuguese were forever banished from the empire; and all natives and ships of Japan were forbidden to leave the country under severe penalties. In 1639, the Portuguese having been driven out, their trade and privileges were bestowed upon the Dutch, who, being Protestants, were not included in the hatred which the Japanese bore to the disciples of the Jesuits. In 1640 the native Christians rose in open rebellion, but were subdued after a long and gallant resistance. At the capture of their last stronghold, 31,000 persons were put to the sword. In 1641 the Dutch were ordered to abandon their factory at *Hirado* and remove to the island of *Deshima*, from which point they were allowed to trade with the empire under certain rigid conditions. For the next two centuries they enjoyed the monopoly of trade with Japan. Christianity having thus been rooted out, the Japanese devoted themselves with energy to their old faiths. The shoguns favored Buddhism, which was inclined to support their usurpation; the mikado and his court upheld the ancient historical religion of the shinto, which was always true to the rightful sovereign of Japan. Thus for two centuries Japan held herself rigidly aloof from the rest of the world.

In the meantime there had been silently but steadily growing up in the empire a strong reaction against the rule of the shoguns. The mikado, as has been stated, had never ceased to be regarded by the educated classes as the only lawful sovereign of Japan. As early as the opening of the eighteenth century these began to draw nearer to the mikado, and to discuss among themselves measures for restoring the em-

peror to his true position, and compelling the shogun to resume his proper place as a vassal. The second Prince of Mito is regarded as the originator of this movement. He gathered about him a large number of scholars, and under his guidance "The History of Japan" was prepared. The prince died in 1700; but his son and successor took up the work, and the great history was finished in 1715, and immediately became

thinking men that a collision between the parties of the mikado and the shogun was inevitable. In 1840 the Prince of Mito, thinking the time propitious, determined to bring on the conflict. His efforts were promptly suppressed by the shogun, and he was taken prisoner and kept in captivity for twelve years. This vigorous action put an end for the time to open resistance to the shogun; but the southern clans went



INTERIOR OF A JAPANESE THEATRE.

a classic. It was read with avidity by the educated. Its chief objects were to show that the mikado was the true historical sovereign of Japan, and that the shogun was only a military usurper. This work was followed in 1827 by "The External History of Japan," the product of twenty years' labor on the part of the great scholar, Rai Sanyo, which had the same object in view. The influence of these works was very great, and it soon became evident to

on secretly with their preparations, in order to be in readiness when the decisive moment arrived. The immediate occasion of the revolt against the shogun did not present itself until twelve years later.

Towards the middle of the present century European and American vessels began to frequent the Japanese waters, and after the settlement of California American whalers pursued their trade regularly in the home waters of the empire. Many of

these were wrecked on the coast of Japan, and their crews were treated with great harshness by the native authorities. In order to put a stop to this, and to establish friendly relations with the empire, the United States government, in 1852, despatched an expedition under the command of Commodore Matthew C. Perry. The American commander was instructed to demand protection for American seamen wrecked on the Japanese coast, and to effect a treaty of commerce and good will with the imperial government. In July, 1853, he entered the bay of Yedo with four ships of war, and delivered to the Japanese authorities a letter from the President of the United States, setting forth the demands and wishes of his government. He then sailed for China. In February, 1854, he returned with seven ships of war, and anchored within a few miles of Yedo. He managed by his skilful and judicious efforts to induce the shogun to enter into the desired treaty, which was signed at Kanagawa on the 31st of March, 1854, and which opened the ports of Shimoda and Hakodate or Hakodadi to foreign commerce, and made them places of consular residence. In September a British squadron, under Sir James Stirling, entered the harbor of Nagasaki and concluded a treaty with the shogun, by which Hakodate and Nagasaki were thrown open to foreign commerce. The Russians and the Dutch then made similar treaties with the shogun. On the 17th of June, 1857, Mr. Harris, the United States consul to Japan, made a still more advantageous treaty with the shogun, by which the harbor of Nagasaki was also opened to American commerce. In 1858, in spite of the opposition of the Japanese, Mr. Harris proceeded to Yedo, and concluded a third treaty still more advantageous to the United States. During the same year Lord Elgin, escorted by a British squadron, reached Yedo and negotiated a treaty between Great Britain and Japan, by which it was agreed that the ports of Hakodate, Kanagawa and Nagasaki should be opened to British subjects after July 1st, 1859. The arrival of Commodore Perry was the beginning of the intercourse of Japan with the nations of America and Europe, an intercourse which has entirely changed the destiny of the empire.

All the foreigners made the mistake of regarding the shogun as the rightful Emperor of Japan. They looked upon the

mikado as the spiritual ruler of the empire, who did not concern himself with its temporal affairs. The shogun on his part encouraged this belief, and signed the treaties without referring them to the mikado or asking his consent to their signature. This act was looked upon by the Japanese as a fresh usurpation of power on the part of the shogun, and aroused a strong reaction in favor of the mikado. The nation was opposed to the violation by the shogun of the traditional policy of non-intercourse with foreigners, and the country resounded with the cry, "Honor the mikado and expel the barbarian." The shogun was regarded as a traitor, and the cause of the mikado was greatly strengthened.

In 1858 the shogun died, and the prime minister Ii, a man of great ability and unscrupulous character, became regent. He set aside the true successor, and bestowed the shogunate upon the infant Prince of Kii, but kept the power in his own hands. This arbitrary act aroused a strong opposition to him, which he suppressed by imprisoning and executing the leaders of the movement. In 1859 he despatched an embassy to the United States without consulting the mikado, and so increased the hatred of the people for him. On the 23d of March, 1860, he was assassinated in open daylight in the streets of Yedo. The party of the mikado now grew with wonderful rapidity, and the shogun's followers, seeing the steady drift of popular sentiment, sought to regain their lost ground by trying to persuade the foreigners to close the ports and leave Japan, but without success. About this time the forces of the Prince of Choshu (Nogato), acting under the orders of the mikado, fired upon the ships of the United States, France, Great Britain and the Netherlands. This act was punished by the treaty powers shortly after, by sending a combined squadron to Shimonoseki and capturing that port after a severe bombardment. Japan was compelled to pay an indemnity of \$3,000,000. This victory opened the eyes of the Japanese to the power of the foreigners, and made them more cautious in their conduct towards them.

Though the Prince of Choshin had obeyed the mikado in firing upon the foreign vessels, he had disobeyed the shogun, and the latter, in 1866, marched to punish him for his disobedience. The forces of the shogun were armed and disciplined in the

old Japanese style; those of the Prince of Choshin were armed with European rifles and artillery, and had been disciplined by Dutch officers. A campaign of three months ensued, and resulted in the overwhelming defeat of the shogun, who, worn out with mortification at his failure, and with disease, died on the 19th of September, 1866. He was succeeded by Keiki, the last of the shoguns. The mikado's party now proceeded to bolder acts, and in October, 1867, urged the mikado to abolish the shogunate and resume the government of the empire. This proposal received so much support among the most powerful princes and nobles of Japan, that on the 9th of November, 1867, Keiki resigned the shogunate.

This was a great gain, but it was not all the mikado's party desired. They determined to go further and restore the government to the basis on which it had existed prior to A. D. 1200. On the 3d of January, 1868, they seized the palace, drove out the nobles, and created a government under which the highest offices were filled by the *kuge*, or court nobles of the imperial family, those of the next order by the daimios or courtiers, and those of the third order by men selected from the samurai. This arrangement threw the whole power of the state into the hands of the Satsuma, Choshin, Tosa, and Hizen clans. The ex-shogun was greatly displeased with this arrangement, and took up arms to regain his lost power. He was defeated in a three days' battle, and fled to Yedo in an American steamer. Seeing that further resistance was hopeless, he surrendered to the imperial forces, declared his resolution never again to oppose the will of the mikado, and retired to private life. This submission completely re-established the authority of the mikado throughout the empire, and gave peace to the country.

Up to this time the party of the mikado had been the bitterest opponents of the treaties negotiated by the shogun with the foreign powers. There were a few among them who had profoundly studied the question, and had seen the folly of their country in holding itself aloof from the rest of the world. These now set to work to promote the intercourse of Japan with the treaty powers, and found this no difficult task, as the leaders of the imperial party had by this time become convinced of the immense superiority of the foreign

over the native system of war. They also feared that the foreign powers would compel the empire by force to observe the treaties made with the shogun, and knew that Japan was in no condition to offer a successful resistance. They accordingly invited the representatives of the foreign powers to a conference at Kioto. Many of the court nobles had never seen a foreigner, and upon beholding them at the conference at once abandoned the prejudices they had cherished against them. The treaties were cordially renewed, the foreign powers recognized the mikado as the only rightful sovereign of Japan, and the foundations were laid upon which have been built up the intimate and cordial relations which now exist between Japan and the states of Europe and America. Foreign ideas and customs from this time made their way steadily into the empire, and were rapidly adopted by the Japanese. Since 1868 the character of Japanese civilization has undergone a profound change: The government, the army and navy, and the finances are administered upon a European basis; the European dress is driving out the old native costume; and large numbers of young men destined for the public service are sent to the schools of Europe and the United States to be trained in the learning and civilization of the western world. In all these measures the young Emperor Mutsuhito (the reigning mikado), who came to the throne in 1867, has taken an active part, and has constantly endeavored to promote the civilization of his country and to render more intimate its intercourse with the western nations.

The changes which took place in the internal government of the empire after the revolution of 1868 were very rapid. In 1871 the emperor abolished the titles of *kuge* and *daimio* (court and territorial noble), and replaced them by that of *kuazoku* (noble families). This decree deprived the great nobles of their territorial fiefs, which were reclaimed by the crown, and at one blow destroyed the feudal system of Japan. In the same year, in order to place himself more directly at the head of the new state of affairs, the emperor removed his capital from the old sacred city of Kioto to the great city of Yedo, the name of which was changed to Tokio (western capital). The government granted to the deposed daimios one-tenth of their former incomes on condition of residing

permanently at Tokio. In December, 1871, an embassy was sent to the nations of Europe and America. Each was visited in succession, and new treaties of commerce and friendship were negotiated. The embassy returned to Japan in September, 1873.

In 1874 Japan sent an expedition under General Saigo to Formosa to chastise the savages of that island for their outrages upon Japanese sailors wrecked upon their shores. The expedition was successful, but involved Japan in a quarrel with China, which power claimed Formosa as one of her dependencies. A war was imminent, but

the firmness of the Japanese ambassadors induced the Chinese government to enter into a treaty and make reparation to Japan for her losses. In July, 1875, Japan ceded the island of Saghalien to Russia, receiving in return the Kurile islands. In 1876 a quarrel of long standing with Corea was settled upon terms favorable to Japan. In the same year the empire took part in the International Centennial Exhibition, held at Philadelphia, in the United States, and gave unmistakable evidence in its superb display of its success in the new career upon which it has entered.

BOOK XXXVII.

THE HISTORY OF MEXICO.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT DAY.

Geographical Position of Mexico—Early History—The Native Tribes—The Toltecs—Rise of the Aztec Kingdom—The Civilization and Customs of the Aztecs—Tenochtitlan—Reign of Montezuma II.—Arrival of Cortes—The Conquest of Mexico—The Spaniards Subdue the Neighboring Tribes—Efforts of Cortes to introduce European Civilization—New Spain—Mexico under the Viceroy—Mistaken Policy of Spain—Character of the People of Mexico—Revolt of Hidalgo—The Revolution of 1820—Mexican Independence Proclaimed—Iturbide Establishes an Empire—It is Overturned—The Republic Established—Revolutions—Santa Anna becomes Dictator—The Texan War of Independence—Its Results—War with the United States—Fall of Santa Anna—More Revolutions—Juarez becomes President—Offends the Church Party—Trouble with the European Powers—War with France—Mexico Conquered by the French—The Empire Established—Maximilian—Withdrawal of the French—Capture and Execution of Maximilian—The Republic Restored—Subsequent History.

MEXICO occupies the southwestern portion of the North American continent, and lies between latitude 15° and $32^{\circ} 42' N.$, and longitude $86^{\circ} 34'$ and $117^{\circ} 7' W.$ It is bounded on the north and northeast by the United States, on the east by the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea, on the southeast by Balize, on the south by Guatemala and the Pacific Ocean, and on the west by the Pacific. Its extreme length, from northwest to southeast, is 1,990 miles,

and its greatest breadth, from east to west, is 750 miles. It embraces an area of 761,640 square miles, and contains a population of 9,276,079.

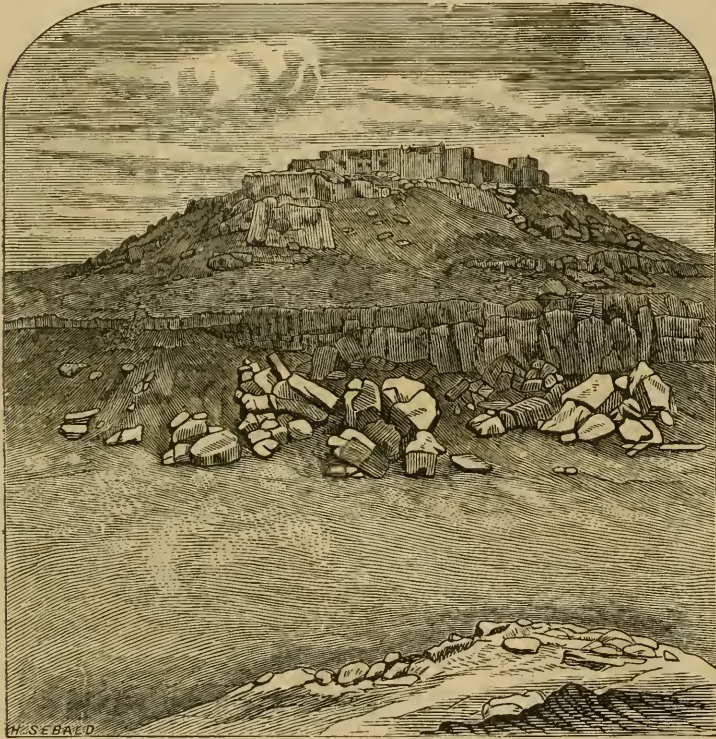
The early history of Mexico is unknown. Until the end of the sixth century of our era the entire subject is shrouded in mystery, and all narratives concerning it are fabulous. The native traditions and the remnants of ancient structures, which are still to be met with in the country, make it evident that the primitive inhabitants were possessed of a civilization equal, if not superior, to that of the Aztecs, but who they were or what was their story we cannot tell.

About the beginning of the seventh century the Toltecs entered the valley of Mexico, and built the city of Tollan or Tula, which they made their capital. Some writers regard them as having come from Guatemala; according to others they were from Asia. They are said to have been an agricultural people, and to have understood the mechanical arts. Their cities were cyclopean in character, and they were the originators of the system of astronomy afterwards adopted by the Mexicans. Early in the eighth century a kingdom is said to have been founded by Icoatizin. It lasted for five centuries, at the end of which time it fell in consequence of a long period of pestilence and civil war, and the greater part of the Toltecs abandoned their country

and migrated southward. Not long after this the Chichimecs, a fierce savage tribe, who are said to have worshipped the sun as their father and the earth as their mother, came from the north into the Toltec country. The few remaining inhabitants quietly submitted to them, and they settled peacefully in the land, and became amalgamated with the Toltecs. From this union sprang a people known as the Colhuis or Culhuas, who founded the Colhuacan monarchy. A number of other tribes came into the country after the arrival of the Chichimecs. The most powerful of these were

The last of all the tribes to make a permanent settlement in the country were the Aztecs or Mexicans. They had been in the valley of Mexico as long as any of the other tribes, but had not chosen any permanent resting-place. They came from Azatlan, an unknown region of the north, and on their journey southward appear to have made several prolonged halts. The first of these seems to have been on the shores of the Great Salt lake, in Utah territory; another appears to have been at the river Gila; and a third in the vicinity of the Presidio de los Llanos. About A. D.

1195 they reached Anáhuac, or the valley of Mexico. For the next one hundred and thirty years they led a nomadic existence, during which they waged an almost continuous war with the other tribes, in which their numbers were greatly diminished. In 1325 they laid the foundations of their city of Tenochtitlan on the islands of the lake of Tezucó. The name of this city was in after ages changed to Mexico in honor of their god Mexitli. The Aztecs were bitterly hated by the surrounding tribes, and had a hard struggle to found their state, but they persevered, and finally increased in wealth and power to an extent



ANCIENT MEXICAN TOWN.

the Tepanecs, who established their capital at Atcapozalco, and founded one of the most powerful of the Mexican states. Another tribe, the Techichimecs, founded the Tlaxcalan republic. All these tribes spoke the Nohoa or Nahuatl language. The Alcolhuis, another tribe, were regarded as the most refined. They were of the same race as the Toltecs, and taught the Chichimecs agriculture, the mechanic arts, and the manners and customs of city life. They became in course of time entirely blended with the Chichimecs, and the two races founded the kingdom of Tezucó or Acolhuacan.

which enabled them to turn upon their enemies and reduce them to submission. The surrounding country was subdued, and Aztec garrisons were established at commanding points. The whole of central and southern Mexico, and a portion of the north were embraced in the Aztec empire. As they grew in strength the Aztecs enlarged and improved their capital until it became a city, the magnificence and extent of which excited the surprise and admiration of Cortes and his followers, who were familiar with the splendors of the old world.

For twenty-seven years after the founda-

tion of Tenochtitlan the government of the Mexicans or Aztecs was administered by a council of twenty nobles. In 1352 it was changed into an elective monarchy, and Acamapitzin or Acamapichtle was made king. The power of the crown was greatly limited at first, but increased with the conquests and wealth of the nation.

The Mexicans advanced rapidly in civilization and soon became the leading nation in this respect. Their civilization, though peculiar, was of a very high order. At the head of the state was the king, who was elected by the nobles. It was indispensable that the candidate for the crown should be not under thirty years of age, and should have been a general in the royal armies. Military service was the basis of all rank in the state, and the nobles were naturally the officers of the army. The authority of the king was very great, but was regulated by a fixed code of laws. Next to the king and nobles were the priests, whose power was confined to spiritual affairs. As they had charge of the education of the young and were consulted in domestic matters, their influence was very great. A system of rigid morality prevailed among all classes; adultery was punished with death, as were also murder, theft, and drunkenness. The civil code of the Mexicans was as mild as their penal

code was severe. A well-arranged system of courts existed in the capital and the provincial towns, at which complaints were heard and justice administered. Marriage was encouraged, and the family relations formed a conspicuous and favorable feature of Aztec life. The right to hold property was confined to the men. The revenues of the crown were derived from state lands set apart in certain provinces, and from a tax upon agricultural products, and a tribute consisting of articles of food and manufactured wares. The army was regularly organized, and its discipline was firm and

well planned. The towns of the kingdom were connected with the capital by well-built roads, which the government kept in good repair, and an active commerce was carried on between the various portions of the kingdom. The lakes were covered with large fleets of boats engaged in this traffic. No beasts of burden were used, and when the Spaniards brought horses into Mexico, the natives regarded these animals with wonder. Mining was carried on with great success, and the Mexicans were skilful metallurgists. They were also well versed in astronomy, knew the true length of the



RUINS OF AN ANCIENT MEXICAN CITY.

year, the nature and cause of eclipses and of the period of the solstices and equinoxes, and of the transit of the sun across the zenith of Mexico; and had a calendar which was ingenious and accurate. Their knowledge of medicine, surgery, botany, and natural history was remarkable; and at the time of the conquest they had carried the science of geography to a promising point. Their agricultural and military implements were made of copper, bronze, and obsidian. Agriculture was carried on by means of irrigation.

The Mexicans were a deeply religious

people, and were very zealous in the performances of the rites and ceremonies of their faith. "They believed in a supreme Creator, invisible, yet omnipresent, but requiring numerous assistants to perform his will, each of whom presided over some special natural phenomenon or phase of human existence." The principal god—the patron divinity of the nation—was Huitzilopochtli, the god of war; next to him was Quetzalcoatl, the one "white god" of Mexican mythology, who taught his people the arts of peace and good government, and forbade human sacrifices. All the gods were represented by images of clay, wood,

solid pyramidal masses of earth cased with brick or stone, many of them more than 100 feet square and of a still greater height. The ascent was by flights of steps on the outside, and on the broad flat summit were sanctuaries containing the images of the deities and altars on which fires were continually burning." Human sacrifices constituted the chief religious ceremonial of the Mexicans; it is said that 2,500 persons were annually sacrificed on the altars of Tenochtitlan. These were chiefly prisoners taken in war.

Tenochtitlan, the capital of the empire, was at the time of the Spanish conquest a city of vast extent and great splendor. "The city was nine miles in circumference, and the number of its houses was about 60,000, and of inhabitants probably 500,000. Though a few of the streets were wide and of great length, most of them were narrow and lined with mean houses. The large streets were intersected by numerous canals crossed by bridges. The palace, near the centre of the city, was a pile of low, irregular stone buildings of vast extent. Another palace, assigned to



MEXICAN INDIANS.

stone, or precious metals. Vast numbers of priests were attached to the temples, and the religious ceremonies were conducted on a scale of great magnificence. "The temples were of two kinds: low and circular, or high and pyramidal, on the tops of which the sacrifices took place. Torquemada estimates that there were upwards of 40,000 throughout the empire. . . . There were hundreds in each principal city, besides the great temple with several smaller ones within its precincts; in each outlying quarter of the city were other small courts with as many as six temples; and there were temples on the mountains and at intervals along the high roads. They were

Cortes on his entrance into the city, was so large as to accommodate his whole army. But the most remarkable edifice of the whole city was the great teocalli or temple, completed in 1486. It was encompassed by a stone wall about eight feet high, ornamented on the outer side by figures of serpents in basso-relievo, and pierced on its four sides by gateways opening on the four principal streets. Over each gate was an arsenal, and barracks near the temple were garrisoned by 10,000 soldiers. The temple itself was a solid pyramidal structure of earth and pebbles, coated externally with hewn stones. It was square, its sides facing the cardinal points, and was divided into five

stories, each of which receded so as to be smaller than that below it. The ascent was by a flight of 114 steps on the outside, so contrived that to reach the top it was necessary to pass four times round the whole edifice, and the base of the temple is supposed to have been 300 feet square. The summit was a large area paved with broad, flat stones. On it were two towers or sanctuaries, and before each was an altar on which a fire was kept continually burning. The top of this remarkable structure commanded a superb view of the city, lake, valley, and surrounding mountains. The police of the city was efficient and vigilant, and 1,000 men were daily employed in watering and sweeping the streets. As the lake that surrounded the city was extremely brackish, pure water for the supply of the people was brought by an aqueduct from the neighboring hill of Chapultepec, where Montezuma had a summer palace surrounded by vast and magnificent gardens."

In 1502 Montezuma II. was chosen to succeed his uncle Ahuitzotl on the Mexican throne. He was an active and warlike sovereign, and subdued the southern country as far as Honduras and Nicaragua. He made many changes in the internal administration of the kingdom, and was noted for the strictness and severity with which he caused the laws to be executed. He was liberal in his rewards to those who served him faithfully, and spent large sums on the public works. His court was maintained upon a scale of magnificence never before equalled in Mexico. To provide for these expenditures heavy taxes were imposed upon the people, and these led to frequent revolts.

In A. D. 1519, when Montezuma was at the height of his power, Hernando Cortes,

at the head of 550 Spaniards, ten pieces of artillery, and about a dozen horsemen, landed on the coast of Mexico. He defeated the natives who sought to prevent his landing, founded the city of Vera Cruz, burned his ships, and, leaving a small garrison to defend his new conquest, advanced into the interior. He defeated the Tlascalans in four battles, and on the 18th of September entered the city of Tlascala. The natives, astonished at the fair skin and the martial prowess of the Spaniards, supposed them to be of divine origin, and the report went abroad that the gods had undertaken the conquest of the country. Cortes attempted to persuade the Tlascalans to abjure their



STREET IN A MEXICAN CITY.

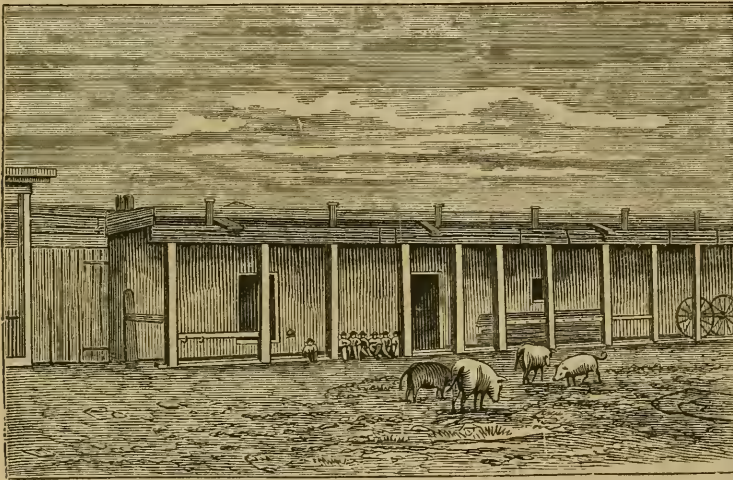
religion, though without success; but induced them to acknowledge themselves vassals of the King of Spain. He remained in Tlascala twenty days, and then resumed his march upon Mexico, accompanied by a force of several thousand Tlascalans who had espoused his cause. His route lay through Cholula, the people of which were induced by the Mexicans to attempt a treacherous attack upon the Spaniards. Cortes severely punished the Cholulans for their proposed attack. He then resumed his march, and arrived before the city of Mexico on the 8th of November, 1519. Previous to this Montezuma had sent ambassadors to the Spanish commander to

warn him not to approach the capital. He now changed his course, received the Spaniards with great pomp, and assigned them one of the largest and strongest palaces in the city as quarters. This they soon converted into a fortress. The new-comers were greatly surprised at the extent and magnificence of the Mexican capital, and from the first made preparations to conquer it.

The Mexicans strongly disapproved of the course of the king in allowing Cortes to enter the city with his followers, and manifested their hostility to the strangers on all possible occasions. At length a party of seventeen attacked a Spanish detachment. Cortes thereupon sought an interview with Montezuma in the monarch's own palace, and seized his person and con-

take the command from him. Leaving 200 men to hold the position in the city of Mexico, he hastened with 70 men to Cholula, where he was joined by 150 men he had left there, and marched against Narvaez, who, with 900 men, 80 horses, and 10 or 12 field guns, was encamped in one of the Cempoallan cities. By a bold stroke he captured Narvaez and his whole force. The vanquished troops readily enlisted in the service of the victor, and with this increased force Cortes returned to Mexico. Arriving there, he found the Mexicans in open rebellion against the Spaniards. Montezuma was brought out and made to address the people, but was received with a volley of missiles, one of which inflicted a mortal wound of which he died a few days later, June, 1520. The Mexicans now

attacked the Spaniards with great fury, drove them from their quarters and out of the city, and in their retreat across the causeway leading to the mainland literally annihilated their rear guard. The retreat continued six days, but at length Cortes halted on the plain of Otumba. Here he was attacked on the 7th of July, 1520, by an overwhelming Mexican force. He



A MEXICAN FARM HOUSE.

veyed him to the Spanish quarters, threatening him with instant death if he should give any sign to the multitude that thronged the streets that he was a prisoner. A rescue would have been attempted by the Mexicans had not Montezuma assured them that he was going of his own free will to visit the Spanish commander. Upon reaching his quarters Cortes put the captive king in irons, and captured and burned to death the seventeen natives who had attacked the Spaniards. He next compelled Montezuma to swear allegiance to the King of Spain, and to induce his nobles to do likewise. Then he obtained from the king a sum of gold equal in value to 100,000 ducats.

At this juncture Cortes learned that an expedition from Spain had landed on the coast, under Narvaez, who had come to

inflicted a crushing defeat upon it. This battle settled the fate of Mexico. Cortes immediately proceeded to Tlascala, where he collected an auxiliary force of natives. He then rapidly subdued the neighboring provinces, and on the 28th of April, 1521, appeared once more before the city of Mexico. Guatemozin, the new king, the son-in-law and nephew of Montezuma, was a man of firmness and decision. He held the city against the Spaniards for seventy-seven days, during which it was literally reduced to ruins by the Indian allies of Cortes. The final attack was made on the 15th of August, and what remained of the beautiful city was captured by the Spaniards. Guatemozin sought to escape with his family by the lake, but was pursued and made prisoner. He was treated with

great cruelty, and was finally put to death with a large number of his nobles. Cortes now proceeded to rebuild the city of Mexico upon its present plan, employing a large force of natives for this purpose. He rapidly subdued the remainder of the Aztec empire, and exerted himself to introduce the civilization of Europe and the Catholic religion into it. He established a military government, with himself as its chief. In October, 1522, the Emperor Charles V. issued a decree naming the conquered country New Spain, and appointed Cortes its governor. The Indians were enslaved by their conquerors, and were compelled to work in the mines and till the ground.

In 1528 Charles V. suppressed the system set up by Cortes, and established a viceregal government, under which the affairs of Mexico continued to be administered during the period of the Spanish dominion. There were sixty-four viceroys, all but one of whom were natives of Spain. The country continued to improve in spite of the policy pursued by Spain, which aimed at little more than extracting from it as much treasure as it could be made to yield. "At the opening of the present century, society in New Spain consisted of four classes of opposite tendencies and interests: the pure-blooded Indians; the creoles, or pure-blooded descendants of the early Spanish settlers; the mestizos, or half-breeds, from the union of whites and Indians; and the Spaniards of European birth. The condition of the Indians had but little changed under the viceroys; they were compelled to pay tribute, and were held in a sort of tutelage which only ended in the tomb. The Indian nobles or caciques were exempted from the degrading restrictions which weighed upon the others. As for the creoles, whose numbers were continually increasing, a policy due to ignorance of their real position in the community excluded them from all places of trust in the government, and even from the higher grades in the regular army. Upon such as had amassed great wealth, titles of nobility were conferred, while conciliatory crosses were distributed to those of smaller fortunes; but the home government considered it imprudent to allow them to take part in the public administration, and placed it exclusively in the hands of the Spaniards. This, with other grievances, caused profound discontent among the creoles, who would probably have resented it by open rebellion

had they not been restrained by the apprehension that the Indians, aided by the mestizos, might avail themselves of that for the destruction of all the whites."

The overthrow of the reigning house of Spain, and the elevation of Joseph Bonaparte to the Spanish throne, caused profound discontent in Mexico. All classes resented it. It became necessary to make certain modifications in the government to suit the altered state of affairs. On the 16th of September, 1808, the viceroy, Don José de Iturrigaray, was arrested and imprisoned on suspicion of a design to seize the crown of Mexico. This act greatly increased the popular discontent, and the aspirations for independence took, as it were, new life from this moment. On the 15th of September, 1810, a formidable revolt broke out in the province of Guanajuato, under the leader-



MEXICAN CACIQUE.

ship of Don Miguel Hidalgo, a priest. It was suppressed the next year, and Hidalgo and the other leaders were shot. This revolt was followed by a guerilla warfare of several years, under the leadership of Morclos, Victoria, Guerrero, Bravo, Rayon, and Teran. The patriot forces were compelled to cling to the mountains, but their unceasing resistance kept alive the long-cherished hope for independence. It seemed, however, that the authority of Spain was fully restored, and that the patriot cause was hopeless.

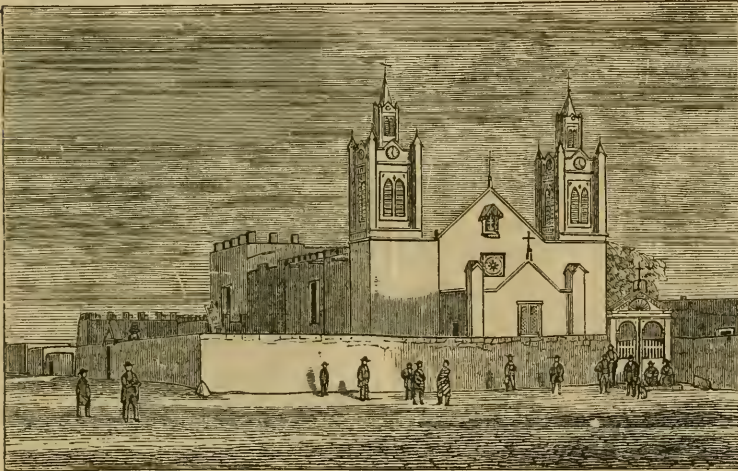
The revolution of 1820 in Spain revived the enthusiasm of the national party in Mexico, and a new leader appeared. This was Don Augustin Iturbide, a native Mexican, who had distinguished himself in the civil war as an officer in the royalist service. On the 24th of February, 1821, he issued a proclamation declaring Mexico

independent of Spain, and calling upon the Mexicans to sustain him. The revolt was successful. The whole country acknowledged his authority, the royal government was overthrown, and on the 27th of September the city of Mexico was surrendered to him by the viceroy. A regency was established, and on the 19th of May, 1822, Iturbide was proclaimed Emperor of Mexico by the army. This act gave great offence to the other patriot leaders, and on the 2d of December, Santa Anna, with the support of Bravo, Guerrero, and others, proclaimed the republic at Vera Cruz. A civil war was averted by the abdication of Iturbide on the 19th of March, 1823. A national congress was at once convened. Iturbide was condemned to exile, and sailed for England in May, 1823. A pro-

same year the United States recognized Mexico as an independent republic. In July, 1829, a Spanish force landed near Tampico to attempt the restoration of the rule of Spain. It was compelled to surrender on the 11th of September. The troops were disarmed and sent to Havana.

Mexico, though independent, was not destined to enjoy the blessing of a stable government. Soon after the surrender of the Spaniards, the vice-president, General Bustamante, pronounced against Guerrero, deposed him, and was himself elected president, January 11th, 1830. He was succeeded by Pedraza, who, three months later, was deposed by Santa Anna, who became president April 1st, 1833. Bustamante and several leading men were exiled by the new president. Congress now en-

acted a law abolishing the compulsory payment of tithes, and it was proposed to confiscate the property of the church and apply it to the payment of the national debt. These measures led to several outbreaks, the result of which was the repeal, in 1835, of the constitution of 1824, and the change from a confederation of states into a consolidated republic, with Santa Anna



A MEXICAN CATHEDRAL.

visional government was set up, and on the 4th of October, 1824, the congress adopted a constitution modelled upon that of the United States. By virtue of this instrument Mexico became a republic consisting of nineteen states and five territories. General Victoria, one of the popular leaders, was chosen president. Iturbide now returned to attempt the recovery of his throne, but was made prisoner, and was shot on the 19th of July, 1824. In 1828 the election of General Pedraza to the presidency over General Guerrero led to a revolt on the part of the followers of the latter. The outbreak was successful. Pedraza was overthrown and driven from the country, and Guerrero assumed the presidency on the 1st of April, 1829. In the

at its head as dictator, though retaining the title of president.

Texas, then a state of the republic, refused to accept this change, and proclaimed its independence. Santa Anna marched against the Texans in 1836, but after gaining some successes, was defeated and made prisoner in the battle of San Jacinto, April 21st, 1836.

The captivity of Santa Anna brought back the reign of anarchy in Mexico. Bustamante returned from exile, and on the 19th of April, 1837, became president. Later in the year Santa Anna returned to Mexico, and the real power passed into his hands. In March, 1839, a new revolution broke out, and Santa Anna once more became president. In July he was over-

thrown by General Nicolas Bravo, who held the office for one week. A period of confusion followed; the constitution was suspended; and a dictatorship, consisting of Santa Anna, Bravo, and Canalizo, was set up. In June, 1843, a new constitution was proclaimed, and Santa Anna became constitutional president in 1844. A few months later he was driven from power by a revolution, and on the 20th of September, 1844, Canalizo became president, only to be himself deposed in the following December by General Herrera, who was deposed by a new revolution on the 30th of December, 1845, which made General Paredes president.

During Herrera's administration Mexico became involved in a quarrel with the United States, growing out of the annexation of Texas by the latter power. The events of this war have been related in *The History of the United States*, to which the reader is referred. During the struggle Santa Anna returned from exile, overthrew Paredes, made himself president, and took personal command of the army. The war resulted in the triumph of the American forces, and by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, signed in February, 1848, California and New Mexico were ceded to the United States. The result of the war was fatal to Santa Anna. He was overthrown, driven from the country, and was succeeded by Herrera. A series of revolutions followed the war, elevating first one leader and then another to the presidency. On the 11th of May, 1861, Benito Juarez captured the city of Mexico, and his authority was generally recognized throughout the republic. He was one of the best of the Mexican presidents, and inaugurated a series of useful reforms which rendered his administration very popular with the mass

of the nation. Marriage was made a civil contract, perpetual monastic vows and ecclesiastical courts were abolished, and the church property, which was estimated at nearly one-half the real estate of the country, was appropriated to the service of the state. A little later the union between church and state, which had existed from the time of the conquest, was completely severed.

These measures, though popular with the people, gave great offence to the church party, which determined to destroy the Juarez government at any cost. At this



A MEXICAN VILLAGE.

juncture Spain, France, and England presented to the Mexican government a series of claims for losses sustained by their citizens in that country, and failing to obtain any satisfaction from the Juarez government, despatched a joint expedition to Mexico to enforce their demands. Early in December, 1861, a Spanish force under General Prim occupied Vera Cruz, and in January, 1862, the English and French forces arrived. The Juarez government now proceeded to settle the difficulty by negotiation, and agreed that the English and Spanish claims should be paid by turn-

ing over to them a certain proportion of the customs receipts. This arrangement being satisfactory to England and Spain, their forces evacuated Mexico in May, 1862.

The church party had seen in the presence of the foreign troops in Mexico an opportunity for the destruction of the Juarez government, and now resolved to put their plan in execution, although they knew it involved the loss of their country's liberties. They began to plot with the French, whose claim was the smallest, and induced the French emperor to attempt the erection of a monarchy in Mexico, which should make that country in actual fact a dependency of France, promising their active aid in over-

they entered the city of Mexico in triumph. Juarez and his government withdrew to San Luis Potosi.

The French and the church party at once proceeded to carry out their scheme. A regency was established on the 24th of June, and on the 8th of July an assembly of notables was held to decide upon the future form of government for Mexico. On the 10th this body declared that Mexico should be a hereditary monarchy under an emperor of the Roman Catholic faith. The crown was offered to the Austrian Archduke Maximilian, and was accepted by him. He waived all claim to the throne of Austria in the event of the death of his



VIEW OF PUEBLA FROM THE EAST.

coming the resistance of their countrymen. Accordingly the French commander refused to accept the arrangement which had proved satisfactory to England and Spain, and on the 16th of April, 1862, France declared war against Mexico. The French army was reinforced, and the advance into the interior was begun. Puebla was attacked, but the French were defeated and forced back to the coast. In 1863 the French army was strongly reinforced, and siege was laid to Puebla, which surrendered to General Forey on the 17th of May, after a gallant defence of three months. A number of other successes were won by the French, and on the 10th of June, 1863,

brother, the Emperor Francis Joseph, and made farewell visits to the sovereigns of France, England, and Belgium, and to the pope, who gave him his special blessing. He sailed for Mexico in April, 1864, and on the 28th of May landed at Vera Cruz, which was held by the French. After a short delay there he proceeded to the capital, welcomed all along the route with great enthusiasm by the church party. He made his formal entry into the city of Mexico on the 12th of June, 1864. One of the first acts of Maximilian, who was childless, was to adopt as his heir the son of the Emperor Iturbide. He addressed himself with energy to the task of giving to Mexico a good gov-

ernment, and it is exceedingly probable that had he been able to establish his throne he would have done more for the country than any of its former rulers had accomplished; but from the first he had to encounter the hostility of the republican or national party, and his failure to restore the sequestered estates of the clergy and to revive the old connection between church and state, soon lost him the support of his only partisans; and he was kept on his throne only by the presence of the French army. The imperial troops drove Juarez and his

aid unless France should withdraw her troops and leave the Mexicans to settle their own affairs. The French government was informed of this determination, and at last agreed to withdraw its army. Upon reaching this decision, the Emperor Napoleon sent General Castelnau to the city of Mexico to urge Maximilian to abdicate, as he could not possibly succeed in holding his throne without the aid of France. Maximilian refused to entertain the idea of abdication, and declined to see the French envoy. His ministers supported him in



ENTRY OF THE FRENCH INTO THE CITY OF MEXICO.

adherents back by degrees, and in September, 1865, he reached El Paso, on the Texan frontier. His forces maintained a determined resistance, and early in 1866 the tide began to turn in their favor. On the 25th of March they captured Chihuahua.

In the meantime the United States, appreciating the designs of France, had strongly protested against the establishment of the Mexican empire. At length, the civil war being ended, the American government determined to give Juarez material

his determination. The withdrawal of the French army was immediately begun, and the emperor soon found himself dependent entirely upon the support of a few partisans whose desperate fortunes were so bound up with his own, that they could not afford to desert him. The last French detachment was withdrawn from Mexico on the 16th of March, 1867.

The departure of the French was followed by a strong reaction in favor of the republic. The forces of Juarez were largely augmented, and the emperor, thrown upon his

own resources, deemed it best to leave the city of Mexico, march northward, and offer battle to the republican army. He reached Queratero at the head of 5,000 men, and was at once besieged in that place by a force of 20,000 men under General Escobedo. The place was betrayed by the imperialist

emperor, but the American government declined to interfere with the course of affairs.

On the 16th of July Juarez returned to the city of Mexico, and began the work of reconstructing the government. The constitution was re-established, and in 1871 Juarez was again elected president. He



THE EMPEROR MAXIMILIAN.

governor of the city, and Maximilian was made prisoner. He was tried by a court-martial, and was shot by the republican forces on the 19th of June, 1867, together with Generals Miramon and Mejia. A strong effort was made to induce the United States to intervene and save the life of the

emperor, but the American government declined to interfere with the course of affairs. On the 16th of July Juarez returned to the city of Mexico, and began the work of reconstructing the government. The constitution was re-established, and in 1871 Juarez was again elected president. He died on the 18th of July, 1872, and was succeeded by the Chief Justice Lerdo de Tejada, who was formally elected president on the 21st of November, 1872. He was re-elected in 1876, but was soon after overthrown by General Porfirio Diaz and compelled to fly to the United States.

BOOK XXXVIII.

THE HISTORY OF THE SOUTH AMERICAN STATES.

CHAPTER I.

FROM THE DISCOVERIES OF THE PORTUGUESE AND SPANISH TO THE PRESENT TIME.

History of Brazil — Discovery by Cabral — First Settlements—Conflicts with the Dutch and English—Brazil made a Principality—Discovery of Gold—The Royal Family in Brazil—The Kingdom of Brazil Established—Revolution of 1521—Brazil becomes an Independent Empire—Accession of Pedro II.—Events of his Reign—History of Peru—The Kingdom of the Incas—Conquest by Pizarro—Settlements of the Spaniards—The Indians Enslaved—The Viceroyalty—Peru becomes Independent of Spain—The Republic—Subsequent History—History of Chili—Conquests of the Spaniards—Wars with the Araucanians—Colonial History—Chili throws off the Spanish Yoke—History of the Republic—War with Spain—Valparaiso Bombarded—Prosperity of Chili—History of Ecuador—Becomes Independent of Spain—Subsequent Events—The United States of Colombia—Colonial History—Bolivar wins the Independence of the Country—History of the Republic—History of Venezuela—Colonial Times—The Revolution—Independence Gained—Subsequent History—History of Bolivia—Becomes an Independent Republic—History of the Republic—The Madeira and Mamore Railroad—The History of Uruguay—History of the Argentine Republic—History of Paraguay—The Missions—The Republic—War with Brazil—Subsequent History.

WITH the exception of Brazil the states of South America are republics. Though they have not kept pace with the nations of the North American continent, their history is interesting and instructive.

I. THE HISTORY OF BRAZIL.

The empire of Brazil is the largest and most important country in South America, and the only empire in the western world. It occupies the northeastern part of the continent, and lies between latitude 4° 31' N., and 33° S., and longitude 35° and 73° W. Its extreme length from north to south is about 2,600 miles, and its extreme breadth from east to west is 2,470 miles. It comprises an area of 3,200,000 square miles and contained in 1876 a population of 10,700,187.

On the 22d of April, 1500, Pedro Alvarez Cabral, who had been sent by Portugal to

continue the discoveries begun by Vasco da Gama in the East Indies, and whose fleet had been blown out of its course by adverse winds, discovered the shores of Brazil. On the 25th Cabral anchored in a large and excellent harbor, which he named Porto Seguro. To the country he gave the name of Vera Cruz, which was subsequently changed to Santa Cruz, and finally to Brazil. He took possession of it in the name of the King of Portugal, and having despatched a vessel home with the news of his discovery, resumed his voyage to the Indies. Upon the receipt of the news the Portuguese king sent an expedition under Amerigo Vespucci to visit and explore the new country. Vespucci, upon his return to Europe, published an account of the country, together with a map, and from this time the name of America began to be applied to the whole of the new world. He brought back also a cargo of dyewoods, of which he said whole forests were to be found in Brazil. An active and profitable trade in these woods at once sprang up. Other nations began to take part in it, and the King of Portugal resolved to put a stop to this intrusion. Accordingly in 1531 King Joam, or John III., caused a number of colonies to be planted on the Brazilian coast. These were termed *Capitanias*, and were founded by Portuguese nobles, to whom the crown granted absolute powers over their settlements on the sole condition that they should bear the expense of colonization. This system worked well for a few years, but at length produced such trouble that the Portuguese government resolved to establish a permanent colonial system directly dependent upon the crown. In 1549 a governor general was appointed, and was made the direct representative of the king and given unlimited powers of jurisdiction, both civil and criminal. The first governor was Dom Thomé de Souza, and to his wisdom and good government is due the success of the new system. He founded the town of Sao Salvador da Bahia, which he made the capital of Brazil. In 1555 a number of

French Protestants made a settlement on an island in the bay of Rio de Janeiro, but the colony proved a failure and the settlers were expelled from the island in 1565. In 1567 the Portuguese founded the city of Sao Sebastao, now called Rio de Janeiro.

The forcible annexation of Portugal to Spain by Philip II. in 1580 was very unfortunate for Brazil, and drew upon the province the hostilities of the numerous enemies of Spain, of which country it now became

were masters of all Brazil north of that city except Para. The Portuguese now renewed their efforts; by degrees drove out the Dutch; and by 1654 had entirely expelled them from the country. In the treaty of 1660 Holland formally renounced all her claims to Brazil. The independence of Portugal had in the meantime been restored by John IV., who ascended the throne in 1640. Brazil was erected into a principality, and the heir apparent to the Portuguese throne was invested with the



THE EMPEROR'S PALACE AT RIO DE JANEIRO.

a dependency. The settlements were repeatedly attacked by the French, English, and Dutch fleets, and were plundered and subjected to great loss. In 1612 the French seized Maranhao, and founded the city of Sao Luiz do Maranhao. In 1615 the Portuguese expelled them from the town. In 1623 a Dutch fleet captured Bahia, but in 1625, after the departure of the fleet, the Dutch garrison was forced to surrender. In 1629 Pernambuco fell into the hands of the Dutch, who rapidly extended their conquests. By 1645 they

title of Prince of Brazil. In the meantime the province had prospered steadily in spite of its struggles with the Dutch and the exactions of the home government. Agriculture was the basis of its prosperity. In 1696 gold was discovered in Brazil, and near about the same time diamonds were also found. These discoveries greatly increased the wealth of the country, which had found in agriculture a stable basis for its prosperity, independent of them, and poured a steady stream of wealth into the Portuguese treasury. In 1763 the home

government removed the capital of Brazil from Bahia and established it at Rio de Janeiro.

In 1807 Napoleon declared war against Portugal, and sent an army into that country. The regent (afterwards Joam VI.) and the royal family and court at once embarked upon the fleet and sailed for Rio de Janeiro. This was a great gain for Brazil, and was followed by important changes in the government; the ports were thrown open to all the world, and trade was invited from all nations. In 1815, upon the overthrow of Napoleon, Brazil was erected into a kingdom, and when Joam VI. came to the throne in 1816 he took the title of King of Portugal, Algarve, and Brazil. He continued to reside in Brazil, and so offended his Portuguese subjects. In September, 1820, as we have related elsewhere, a revolution broke out in Portugal, and the Spanish constitution was proclaimed. Revolutionary disturbances occurred in Para and Pernambuco, and the king fearing that the movement would involve the whole of Brazil, placed himself at the head of it, and on the 26th of February, 1821, proclaimed the constitution of Brazil. Soon after this he returned to Portugal, leaving his son, Prince Pedro, as Regent of Brazil. He had scarcely sailed when a revolutionary movement broke out, in April, 1821. Brazil was declared an independent empire on the 12th of October, 1822; and on the 1st of December, 1822, the regent was crowned Emperor as Dom Pedro I. A constitution was adopted in 1824, and on the 7th of September, 1825, Portugal acknowledged the independence of Brazil.

In 1826 Joam VI. died, and Dom Pedro became King of Portugal. He preferred to retain his western empire, and resigned the Portuguese crown to his infant daughter Doña Maria da Gloria. In the same year a war broke out between Brazil and the Argentine republic, which was seeking to absorb Uruguay. Peace was made through the mediation of England, and Montevideo, or Uruguay, was constituted an independent republic.

On the 7th of April, 1831, Pedro I., who had been engaged in a long dispute with the chamber of deputies, ended the quarrel by abdicating his crown in favor of his son Pedro II., the present emperor. As the new sovereign was but six years old, a council of regency administered the government until 1841, when Pedro was declared

of age, and was crowned on the 18th of July.

The reign of Pedro II. was prosperous and highly beneficial to his country. He proved a liberal and able ruler, and spared no pains to advance the civilization and prosperity of Brazil. In 1831 a law placing severe restrictions upon the slave trade was enacted, and in 1850 the traffic was finally abolished. In 1852 Brazil, in alliance with Uruguay and the forces of Entre Rios, waged a successful war against the Argentine Dictator Rosas, who was defeated and forced to fly to England. In 1865 Brazil, Uruguay, and the Argentine republic declared war against Paraguay, the cause being the unprovoked aggressions of Lopez, the Dictator of Paraguay, upon the allied states. The war was long and costly, and ended only with the death of Lopez, on the 1st of March, 1871. Brazil entered into a separate treaty with Paraguay concerning boundaries and a war indemnity, without consulting her allies. This gave great offence to the Argentine republic, and came near leading to a war with that country. The difficulty was settled in October, 1872, by an agreement that the Argentine republic should negotiate separately with Paraguay, as Brazil had done. In 1871 a law was enacted by the Brazilian chambers providing for the gradual extinction of slavery throughout the empire. Since the settlement of the Paraguayan war the history of the empire has been peaceful and uneventful. In 1876 the emperor and empress made a visit to the United States, and took part in the opening ceremonies of the centennial exhibition, after which they visited Europe, and returned to Brazil in the summer of 1877.

II. THE HISTORY OF PERU.

The republic of Peru lies on the western coast of South America, between latitude $3^{\circ} 20'$ and $22^{\circ} 20'$ S., and longitude 67° and $81^{\circ} 26'$ W. It embraces an area of about 500,000 square miles, and contains a population of about three millions.

Peru was originally inhabited by several tribes of Indians, under the rule of a sovereign called the Inca. They were possessed of a high degree of civilization, a simple but just code of laws, and a well-arranged system of government. Education was limited to the ruling class, and there were laws which compelled a son to follow the calling of his father, and prohibited his

receiving an education superior to his station in life. The religion of the ancient Peruvians consisted in the worship of the sun, from whom the Inca claimed descent. The person of the monarch was regarded as divine. He had many wives, the principal one of which must be his eldest sister, and as many concubines as he wished. The son of the principal wife was the heir to the throne. When the Inca died he was supposed to have been called home to the mansion of his father, the sun. The government was mild, but despotic; the great

coast of Peru, but returned without accomplishing anything. In 1531 he obtained from the King of Spain the titles of governor and captain-general of all the countries he should conquer, and with his four brothers and a small force of men sailed for Peru, which he reached late in January, after a voyage of fourteen days from Panama. He captured and plundered a town in the province of Coaque, and was soon after reinforced by the arrival of 130 Spaniards under Almagro, his second in command. The adventurers then commenced to build



ANCIENT PERUVIAN TEMPLE OF THE SUN.

aim of the state being territorial expansion, the military class were the most favored. The civilization of the Peruvians was superior to that of the nations around them, but inferior to that of Mexico.

In A. D. 1512 Vasco Nuñez de Balboa, Governor of the Spanish colony of Darien, learned from the Indians that there was a country to the south of the isthmus, where gold was in as common use as iron with the Spaniards. Balboa attempted to find this country, but without success. In 1524 Francisco Pizarro made a voyage to the

a town in the valley of Tangarala, which they named San Miguel.

The empire of the Incas was divided at this juncture by a civil war. Huayna Capac, the late Inca, had divided his dominions between his two sons, Huascar and Atahualpa. A war had broken out between them, and Atahualpa had defeated his brother and made him prisoner. He was now encamped with his army at Cajamarca, to which place Pizarro repaired to meet him in September, 1532, with a force of 177 men. The Spanish commander was

received with great kindness by the Inca. A few days later Pizarro treacherously seized the Inca, and held him a prisoner. The Peruvian army instantly became panic-stricken, and fled. Atahuallpa was induced to believe that he would be allowed to purchase his liberty, and actually delivered to Pizarro an amount of gold equal in value when melted down to \$17,500,000. The cruel Spaniard accepted the treasure, but refused to release the captive Inca, and had him burned to death on the 29th of August, 1533. Pizarro now marched upon Cuzco, the ancient capital of the Incas, and as Huascar had been slain by order of Atahuallpa, he proclaimed Mauco Capac, a half-brother of Atahuallpa, Inca. At the same time Pizarro determined to establish a new capital near the sea, and on the 6th of January, 1535, founded the city of Lima, in the valley of the Rimac.

The Peruvians were treated with the most barbarous cruelty by the Spaniards, and at last, driven to despair, rose in a supreme effort to recover their freedom under the leadership of Manco Capac. Cuzco was taken and burned, and such Spaniards as fell into the hands of the natives were put to death. To add to the sufferings of the country, a war broke out between Pizarro and Almagro. The latter was taken and executed, and the Spaniards proceeded to crush the outbreak of the Peruvians. The natives were subdued, treated with the most diabolical cruelty, and reduced to abject slavery. Pizarro set up a military government, and governed the province with merciless rigor.

Reports of the tyranny of Pizarro reached the King of Spain, and in 1540 Vaca de Castro was sent to Peru to examine into the matter. Before he reached Lima Pizarro was assassinated, on the 26th of June, 1541, by the followers of the son of Almagro, who proclaimed himself governor. Almagro took up arms to resist Castro, who had orders from the king to assume the governorship in case of Pizarro's death, but was defeated, made prisoner, and put to death. Castro was recognized as governor, and applied himself to a settlement of the affairs of the country. He was soon superseded by Blasco Nuñez Vela, who had been appointed viceroy by the king. He came charged to inaugurate a new and better system of government, and especially to liberate the Indians from slavery, and to impose upon them a fairer

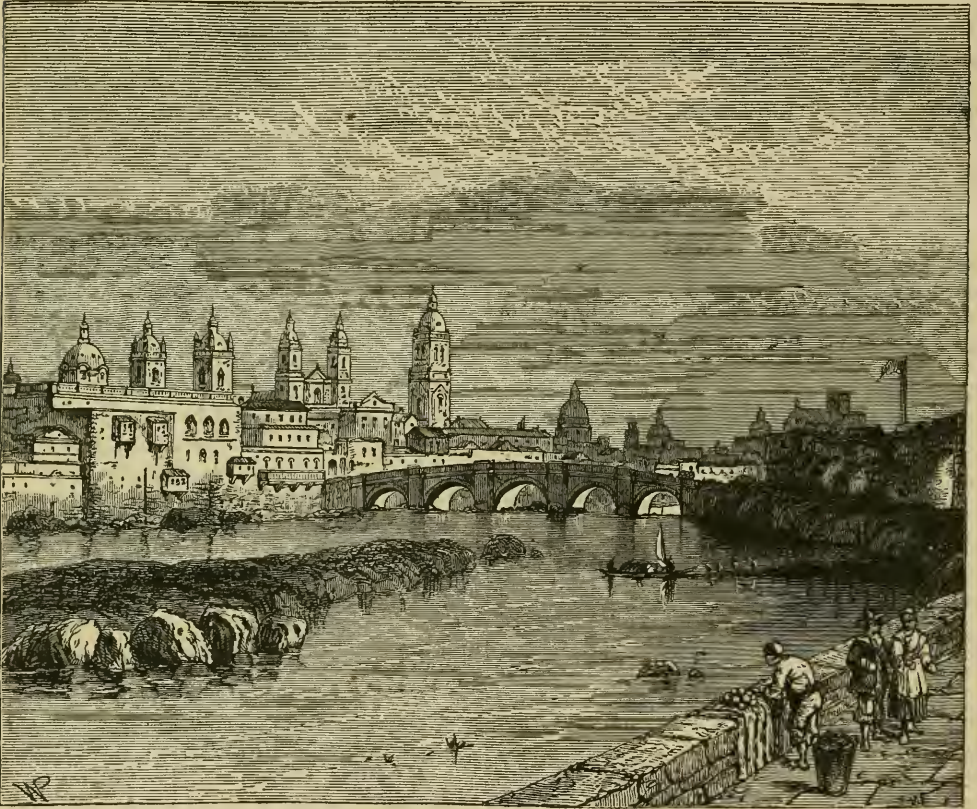
system of taxation. These measures brought on a civil war, in which the rebels were headed by Gonzalo Pizarro, the last of the family of the conqueror remaining in Peru. It lasted several years, and resulted in the defeat of the insurgents and the capture and execution of Gonzalo in 1548. The government of the country was then established upon a more solid and enduring basis, and for nearly three centuries Peru remained tranquil under Spanish rule.

In 1820 the South American states rose in rebellion against Spain, and proclaimed themselves independent. Peru was the last to take this step. General San Martin, who had freed Chili of the Spaniards, entered Peru at the head of an army of Chilians and Buenos Ayreans, seized the city of Lima, and drove the Spaniards into the interior. On the 28th of July, 1821, Peru declared herself independent of Spain, and General San Martin was proclaimed protector of the republic. Becoming unpopular, he resigned on the 19th of August, 1822, and in February, 1824, General Bolivar was made dictator. On the 9th of December, 1824, the Peruvians inflicted a decisive defeat upon the Spaniards in the battle of Ayacucho, and in January, 1826, expelled them from Callao, their last foothold in Peru. In 1825 Bolivar resigned the dictatorship, but before doing so, organized the southern and southeastern provinces into a separate republic, which took the name of Bolivia.

Although independent, Peru was not tranquil. In 1826 a revolution occurred, and the constitution proclaimed by Bolivar was destroyed, and a new one adopted. In 1836 President Santa Cruz, of Bolivia, entered Peru with an army, and proclaimed himself Supreme Protector of the Bolivio-Peruvian confederation. The union between the two states lasted until 1839. A series of depositions and civil wars now ensued, but were brought to an end in 1844 by General Castillo, who made Menendez president. Castillo was elected as the successor of Menendez, and entered upon his office on the 1st of April, 1845. He remained in power until 1851, and gave to Peru the best government it had ever known. He was succeeded by General Echenique, who was accused of gross frauds in his administration. Castillo headed an insurrection, drove Echenique from power, and once more became master of Peru. Several determined efforts to overthrow

Castillo's government were made, but all failed, and he succeeded in holding office until the expiration of his term. In 1855 he declared slavery abolished in Peru. In October, 1862, General San Ramon succeeded Castillo as president, but died in the following April. General Pezet succeeded him. During Pezet's administration the Spaniards seized the Chincha islands, and Peru declared war against Spain. Peace was made in 1865, Spain restoring the islands, and Peru agreeing to pay a war

office and retire to Chili. On the 28th of July Colonel Balta was proclaimed president, but was assassinated in July, 1872. Peace was restored in a few weeks, and on the 2d of August Don Manuel Pardo was almost unanimously chosen president. He held office until the 2d of August, 1876, and his administration was highly popular and successful. The resources of the country were largely developed, its prosperity was increased, quiet and good-will were maintained, education was made available



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indemnity of \$3,000,000. This treaty was denounced by the people, and brought on a revolution which overthrew Pezet, and made General Prado dictator. He concluded an alliance with Chili in December, 1865, and in January, 1866, the two states declared war against Spain. On the 2d of May the Spanish fleet sustained a defeat at the hands of the allies, and a few days later withdrew from the Peruvian waters. On the 10th of January, 1868, a successful revolution compelled Prado to resign his

to all classes, the finances were reorganized, railways were extended to various parts of the country, river navigation was greatly improved, and the telegraph was carried to all the important points of the republic. On the 2d of August, 1876, Don Mariano Ignacio Prado was elected president.

III. THE HISTORY OF CHILI.

The republic of Chili occupies the southern part of the western coast of South America, and lies between latitude 24° and 56° S.,

and longitude 70° and 74° W. It comprises an area of about 133,000 square miles, and contained in 1875 a population of 2,068,447 souls.

The aboriginal inhabitants of Chili consisted of a number of Indian tribes, descended from a common source, and calling themselves Alapu-che, or people of the land. They spoke a common language. About the middle of the fifteenth century the Peruvian Incas succeeded in conquering the northern part of Chili, but could never reduce the southern tribes to submission.

After the conquest of Peru by the Spaniards, the victors, finding that a part of Chili had been subject to the Incas, resolved to conquer that country also. An expedition under Diego Almagro entered Chili from Peru in 1535, and advanced as far as Copiapo, without meeting with any opposition. Proceeding southward into the territory of the Purumancians, they were attacked by the natives with such vigor that they were compelled to return to Peru.

In 1540 a second expedition was despatched from Peru against Chili. This time the command was conferred upon Pedro de Valdivia, an able and prudent officer. He succeeded in overcoming the resistance of the Indians, and reached the river Mapocho, where he founded the city of Santiago, named in honor of the patron saint of Spain. The Indians made a desperate effort to destroy the town, but were defeated. Being reinforced from Peru, Valdivia proceeded southward to the river Maule. Crossing this stream he entered the country of the Araucanians, who fell upon him, almost annihilated his army, and compelled him to retreat to Santiago. He returned to Peru for reinforcements, and in 1550 came back to Santiago with a large and well-armed force. With this army he again marched southward, and founded the city of Concepcion, on the present site of Penco. The Araucanians collected a force of 4,000 men, and attacked Concepcion. They were defeated with terrible loss, their chief being among the killed. The war went on with great fury, and in 1559 Valdivia was captured and put to death by the Indians, who next took and destroyed Concepcion, and even marched upon Santiago. They were forced to retreat to their own country. For more than a century after their arrival in Chili the Spaniards persistently endeav-

ored to conquer the Araucanians, but were never successful. At length they concluded a treaty with the Indian tribes south of the Bobio in 1665, by which they acknowledged their independence. In 1723 the war was renewed, and was continued with but brief intervals of peace until about 1773.

Having established their power in that country, the Spaniards organized Chili as a viceroyalty, and divided it into thirteen districts. Like all the Spanish provinces, it was always misgoverned and the people were grossly oppressed. In July, 1810, the popular discontent broke out into revolution; the Spanish Governor Carrasco was deposed, and the government placed in the hands of a *junta*. An outward loyalty to Spain was maintained, but it was the real design of the leaders of the movement to break off all connection with the mother country. In April, 1811, the royal troops were attacked by the patriots and driven from Santiago. General Carrera was appointed by the *junta* supreme president of the national congress and commander-in-chief of the army. In 1813 he won two victories over the Spanish troops; but the latter were largely reinforced, and before the close of the year Chili was compelled to submit once more to the authority of Spain. During the next three years the tyranny of the Spanish officials was more odious than it had been before the outbreak. The patriots now raised an army in the neighboring province of La Plata, and made General San Martin its commander. He marched into Chili, and won an important victory over the royalist forces at Chacabuco on the 12th of February, 1817. A provisional government was set up by the patriots, and Don Bernardo O'Higgins was placed at its head as supreme dictator. The Spaniards now rallied and defeated the Chilians with heavy loss at Chaucharayada; but were themselves utterly routed by the patriots at Chilenos on the 5th of April, 1818. Not more than 500 Spaniards escaped from the field. This victory entirely destroyed the Spanish power in Chili, Peru, and Buenos Ayres, and secured the independence of those states. The Spaniards retreated to the port of Valdivia, which they held until 1820, when they surrendered to the Chilean forces.

The dictatorship of General O'Higgins lasted until 1823, when, having become unpopular, he was forced to resign his

power. A provisional government of three succeeded him, but gave way in the course of a few weeks to General Freire as dictator. In 1828 the first Chilian constitution was adopted. It was revised in 1831-33.

Chili has been the most orderly of the South American republics, but has not entirely escaped revolution. The most serious of these outbreaks occurred in 1851; one in April and the other in September. The latter was the more formidable of the two, but both were at length suppressed. The September revolt was caused by the effort of General De la Cruz to overthrow the

on a securer basis, and negotiated treaties of commerce and friendship with France, Sardinia, the United States, and Great Britain. In 1862 the Araucanians gave great trouble to the government. Under the leadership of a Frenchman named De Tonniens, they endeavored to throw off the authority of Chili and make themselves independent. They were compelled to submit.

When the war broke out between Peru and Spain, in 1864, Chili warmly sympathized with her sister republic. This sympathy drew upon her the hostility of Spain,

and the next year the coast of Chili was blockaded by the Spanish fleet. Chili, late in 1865, declared war against Spain. On the 26th of November the Chilian steamer "Esmeralda" captured the Spanish steamer "Covadonga," with all the correspondence of the Spanish admiral on board. This event so mortified Admiral Pareja that he committed suicide. He was succeeded by Admiral Nuñez. On the 14th of January, 1866, Chili entered into an alliance with Peru, and on the 7th of February the allied fleets defeated a Spanish squadron. On the 31st of March, Admiral Nuñez, regardless of the protests of all the foreign repre-



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sentatives at that port, bombarded the city of Valparaiso, destroying property to the amount of more than ten millions of dollars, and demolishing nearly all the public buildings and many private edifices. Not a shot was returned from the town. The greater part of the loss fell upon the foreign residents. In the following month the Spanish fleet took its departure from the Chilian waters. The United States now offered their mediation between Spain and the allies, and on the 11th of April, 1871, a treaty arranging an armistice and an indefinite truce was signed at Washington.

president of the republic, Don Manuel Montt. It cost the government a sacrifice of 4,000 soldiers for its suppression, and greatly injured the prosperity of the country. At its close a general amnesty was proclaimed to the insurgents, and President Montt applied himself with energy to the restoration of the prosperity of the country. He was re-elected in 1856. His administration was the ablest in the history of the republic. It gave to the country a well-arranged code of laws, established a tribunal of commerce and a bank of discount and deposit at Valparaiso, arranged the finances

In 1869 the Araucanians again endeavored to throw off the Chilean rule, but in the following year were put down, and their country was permanently occupied by the Chilean forces. Since then the history of Chile has been peaceful and uneventful. The energies of the people have been turned to the development of the resources of their country, and the republic has prospered in a marked degree. The railroad and telegraph have been introduced, the mineral and agricultural wealth of the country have been largely developed, and an active and growing foreign commerce has been created. Chile is "proverbial," says a recent writer, "for its steady progress in all industrial enterprises, for the absence of political perturbation, and for its punctuality in meeting its financial engagements. Its securities rank among the foremost on the London Stock Exchange, being usually held for investment; it builds its own railways and its own telegraphs without much foreign help; and the money it borrows for such purposes is secured by national and private bonds."

IV. THE HISTORY OF ECUADOR.

The republic of Ecuador, so called from its situation under the equator, is situated on the west coast of South America, north of Peru, and lies between latitude $1^{\circ} 50' N.$ and $5^{\circ} 30' S.$, and longitude $69^{\circ} 52'$ and $80^{\circ} 35' W.$ It comprises an area of about 252,000 square miles. The Galápagos islands belong to the republic, and comprise an additional area of 2,951 square miles. The population of Ecuador is estimated at about one million and a half.

The primitive inhabitants of Ecuador were Indians, and the country was known as the kingdom of Quito. It was subdued by the Peruvian Incas, and was made a part of their empire. It fell under the dominion of the Spaniards, together with Peru, and was made by them a presidency or province of the viceroyalty of Peru. It continued to be ruled by Spanish governors from 1553 to 1822. It was one of the richest and most productive of the Spanish colonies, and was ground down by the exactions of the home government. This aroused the discontent of the people, which grew steadily, and in 1809 burst out into open revolt. The outbreak was suppressed, but was followed by several others. The patriots did not despair, and finally inflicted a decisive defeat upon the royalist

forces in the battle of Pichincha, May 22d, 1822. This battle established the independence of Ecuador, which became a part of the republic of Colombia. Upon the dissolution of that confederation, in 1831, Ecuador became an independent republic under its present name. This separation was followed by twenty years of almost uninterrupted civil war. Quiet had hardly been restored when a war with Peru broke out in 1852, and continued in a desultory manner until 1858. On the 22d of March, 1858, Quito was destroyed by an earthquake. In 1862 and 1863 strong efforts were made by the President of New Granada to restore the Colombian republic. This led to a war between Ecuador and New Granada, in which the forces of the former state were routed. Peace was made with New Granada, but the effort to draw Ecuador into the Colombian republic failed. In 1861 General Garcia Moreno was elected president. He endeavored to place the system of education exclusively in the hands of the Roman Catholic clergy, but was obliged by the popular discontent to abandon the measure. In order to prevent a civil war he assumed the dictatorship on the 30th of August, 1864, and by his stern and merciless enforcement of the laws preserved the peace unbroken. He was succeeded by Don Geronimo Carrion, who was elected president in May, 1865. In August, 1868, a fearful earthquake caused great destruction and loss of life throughout the republic. In the province of Imbabura the destruction was terrible. Ibarra, the capital of the province, was completely destroyed, and 30,000 persons are said to have perished in the ruins. Early in 1869 Garcia Moreno overthrew the government and made himself president. He at once closed all the schools but those under the control of the Jesuits. On the 16th of May he resigned and was succeeded by Carvajal. A few months later Moreno was elected president for six years. In 1874 he ordered that ten per cent. of the revenue of the church should be remitted to Rome for the support of the pope.

On the 6th of August, 1875, President Moreno was assassinated in one of the corridors of the treasury building at Quito. The cause was the tyrannical and brutal manner in which he had exercised the powers of his office. No disturbance followed this event. An election was held,

and Dr. Antonio Borrero was chosen president of the republic. He was inaugurated on the 8th of December, 1875.

V. THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES OF COLOMBIA.

The republic known as the United States of Colombia occupies the northwestern corner of the South American continent, and a portion of the Isthmus of Darien, and lies between latitude $12^{\circ} 21'$ N. and $1^{\circ} 20'$ S., and longitude $68^{\circ} 52'$ and $83^{\circ} 5'$ W. It comprises an area of about 500,000 square miles, and contains a population of about 3,000,000 souls.

The primitive inhabitants of the Colombian republic were Indians. The inhabitants of the lowlands and the coast regions were pure savages; the dwellers in the uplands possessed a certain degree of civilization. Their religion was the worship of the sun.

In 1499 the coast of Colombia was discovered by Alonso de Ojeda, and in 1502 was visited by Columbus. In 1536-37 the country was conquered by the Spaniards, and in 1718 it was erected into the viceroyalty of New Granada. Spanish rule here as elsewhere bore very hard upon the people, and finally resulted in revolution. The first outbreak was made in 1781, and was suppressed. It was followed by another unsuccessful attempt in 1795. The authority of Spain was not contested again until 1811, when the people rose in rebellion and drove out the Spanish forces. The victories of Bolivar established the independence of New Granada, and in 1819 the state became a member of the republic of Colombia. This confederation was broken up by the withdrawal of Venezuela in 1829, and Ecuador in 1830. In 1831 New Granada declared itself an independent republic, and in 1832 adopted a constitution. The chief executive power was confided to a president, who was to be elected for a term of four years. From this time until 1860 the history of the republic was mainly peaceful and uneventful.

Early in 1860 a revolution broke out, headed by General Mosquera, the chief of the liberal party. President Ospina was overthrown, and Mosquera seized the government. A convention was held at Bogota in 1861, and a new republic was organized under the name of the United States of Colombia; a constitution was adopted, and

Mosquera was made dictator. The civil war was brought to an end in December, 1862, by the submission of the conservative party to the new republic. A national congress then met at Rio Negro on the 4th of February, 1863, and Mosquera resigned his dictatorial powers to this body. A new constitution was promulgated on the 8th of May, 1863, and subsequently Mosquera was appointed provisional president, to hold office till April 1st, 1864, when he was to be succeeded by a president elected by the people. The new constitution contained provisions confiscating the property of the church, and establishing religious liberty. These provisions aroused the hostility of the priests and their followers, who, headed by the Archbishop of Bogota, threw every obstacle in the way of the government. These disputes led to an attempt on the part of Mosquera, who had again been chosen president in 1866, to seize the whole power of the government. He was defeated, and condemned to two years of exile. The principles of religious liberty and immunity from imprisonment for debt remained undisturbed. In 1875 an outbreak in some of the Atlantic states occurred, but was put down. In 1876 an unsuccessful revolution was begun by the clerical party, but was suppressed in the following year.

The republic has steadily prospered of late years. Several important treaties have been entered into with the United States of America for the construction of a ship canal across the Isthmus of Darien. The undertaking of this great work, which is simply a necessity to modern commerce, is merely a question of time.

VI. THE HISTORY OF VENEZUELA.

The republic of Venezuela is situated in the northern part of South America, and lies between latitude $1^{\circ} 8'$ and $12^{\circ} 16'$ N., and longitude 60° and $73^{\circ} 17'$ W. It comprises an area of about 400,000 square miles, and contains a population of nearly two millions.

In the year 1498 Columbus discovered the eastern coast of Venezuela, and in 1499 Ojeda and Amerigo Vespucci explored the whole coast. The latter explorers sailed into Lake Maracaybo, where they found an Indian village built on piles over the water as a precaution against inundations. This they named Venezuela, or Little Venice, a name which was eventually applied to the

whole territory of the present republic. It soon attracted the attention of the Spaniards, and was conquered by them. In 1520 the city of Cumana was founded, and in 1527 the settlement of Coro was begun, these towns thus being among the oldest in America. The colony grew rapidly. In 1545 Tocuyo was founded; Barquisemeto in 1552, Valencia in 1555, and Carácas in 1567. Gold was discovered in the coast range in 1540.

Venezuela remained under Spanish rule until the early part of the present century. It warmly opposed the accession of Joseph Bonaparte to the Spanish throne, and on the 5th of July, 1811, threw off its allegiance to Spain, and declared itself independent. In 1812 the treaty of Victoria restored it to Spain. The Spanish rule was hateful to the people, and in 1813 Venezuela again revolted under the leadership of General Simon Bolivar. A long struggle ensued, and in 1819 the independence of the country was practically secured, and the republic of Colombia, consisting of New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador, was established. The war with Spain did not close until 1823, but the result was assured from the time of the formation of the republic. In 1821 a constitution was adopted. In 1829 Venezuela withdrew from the Colombian republic, and became an independent state. In 1830 Ecuador became a separate republic. The dissolution of the old confederation was peaceful and amicable. For the next fifteen years the history of Venezuela is peaceful and uneventful. In 1846 General Monagas became president. A period of constant civil war now set in, and lasted until June, 1863, when the accession of General Falcon to the presidency restored tranquillity to the country. Several years of peace followed, and then a new revolution broke out and resulted in the establishment of a provisional government under Guzman Blanco, in April, 1869. The next year he convened a congress at Valencia, and compelled that body to appoint him provisional president of the republic, with extraordinary powers. In February, 1873, he was elected by the people for a term of four years. He governed with a firm hand, and was practically a dictator, but he ruled well; and with a sincere desire to promote the welfare of his country, which under him enjoyed a degree of prosperity it had not known since its separation from Spain.

VII. THE HISTORY OF BOLIVIA.

The republic of Bolivia is situated on the western side of South America, and lies between latitude 12° and 24° S., and longitude $57^{\circ} 25'$ and $70^{\circ} 30'$ W. It comprises an area of 677,228 square miles, and contains a population of about two millions.

The primitive inhabitants of Bolivia were Indians. After the Spanish conquest of Peru the country passed under the dominion of Spain, and formed a part of the viceroyalty of Peru under the name of the presidency of Charcas, and at a later period of Upper Peru. In 1767 it was made a part of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. After the revolution of 1820 it became independent of Spain. In 1825 it was erected into an independent republic by General Simon Bolivar, and was named Bolivia in honor of him. A national convention was assembled, and General Bolivar was requested to prepare a constitution. General Sucre was chosen president, and continued in office until 1828, when he was overthrown and expelled from Bolivia by General Gamarra. Shortly after this he was assassinated. Sucre was succeeded by General Blanco, who, a few months later, was overthrown and slain in a revolution headed by General Balibian. In 1829 Mariscal Santa Cruz was elected president. He held office until February, 1839. In 1836 he became the head of the state in Peru, styling himself the Supreme Protector of the Bolivio-Peruvian confederation. This union between the two states was broken in 1839 by the overthrow of Santa Cruz by a new revolution. A period of confusion and civil war followed in Bolivia.

In 1858 Dr. Linares became president, and ruled with dictatorial power. He was overthrown in 1861, and Acha was named provisional president. In December, 1864, General Melgarejo headed a new revolution, and in February, 1865, defeated the government forces and became president. General Belzu attempted to overturn him, but was defeated and killed. Another revolt was put down in January, 1866. In that year Bolivia joined the alliance of Peru, Ecuador and Chili against Spain. In March, 1867, a large district in the northern part of the republic was ceded to Brazil. In December a formidable revolution, having for its object the restoration of Acha to the presidency, broke out. It was put down early in 1868. In February,

1869, Melgarejo, with the unanimous consent of the national congress, declared himself dictator. In May he restored the constitution, but continued to exercise his dictatorial powers. In October a new revolution broke out under the leadership of A. Morales. The outbreak was put down, but was renewed in July, 1870, only to be stamped out again. In 1871 a successful revolution drove Melgarejo out of the country, and Morales became president, for one year. In November Melgarejo was assassinated in Lima, by his son-in-law. Morales survived him a little more than a year, and was murdered by his son-in-law on the 27th of November, 1872. In May, 1873, Don Adolfo Ballivian became president of the republic. Ill health soon compelled him to withdraw from public life, and Dr. Tomàs Frias was appointed to succeed him, in February, 1874. On the 14th of the same month General Ballivian died. His death was followed by a series of revolutionary disturbances, which were not finally crushed until April, 1875.

Bolivia is naturally one of the richest countries of South America, but its great mountain chains cut it off from all communication with the sea or the rest of the continent on the western side, except by the tedious and expensive process of mule transport across the mountains. On the eastern side this obstacle to the progress of the republic does not exist. The Madeira river drains a large portion of the republic, receives the waters of the greater number of its streams, and finally empties into the Amazon. For about 150 miles it is obstructed by rapids. Below the rapids it is navigable to the Amazon, which river gives ready access to the sea. In 1872 it was resolved to build a railway around these rapids, and to bring Bolivia into direct communication with the rest of the world. The contract was undertaken by an English firm, and a liberal subsidy was granted by the Bolivian government. The contractors abandoned the undertaking in 1874, and in 1877 an agreement was entered into with a responsible firm in the United States, and at present (1878) the work is being pushed forward with vigor. The benefits which must result to Bolivia from this great work are incalculable.

VIII. THE HISTORY OF URUGUAY.

The republic of Uruguay is situated in the southern part of South America, on

the Atlantic or eastern side, and lies between latitude 30° and 35° S., and longitude 53° and 58° 30' W. It comprises an area of 63,300 square miles, and contains a population of nearly half a million.

The aboriginal inhabitants of Uruguay were South American Indians. In A. D. 1622 the first permanent European settlement was made by a band of Jesuit missionaries on the river Uruguay. The Portuguese, who had settled Brazil, were anxious to extend their dominions to the Plata, and planted several colonies in that region. Colonia was settled by them in 1680, and somewhat later a settlement was made by them on the present site of Montevideo. These efforts brought them in conflict with the Spaniards, who claimed the country. The war was settled in 1724 by the expulsion of the Portuguese. In 1776 Uruguay was made a part of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, and was called the district of Banda Oriental. It continued under Spanish rule until the beginning of the war for independence in 1811. It at first sided with Buenos Ayres, which was in insurrection against Spain. The Portuguese troops in Brazil took advantage of the war to seize Montevideo. They were driven from that city by the republican troops, chiefly through the exertions of José Artigas, a famous gaucho chief. Artigas now made himself Dictator of Uruguay, and compelled Buenos Ayres to acknowledge the independence of the new republic, A. D. 1814. He then undertook the conquest of Buenos Ayres, but was defeated and driven out of the country in 1820. In 1821 the Portuguese again invaded Uruguay, and forcibly annexed the republic to Brazil. Upon the erection of Brazil into an independent empire, Uruguay was constituted one of its provinces, with the name of Cisplatina. In 1825 Uruguay threw off the Brazilian yoke and proclaimed its independence, which was recognized by Brazil in 1828. As the price of this recognition the republic ceded to Brazil its northern territory, known as the Seven Missions. The new state took the name of "República del Uruguay Oriental." In 1830 a constitution was adopted.

The constitution had hardly been adopted when the republic was plunged into a state of civil war. In 1839 Oribe, an unsuccessful candidate for the presidency, besieged Montevideo. The siege was continued for nine years. The war was brought to a

close by the intervention of England and France, which powers compelled the combatants to cease a strife that was exhausting their country. Quiet was finally restored in 1852, and for the next eight years the republic was at peace. In 1860 Flores, an ex-president, began a new revolution. It was crushed in 1863 by the government forces. In 1864 Uruguay became involved in a war with Brazil, and the Brazilian army espoused the cause of Flores, and enabled him to enter Montevideo in triumph, in February, 1865. He made himself provisional president, and renewed the treaties with Brazil. On the 1st of May, 1865, Uruguay entered into the alliance of Brazil and the Argentine republic against Paraguay. In 1866 General Vidal became president of the republic. In 1868 an insurrection broke out in Montevideo, and during the disturbances General Flores was assassinated. In March, 1868, Vidal was succeeded in the presidency by General Lorenzo Battle. In 1870 a fresh revolution broke out. It was brought to an end by the election of Don José Elluari to the presidency. In 1875 he was deposed by his own party, and was succeeded by Pedro Varela, who was driven from power in March, 1876. His successor, Senor Latorre, declared himself dictator.

IX. THE HISTORY OF THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

The Argentine republic is situated in the southern part of South America, and lies between latitude 21° and 41° S., and longitude 53° and $71^{\circ} 17'$. It comprises an area of 841,000 square miles, and contained in 1875 a population of 1,768,681. The Argentines dispute with Chili the right to the region south of the Rio Negro, known as Patagonia, as far as Terra del Fuego. The dispute is still unsettled.

In 1512 Juan Diaz de Solis, a Spanish navigator, discovered the mouth of the Rio de la Plata. In 1535 the first Spanish colony was founded at Buenos Ayres. The country was regarded as a part of the viceroyalty of Peru, and so continued until 1620, when a new government was organized, the seat of which was located at Buenos Ayres. The new government was a dependency of Peru. In 1776 the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres was created. It embraced the countries now known as the Argentine republic, Bolivia, Uruguay, and Paraguay. In 1806, Spain being at war

with Great Britain, a small British force captured Buenos Ayres and Montevideo, but was soon driven out by the inhabitants. Another effort was made by a stronger British force to capture Buenos Ayres in 1807, but was repulsed.

In 1810 Buenos Ayres threw off the Spanish yoke, and proclaimed its independence. The war was decided in 1812 by the surrender of the Spanish forces at Montevideo. In January, 1813, a "sovereign assembly" was convened at Tucuman, then the capital of Buenos Ayres, and the administration of the government was confided to it. The independence of the republic being established, an army was sent into Chili, under General San Martin, and aided the Chilians in driving the Spaniards from that province. Peru was next assisted, and the independence of that country was secured in 1821.

In 1816 the new republic took the name of "The United Provinces of La Plata," and in 1817 General Puyrerredon was made supreme dictator. Somewhat later the city of Buenos Ayres was made the capital of the republic. In 1820 the dictatorship was abolished, and a democratic form of government was instituted, with General Rodriguez at its head. In 1824, the provinces along the Parana having joined La Plata, the form of government was changed to a republic, and Senor Las Heras was made president. In 1826 La Plata became involved in a war with Brazil, in the midst of which a revolution broke out, which entirely broke up the confederation. Peace was made with Brazil in 1828, through the mediation of England, and the independence of the republic of Uruguay was recognized by La Plata. In 1831 the Argentine republic was formed by the confederation of the provinces of Buenos Ayres, Corrientes, Entre-Rios, and Santa Fé. A little later some of the other provinces joined the union. This was followed by efforts of some of the leading officers of the army to overthrow the republic and seize the supreme power. This unsettled state of affairs continued until 1835, when Rosas, who had been chosen president in 1833, was made dictator. He held office until 1852, and during this period governed the republic with firmness and sternness. He made repeated efforts to force Paraguay and Uruguay to join the Argentine confederation. These efforts involved him in a quarrel with Brazil, which was also seeking to

get possession of Uruguay. During this contest Great Britain and France intervened at the request of the Emperor of Brazil; their fleets seized the Argentine fleet, opened the Parana, which Rosas had declared closed, and gave protection to vessels ascending that stream to Paraguay. Peace was made in 1848. In 1852 Rosas was defeated by the party opposed to him, and was driven from power. He escaped to England. Vicente Lopez succeeded him, and five months later by a sudden stroke made himself dictator.

In September, 1852, a revolution broke out in the province of Buenos Ayres, which withdrew from the confederation and established a government of its own. This act led to repeated quarrels and conflicts between the Argentine confederation and Buenos Ayres. On the 17th of September, 1871, the Argentine troops were defeated by the forces of Buenos Ayres under General Mitré. The Argentine confederation was now remodelled, with Buenos Ayres as the leading state. The city of Buenos Ayres was made the capital of the republic, a constitution was adopted, and General Mitré was chosen president. In 1865 the Argentine republic declared war against Paraguay, and entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with Brazil and Uruguay. The struggle resulted in the utter overthrow of Paraguay, the aggressions of which state had provoked the war, A. D. 1870.

The alliance of the Argentine confederation with Brazil and Uruguay gave great offence to certain parties in the republic, and led to several outbreaks. These were suppressed. The peace of 1870 was followed by a formidable rebellion in Entre-Rios, which lasted a year, and was put down only at the cost of an immense number of lives. The revolt was renewed in 1873, but was suppressed in the course of a few months. In 1874 the contest over the presidential election plunged the country into a new civil war, which lasted several months and caused much suffering. It was settled by the acknowledgment of the president elected by the people. Since then the history of the republic has been peaceful and uneventful. Under the able administration of President Avellaneda the wounds of civil war have been healed, the resources of the country have been developed, and a new era of prosperity has dawned upon the republic.

X. THE HISTORY OF PARAGUAY.

The republic of Paraguay is the only South American state that does not possess a seacoast. It lies between latitude $21^{\circ} 57'$ and $27^{\circ} 30' S.$, and longitude $54^{\circ} 33'$ and $58^{\circ} 40' W.$ It comprises an area of about 63,000 square miles, and contains a population of about 250,000.

In 1530 Paraguay was discovered by the Europeans, but the first Spanish colony was not planted in the country until 1536 or 1537, when the city of Asuncion was founded. The colony prospered, and was erected into a bishopric in 1555. The Spaniards found the Indians mild and friendly, industrious and intelligent, and very willing to learn the civilization of the whites. In 1557 the first missionaries arrived, and were so successful in their labors that they were soon followed by numerous others, and in a short while a number of thriving missions were established in the country.

The name of Paraguay was given to the entire basin of the Plata, and the country was governed by lieutenants of the Viceroy of Peru. In 1620 the King of Spain separated Paraguay and Buenos Ayres into two distinct governments, both remaining parts of the viceroyalty of Peru.

In the meantime the Jesuits had prospered beyond their hopes with the missions. Their principal establishments, known as "The Missions," were located in the region between the Uruguay and Parana rivers, and on the western bank of the Parana. The converted Indians were "collected by thousands into villages, where splendid churches were built; and finally, by a mandate which the Jesuits obtained about 1690, forbidding all other Spaniards to enter their territory without their permission, they were enabled to establish an almost independent theocratic government. Before the middle of the seventeenth century thirty missions had been founded; and in 1740 the number of civilized Indians was ascertained to be upward of 140,000. Each mission was built in a uniform style, with a great *plaza* in the centre, and here were erected the church, college, arsenal, stores, and workshops of the carpenters, smiths, and weavers, all under the immediate care of the priests. Once a week the male inhabitants went through military drill, prizes being given to the best marksmen. Church ceremonies were performed every day, the children beginning with morning

prayer, followed at sunrise by mass, at which the whole population attended. Baptisms took place in the afternoon; vespers were sung every evening; and holidays or festivals were chosen for the celebration of marriages. The Indians were excellent musicians and singers. . . . The schools and workshops were admirably managed, and the wood carving of the artisans still elicits admiration. The Spanish language was prohibited," the Guarani, or native Indian, only being used. Several books were printed in this

rated with Buenos Ayres. In 1811 the Paraguayans threw off their allegiance to Spain, and proclaimed their independence. An army sent from Buenos Ayres to reduce them to submission was defeated, and the independence of the country secured. The republic was at first governed by a *junta*, but in 1813 the executive power was confided to two consuls. In 1814 Dr. Francia, one of the consuls, made himself dictator. His powers were confirmed for three years, and then for life. He governed Paraguay with vigor and sometimes with cruelty, but



SCENE ON THE PARAGUAY RIVER.

language by the Jesuit presses. The attempt of the Jesuits to make their province independent of the colonial government, alarmed the Spanish authorities, and in 1767 an order was issued expelling the priests from the missions. They made no resistance, though they were well prepared to do so. After their departure the missions fell into decay, the converts were dispersed, some taking to the woods again, others being made prisoners by the Brazilians and sold into slavery.

In 1776 Paraguay was again incorpo-

on the whole his rule was beneficial to the country. He died on the 20th of September, 1840, and the government passed into the hands of a *junta*. In March, 1841, the consular system was revived, and two consuls were placed at the head of the state. In 1844 the form of government was again changed, and Lopez, one of the consuls, was made dictator for ten years. In 1854 his dictatorship was renewed for three years, and in 1857 for seven years. His rule was as arbitrary as that of Dr. Francia, but he allowed foreigners, who had been forbidden

by the first dictator to enter or leave the republic, to come and go at will, and was in other respects a more liberal ruler.

In 1853 the American war steamer "Water Witch" was sent by the United States government to survey the La Plata river. The expedition was well received by Lopez, and the surveys were carried on with success until February, 1855, when the steamer was fired upon by the Paraguayan Fort Itapirú, and one of her crew killed. The steamer returned the fire, but being no match for the fort, was obliged to withdraw. The United States government sent a strong fleet to punish Paraguay for this outrage, but the matter was settled through the mediation of the Argentine confederation, on terms consistent with the dignity of the United States. In 1858 a treaty was concluded with Brazil by which the waters of the Paraguay were declared free to all nations. The Paraguayan government, however, steadily discouraged foreign emigration and trade.

Lopez died in September, 1862, and was succeeded by his son, who is generally known as Marshal Lopez. He pursued an even more despotic course than his father. He was ambitious of converting his country into a monarchy, of which he should be emperor, and of enlarging his dominions by foreign conquests. In November, 1864, taking advantage of a quarrel between Brazil and Uruguay, he seized a Brazilian steamer on its voyage up the Paraguay to Matto Grosso, and held its crew and passengers as prisoners of war. Shortly after he invaded Matto Grosso and sacked Cuyabá, the capital of the province, and some other towns, and captured the diamond mines of that region. Being afraid that the Argentine republic would side with Brazil against him, Lopez, on the 13th of April, 1865, seized two Argentine war steamers in the bay of Corrientes, and the next day invested the town of Corrientes, set up a pro-

visional government, and declared the Argentine provinces of Corrientes and Entre-Rios annexed to the republic of Paraguay. On the 18th he declared war against the Argentine confederation. On the 1st of May Brazil, the Argentine confederation, and Uruguay entered into an offensive and defensive alliance against Paraguay, "solemnly binding themselves not to lay down their arms until the existing government of Paraguay should be overthrown, nor to treat with Lopez, unless by common consent." Hostilities began in June, 1865, and the war lasted until 1870. It was contested with desperate valor by the Paraguayans, who were driven from stronghold to stronghold by the land and naval forces of the allies. At length Lopez was defeated and killed at Aquidaban, on the 1st of March, 1870, and Paraguay submitted to the conquerors, who had already overrun the greater portion of the country. Paraguay was compelled to surrender the northern portion of her territory to Brazil as a compensation for the expenses of the war, and to make reparation to the other allies. Peace was made on the 20th of June, and on the 25th of November a new constitution was adopted, granting religious toleration, and encouragement and protection to foreign emigration and trade, and providing for the summary punishment of any person who should in future seek to assume the dictatorship. In December, 1871, the provisional government which had concluded the peace was succeeded by the permanent establishment, with Senor Jovellanos as president. Within a year three revolutions were undertaken against the government, which was obliged to ask the assistance of Brazil. The Brazilian troops suppressed the outbreaks in April, 1874, and since then Paraguay has been under Brazilian protection, while nominally independent.

THE END.

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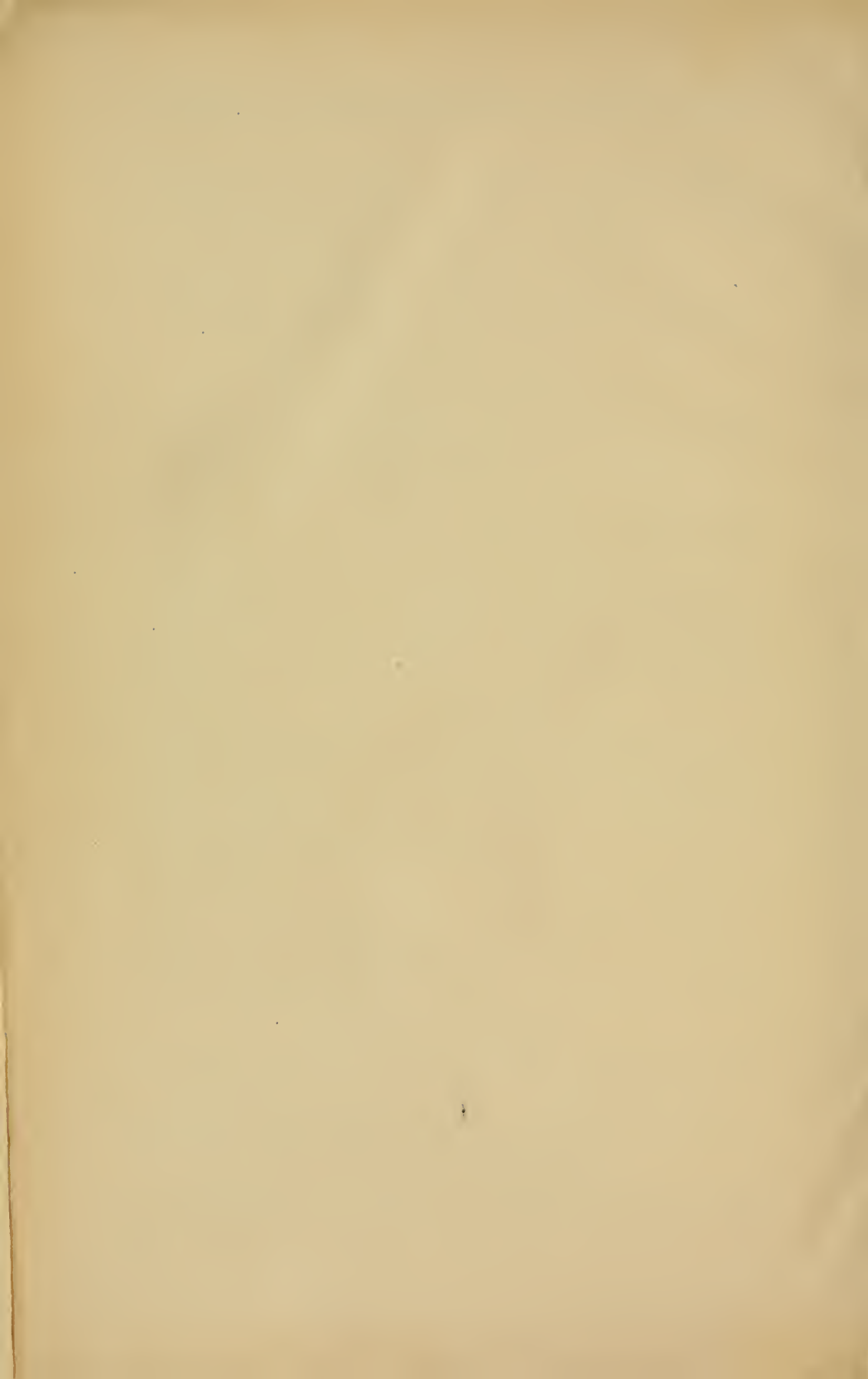
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